Andrew Jackson and the Growth of American Democracy

How well did President Andrew Jackson promote democracy?

Introduction

Perhaps the dirtiest campaign in U.S. history was the presidential election of 1828. The two candidates were John Quincy Adams, running for reelection, and Andrew Jackson, the popular hero of the War of 1812's Battle of New Orleans.

During the campaign, both sides hurled accusations at each other, a practice called mudslinging. Sometimes, these accusations had little to do with an opponent's political beliefs, focusing instead on often exaggerated or untrue personal attacks. Each side hoped that these assaults would undermine their opponent in the eyes of the public.

One example of mudslinging between candidates occurred when Jackson's supporters called Adams a “Sabbath-breaker” for traveling on Sunday. He was also accused of using public money to purchase “gambling furniture” for the White House. In reality, however, Adams had used his own money to buy a chess set and a billiard table.

The president's supporters lashed back by calling Jackson a crude and **ignorant** man who was unfit to be president. They attacked Jackson's parents, rural upbringing, and even brought up old scandals about his relationship with his wife. Jackson's troops called him “Old Hickory” because he was as tough as “the hardest wood in all creation,” but when he read such lies, he broke down and cried.

Despite the trying campaign, when the votes were counted, Jackson was the clear winner. This result was because his supporters came from among the general population, not the rich and upper class. In this lesson, you will discover how his presidency was viewed by different groups of people. You will also learn how Jackson's government affected the growth of democracy in the nation.

Social Studies Vocabulary

civil servant

Jacksonian Democracy

secede

spoils system

Trail of Tears

tariff

1 From the Frontier to the White House

1. From the Frontier to the White House

Andrew Jackson was born in 1767, on the South Carolina frontier. His father died before he was born, leaving the family in poverty. Young Jackson loved sports more than schoolwork, but he also had a hot temper. A friend recalled that he would pick a fight at the drop of a hat, and "he'd drop the hat himself."

Jackson's childhood ended at the age of 13 after he joined the local militia and was captured by the British during the American Revolution. One day, a British officer ordered Jackson to polish his boots. "Sir," he replied boldly, "I am a prisoner of war, and claim [demand] to be treated as such." The outraged officer lashed out with his sword, slicing the boy's head and hand, leaving scars that Jackson would carry with him for the rest of his life.

Frontier Lawyer After the war, Jackson decided to become a lawyer. He went to work in a law office in North Carolina, where he quickly became known as "the most roaring, rollicking, game-cocking, horse-racing, card-playing, mischievous fellow" in town.

In 1788, Jackson headed west to practice law in Nashville, Tennessee, which was a tiny frontier settlement of rough cabins and tents at the time. The town grew quickly, and Jackson's practice grew with it. He soon earned enough money to buy land and slaves and set himself up as a gentleman farmer.

Despite his success, Jackson never outgrew his hot temper. A slave trader named Charles Dickinson found this out when he called Jackson "a worthless scoundrel." Enraged, Jackson challenged Dickinson to a duel with pistols, which was an acceptable way of settling disputes between gentlemen at that time. Jackson killed Dickinson with a single shot, even though Dickinson shot first and wounded him.

The People's Choice Jackson entered politics in Tennessee, serving in both the House and Senate. However, he did not become widely known until the Battle of New Orleans during the War of 1812, in which his defense of the city made "Old Hickory" a national hero.

In 1824, Jackson ran for president against three other candidates: Henry Clay, William Crawford, and John Quincy Adams. Jackson won the most popular votes as well as the most electoral votes, but he did not have enough electoral votes for a majority. When no candidate has an electoral majority, the House of Representatives chooses a president from among the three leading candidates.

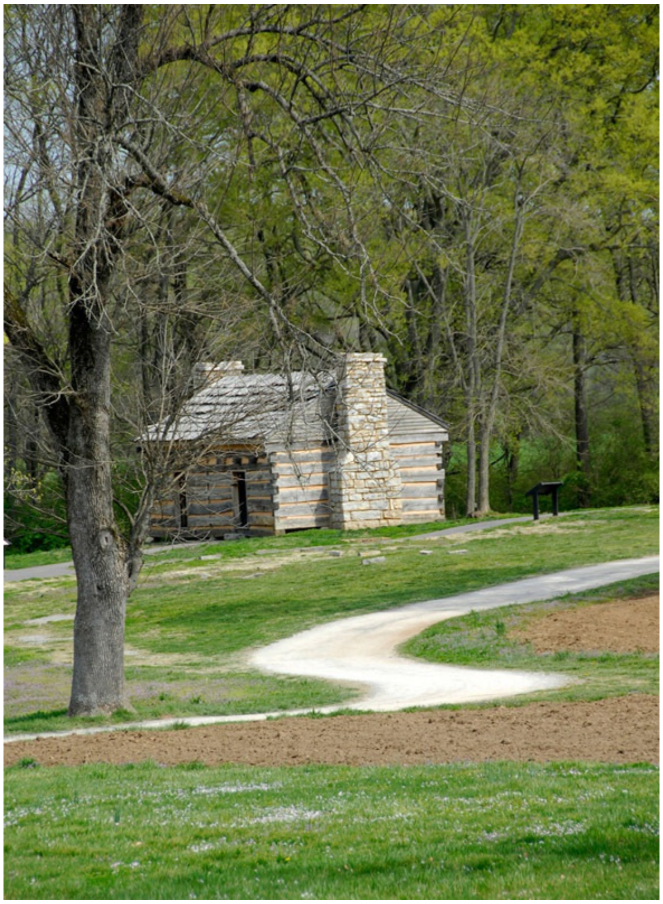
Clay, who had come in fourth, urged his supporters in the House to vote for Adams. That support gave Adams enough votes to be elected president. In return, Adams chose Clay to be his secretary of state.

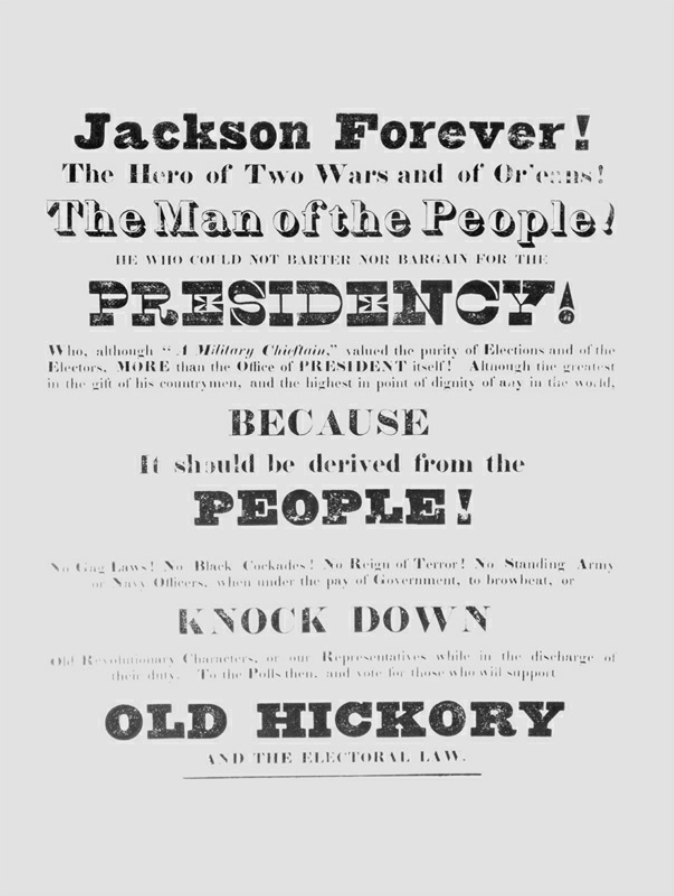
It made sense for Adams to bring Clay into his cabinet because the two men shared many of the same goals. Jackson's supporters, however, promised revenge in the election of 1828 against Adams and Clay, whom they accused of making a “corrupt bargain” to rob their hero of his rightful election.

Jackson's supporters used the time between elections to build a new political organization that came to be called the Democratic Party, the name it still uses today. This new party, they promised, would represent ordinary farmers, workers, and the poor, not the rich and upper class who controlled the Republican Party.

In the election of 1828, Jackson's supporters worked hard to reach the nation's voters. Besides hurling insults at Adams, they organized parades, picnics, and rallies where supporters sang “The Hunters of Kentucky”—the nation's first campaign song—and cheered for Old Hickory. They wore Jackson badges, carried hickory sticks, and chanted catchy campaign slogans like “Adams can write, but Jackson can fight.”

The result was a great victory for Jackson, but it was also a victory for the idea that the common people should control their government. This idea eventually became known as **Jacksonian Democracy**.





Jackson Forever!
The Hero of Two Wars and of Orleans!
The Man of the People!
HE WHO COULD NOT BARTER NOR BARGAIN FOR THE
PRESIDENCY!
Who, although "*A Military Chieftain*," valued the purity of Elections and of the Electors, MORE than the Office of PRESIDENT itself! Although the greatest in the gift of his countrymen, and the highest in point of dignity of any in the world,
BECAUSE
It should be derived from the
PEOPLE!
No Gag Laws! No Black Cockades! No Reign of Terror! No Standing Army or Navy Officers, when under the pay of Government, to browbeat, or
KNOCK DOWN
Old Revolutionary Characters, or our Representatives while in the discharge of their duty. To the Polls then, and vote for those who will support
OLD HICKORY
AND THE ELECTORAL LAW.

2. The Inauguration of Andrew Jackson

On March 4, 1829, more than 10,000 people, who came from every state, crowded into Washington, D.C., to witness Andrew Jackson's inauguration. The visitors overwhelmed local hotels, sleeping five to a bed. “I never saw such a crowd here before,” observed Senator Daniel Webster. “Persons have come five hundred miles to see General Jackson, and they really seem to think that the country is rescued from some dreadful disaster!”

Many of the people flocking into the capital were first-time voters. Until the 1820s, only white men with property were thought to have the education and experience to vote wisely, and so the right to vote had excluded many poorer citizens.

The new states forming west of the Appalachians challenged this argument. Along the frontier, all men—rich or poor, educated or not—shared the same opportunities and dangers, and they believed that they should also share the same rights, including the right to vote.

With the western states leading the way, voting laws were changed to give the “common man” the right to vote. While this expansion of democracy did not yet include African Americans, American Indians, or women, it did allow over one million Americans to vote in 1828, more than three times the number who voted in 1824.

Many of these new voters did believe they had rescued the country from disaster because, in their view, the national government had been taken over by corrupt “monied interests”—that is, the rich. Jackson had promised to throw the rich out and return the government to “the people.” His election reflected a shift in power to the West and to the farmers, shopkeepers, and small-business owners who supported him.

After Jackson was sworn in as president, a huge crowd followed him to the White House, where the celebration turned into a near riot as the crowd surged in. “Ladies fainted, men were seen with bloody noses, and such a scene of confusion took place as is impossible to describe,” wrote an eyewitness, Margaret Bayard Smith. Jackson was nearly “pressed to death” before escaping out a back door. “But it was the People's day, and the People's President,” Smith concluded. “And the people would rule.”

3. Jackson's Approach to Governing

Andrew Jackson approached governing much as he had leading an army. He listened to others, but then did what he thought was right.

The Kitchen Cabinet Instead of relying only on his cabinet for advice, Jackson made most of his decisions with the help of trusted friends and political supporters. Because these advisers were said to meet with him in the White House kitchen, they were called the “kitchen cabinet.”

The rich men who had been used to influencing the government viewed the “kitchen cabinet” with deep suspicion because they believed that the men around the president were not the proper sort to be running the country. One congressman accused Amos Kendall, Jackson's closest adviser, of being “the President's . . . lying machine.” Jackson ignored such charges and continued to turn to men he trusted for advice.

The Spoils System Jackson's critics were even more upset by his decision to replace many Republican officeholders with loyal Democrats. Most of these **civil servants** viewed their posts as lifetime jobs, but Jackson disagreed. Rotating people in office was more democratic than lifetime service, he said, because it gave more people a chance to serve their government. Jackson believed that after a few years in office, civil servants should go back to making a living as other people do.

Jackson's opponents called the practice of rewarding political supporters with government jobs the **spoils system**. This term came from the saying “to the victor belong the spoils [prizes] of war.”

Jackson's opponents also exaggerated the number of Republicans removed from office. Only about 10 percent of civil servants were replaced—and many deserved to be. One official had stolen $10,000 from the Treasury. When he begged Jackson to let him stay, the president said, “I would turn out my own father under the same circumstances.”

4. The Nullification Crisis

Andrew Jackson's approach to governing met its test in an issue that threatened to break up the United States. In 1828, Congress passed a law raising **tariffs**, or taxes on imported goods such as cloth and glass. The idea was to encourage the growth of manufacturing in the United States. Higher tariffs meant higher prices for imported factory goods, which would allow American manufacturers to outsell their foreign competitors.

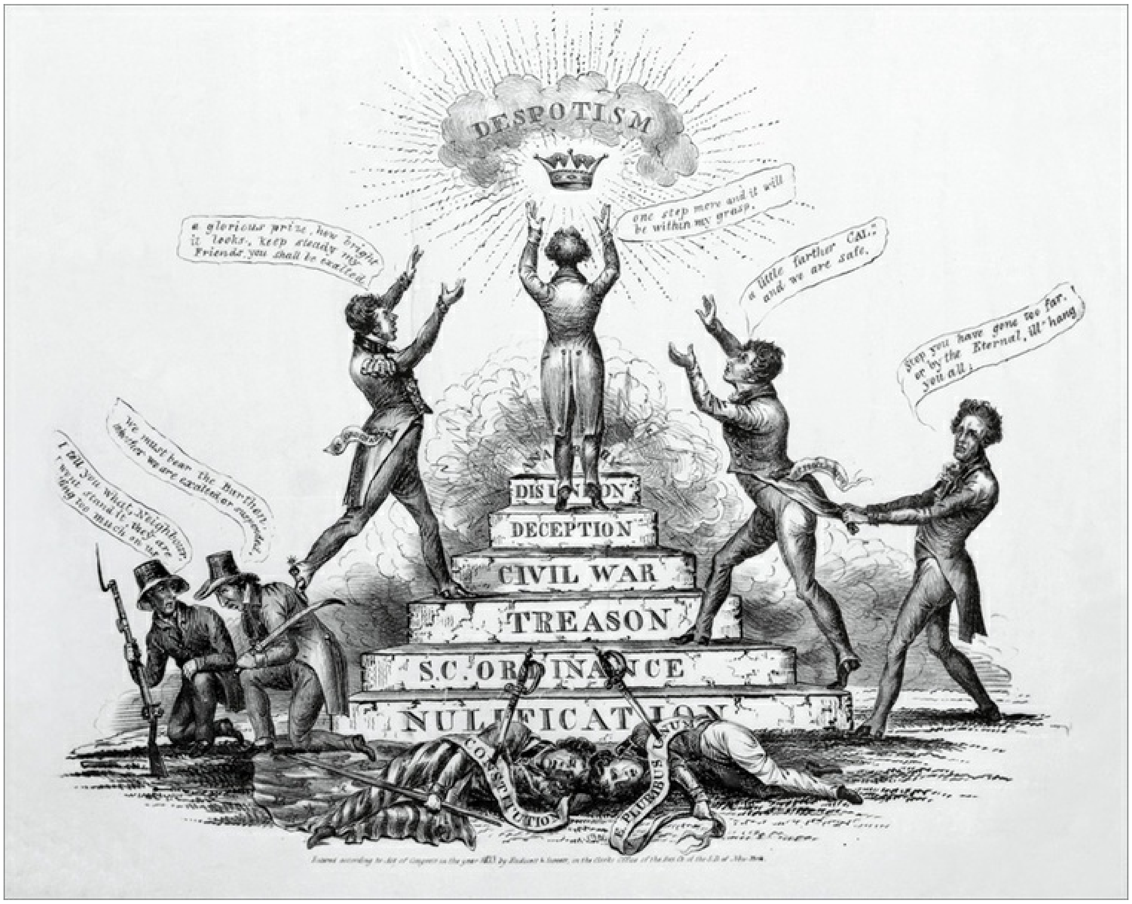
While Northern states, humming with new factories, favored the new tariff law, southerners opposed tariffs for several reasons. Tariffs raised the prices they paid for factory goods. High tariffs also discouraged trade among nations, and planters in the South worried that tariffs would hurt cotton sales to other countries. In addition, many southerners believed that a law favoring one region—in this case, the North—was unconstitutional. Based on this belief, John C. Calhoun, Jackson's vice president, called on southern states to declare the tariff “null and void,” or illegal and not to be honored.

Jackson understood southerners' concerns and signed a new law that lowered tariffs in 1832. However, these tariffs were still not low enough to satisfy the most extreme supporters of states' rights in South Carolina. Led by Calhoun, they proclaimed South Carolina's right to nullify, or reject, both the 1828 and 1832 tariff laws. Such an action was called nullification.

South Carolina took the idea of states' rights even further. The state threatened to **secede** if the national government tried to enforce the tariff laws.

Even though he was from South Carolina, Jackson was outraged. “If one drop of blood be shed there in defiance of the laws of the United States,” he raged, “I will hang the first man of them I can get my hands on to the first tree I can find.” He called on Congress to pass the Force Bill, which would allow him to use the federal army to collect tariffs if needed. At the same time, Congress passed a compromise bill that lowered tariffs still further.

Faced with such firm opposition, South Carolina backed down and the nullification **crisis** ended. However, the tensions between the North and the South would increase in the years ahead.



5. Jackson Battles the Bank of the United States

Andrew Jackson saw himself as the champion of the people, and never more so than in his war with the Bank of the United States. The bank was partly owned by the federal government, and it had a monopoly on federal deposits.

Jackson thought that the bank benefited rich eastern depositors at the expense of farmers and workers, as well as smaller state banks. He felt that the bank stood in the way of opportunity for capitalists in the West and other regions. He also distrusted the bank's president, Nicholas Biddle, who was everything Jackson was not: wealthy, upper class, well educated, and widely traveled.

The bank's charter, or contract, was due to come up for renewal in 1836. Jackson might have waited until after his reelection to “slay the monster.” However, Henry Clay, who planned to run for president against Jackson in 1832, decided to force the issue by pushing a bill through Congress that renewed the bank's charter four years early. He thought that if Jackson signed the bill, the farmers who shared his dislike of banks would not reelect him. If Jackson vetoed the bill, he would lose votes from businesspeople who depended on the bank for loans. What Clay had forgotten was that there were many more poor farmers to cast votes than there were rich bankers and businesspeople.

Jackson vetoed the recharter bill. Even though the Supreme Court had held that the bank was constitutional, Jackson called the bank an unconstitutional monopoly that existed mainly to make the rich richer. The voters seemed to agree, and a large majority elected Jackson to a second term in 1832.

Rather than wait for the bank to die when its charter ran out, Jackson decided to starve it to death by ordering the secretary of the treasury to remove all federal deposits from the bank and put the money in state banks. Jackson's enemies called these banks "pet banks" because the president's supporters ran them.

Delegations of business owners begged Jackson not to kill the bank, but Jackson refused. Abolishing the bank, he believed, was a victory for economic democracy.

GENERAL JACKSON SLAYING THE MANY HEADED MONSTER.

6. Jackson's Indian Policy

As a frontier settler, Andrew Jackson had little sympathy for American Indians. During his presidency, it became national policy to remove American Indians who remained in the East by force.

White settlers had come into conflict with American Indians ever since colonial days. After independence, the new national government tried to settle these conflicts through treaties, which typically drew boundaries between areas claimed for settlers and areas that the government promised to let the American Indians have forever. In exchange for giving up their old lands, American Indians were promised food, supplies, and money.

Despite the treaties, American Indians continued to be pushed off their land. By the time Jackson became president, only 125,000 American Indians still lived east of the Mississippi River. War and disease had greatly reduced their number in the East, while others had sold their lands for pennies an acre and moved west of the Mississippi. Jackson was determined to remove the remaining American Indians to a new Indian Territory in the West.

Most of the eastern Indians lived in the South and belonged to one of five groups, called tribes by whites: the Creek, Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Seminole. Hoping to remain in their homelands, these American Indians had adopted many white ways. Most had given up hunting to become farmers, and many had learned to read and write. The Cherokee had their own written language, a newspaper, and a constitution modeled on the U.S. Constitution. Whites called these American Indians the “Five Civilized Tribes.”

While the Five Civilized Tribes may have hoped to live in peace with their neighbors, many whites did not share this goal. As cotton growing spread westward, wealthy planters and poor settlers alike looked greedily at Indian homelands and decided that these American Indians had to go.

The Indian Removal Act In 1830, urged on by President Jackson, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act. This law allowed the president to make treaties in which American Indians in the East traded their lands for new territory on the Great Plains. The law did not say that they should be removed by force, and in 1831 the Supreme Court held that American Indians had a right to keep their lands. An angry Jackson disagreed, however, and groups that refused to move west **voluntarily**

were met with military force, usually with tragic results.

This was true of the Sac and Fox Indians of Illinois, who fought removal for two years under the leadership of a chief named Black Hawk. Black Hawk's War ended in 1832 with the slaughter of most of his warriors, and as he was taken off in chains, the chief told his captors,

> *Black Hawk is an Indian. He has done nothing for which an Indian ought to be ashamed. He has fought for his countrymen, the squaws [women] and papooses [young children], against white men who came, year after year, to cheat them of and take away their land. You know the cause of our making war. It is known to all white men. They ought to be ashamed of it.*

The Trail of Tears Many whites were ashamed over the treatment of American Indians and sent protests to Washington, D.C. Still, the work of removal continued, and in 1836, thousands of Creek Indians who refused to leave Alabama were rounded up and marched west in handcuffs. Two years later, under President Martin Van Buren, more than 17,000 Cherokees were forced from their homes in Georgia and herded west by federal troops. Four thousand of these American Indians died during the long walk to Indian Territory, which took place in the winter. Those who survived remembered that terrible journey as the **Trail of Tears**. A soldier who took part in the Cherokee removal called it “the cruelest work I ever knew.”

Led by a young chief named Osceola (ah-see-OH-luh), the Seminoles of Florida resisted removal for ten years. Their long struggle was the most costly Indian war ever fought in the United States. A number of Seminoles were finally sent to Indian Territory, but others found safety in the Florida swamps. Their descendants still live in Florida today.

When Andrew Jackson left office, he was proud of having “solved” the American Indian problem for good. In reality, Jackson had simply moved the conflict between American Indians and whites across the Mississippi River.

Lesson Summary

In this lesson, you read about the presidency of Andrew Jackson and evaluated how well he promoted democracy from the perspectives of various groups.

From the Frontier to the White House Andrew Jackson was a self-made man who rose from poverty to become president of the United States. First-time voters, many of them farmers and frontier settlers, helped elect Jackson in 1828. His supporters celebrated his election as a victory for the “common man” over the rich and powerful.

Jackson's Approach to Governing As president, Jackson relied on his “kitchen cabinet” rather than the official cabinet. He replaced a number of Republican civil servants with Democrats in a practice that became known as the spoils system.

The Nullification Crisis A controversy over higher tariffs led to the nullification crisis, in which South Carolinians threatened to secede from the United States. Although Jackson forced them to back down, the crisis was another sign of developing tensions between North and South.

The Battle Against the Bank Jackson thought the Bank of the United States benefited rich eastern depositors at the expense of farmers, workers, and smaller state banks. He also thought it stood in the way of opportunity for capitalists in the West and other regions. Jackson vetoed the bank's renewal charter.

Jackson's Indian Policy Jackson's Indian policy was simple: move the eastern Indians across the Mississippi to make room for whites. The Indian Removal Act caused great suffering for tens of thousands of American Indians.

Reading Further

The Trail Where They Cried

In the 1830s, thousands of Cherokees were forcibly removed from their homeland in the Appalachian Mountains. Like other eastern Indians before them, their valiant effort to hold on to their land failed, and they were driven west on the Trail of Tears.

In 1890, John G. Burnett, a former soldier, wrote a story to his family on the occasion of his 80th birthday to tell them about his experiences with the Cherokees. “The removal of the Cherokee Indians . . . in the year of 1838,” he recalled, took place when he was “a young man in the prime of life.”

Burnett had grown up in eastern Tennessee, on the edge of Cherokee

Territory. As a young man, he had roamed the hills and valleys of the Appalachians, fishing for trout and hunting for deer and wild boar. He had also gotten to know many Cherokees, spending time “hunting with them by day and sleeping around their campfires by night,” he recounted. “I learned to speak their language, and they taught me the arts of trailing and building traps and snares.” Through his experiences, Burnett learned to respect the Cherokees' way of life.

When the removal began, Burnett, who was a private in the U.S. Army, was brought in as an interpreter because he spoke Cherokee. In that role, he witnessed what he called “the most brutal order in the history of American Warfare.” He recalled,

> *I saw the helpless Cherokees arrested and dragged from their homes, and driven at the bayonet point into the stockades [fenced-in enclosures]. And in the chill of a drizzling rain on an October morning I saw them loaded like cattle or sheep into six hundred and forty-five wagons and started toward the west . . .*
>
> *On the morning of November the 17th we encountered a terrific sleet and snow storm with freezing temperatures and from that day until we reached the end of the fateful journey on March the 26th, 1839, the sufferings of the Cherokees were awful. The trail of the exiles was a trail of death.*

Burnett called the Cherokee removal a form of murder. Why was this tragedy inflicted on the Cherokees?

The Cherokee Nation

For centuries, the Cherokees had lived in the southern Appalachians, which was their ancient home and the center of their world. Like other southeastern Indians, they had lost land to white settlers during the colonial period. Although their homeland was much reduced in size by the end of the American Revolution, they were determined to hold on to it.

Unlike some American Indians who continued to fight white settlement, the Cherokees tried to work with the U.S. government to keep their land. They accepted the terms of treaties that limited their territory and agreed to the government's efforts to “civilize” them. They took up farming as their main activity, dressed in European clothing, and went to school to learn how to read and write. They even embraced the values of American democracy by creating a republican form of government with a written constitution. They were, in the eyes of many Americans, a “model” group of American Indians.

The Cherokees were not willing to do everything the government asked of them, though. They wanted to maintain their own identity as a separate Cherokee nation and were unwilling to sell their land and blend in with other Americans. This meant they were still an obstacle to white settlement and expansion in the South.

The state of Georgia, in particular, found the Cherokee position on selling their land to be unacceptable. Georgia settlers believed they had a stronger claim to the Cherokee land and sought reinforcement from the government to back up this claim. They found strong support in President Andrew Jackson, who did not want the Indians so close to U.S. territory.

The Cherokees had been faithful allies of the United States during the War of 1812, even fighting under Jackson's command against other American Indians. However, Jackson did not believe that American Indians could live alongside white Americans and wanted them moved out of the way to unoccupied territory in the West.

As president, Jackson allowed Georgia to put pressure on the American Indians, which increased after gold was discovered on Cherokee land in 1829. The following year, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act with Jackson's support. However, the president still could not force the Cherokees to move because their land rights were based on a treaty with the government. The government would need the Cherokee to sign another treaty giving up their land.

The Removal

The Cherokee government, under Chief John Ross, had worked hard to prevent removal and had appealed to the American people to win sympathy for its cause. It had also taken its case to court, asking the justice system to support the Cherokees' right to their land.

However, a number of Cherokee leaders believed that removal was inevitable and refused to support the efforts to keep the land. In 1835, these men signed the Treaty of New Echota, agreeing to give up the land and move west to Indian Territory. Chief Ross and the majority of Cherokees were outraged over what they considered an illegal treaty. After appealing to an unsympathetic Congress, they were told everyone would have to go.

Some Cherokees—mainly those who supported the treaty—left voluntarily, but most waited until the deadline of May 1838. At that point, an army of 7,000 U.S. soldiers surrounded Cherokee Territory and forced the Cherokees out of their homes and into temporary camps or stockades. “The soldiers came and took us from home,” one Cherokee woman recalled. “They drove us out of doors and did not permit us to take anything with us, not even a . . . change of clothes.”

Many Cherokees were held in the camps for months under harsh conditions. One missionary reported that the American Indians “were obliged at night to lie down on the naked ground, in the open air, exposed to wind and rain, and herd[ed] together . . . like droves of hogs.” Some Cherokees escaped and fled into the mountains, only to be captured by soldiers and returned to the camps.

The march west began in June of 1838 and took place in several phases and along several routes. The first parties traveled by land and river, but after summer heat and drought conditions caused great suffering, the government decided to postpone further actions until fall.

In October, the removals began again and would continue for several months. Although some Cherokees traveled in wagons or on horseback, most were forced to make the 850-mile journey west on foot. One witness wrote, “Even aged females, apparently nearly ready to drop into the grave, were traveling with heavy burdens attached to the back —on the sometimes frozen ground . . . with no covering for the feet except what nature had given them.” As winter took hold, conditions worsened. One wagon driver reported,

> *There is the coldest weather in Illinois I ever experienced anywhere. The streams are all frozen over something like eight or twelve inches thick. We are compelled to cut through the ice to get water for ourselves and [the] animals.*
>
> —Martin Davis, in a letter of December 1838

Several parties were held up by winter weather, unable to go forward for weeks on end. They suffered from conditions like exposure, disease, and starvation, which were especially hard on children and the elderly. One woman recalled that “there was much sickness and a great many little children died of whooping cough.” Many Cherokees were buried along the trail.

Finally, in the spring of 1839, the last of the groups arrived in Indian Territory. By that time, some 4,000 Cherokees—around a fourth of all those removed—had died. The survivors would call this journey Nu-No-Du-Na-Tlo-Hi-Lu, or “The Trail Where They Cried.”

The Aftermath

At first, life in Indian Territory was challenging because the Cherokees had no homes and few possessions. In addition, many of the later arrivals had bitter feelings toward the treaty supporters who had moved west before them and considered these people traitors. Violence sometimes flared between the newer and older groups of Cherokees.

Gradually, the Cherokee people got back on their feet and formed a new government, established a good public school system, and set up farms and businesses. John Ross, who had pleaded the Cherokees' case in front of Congress, continued to lead the Cherokees until his death in 1866.

Today, the Cherokee Nation in Oklahoma has around 240,000 citizens with smaller, separate bands of Cherokees living in Oklahoma and North Carolina. While the Trail of Tears represents a great tragedy in their history for all Cherokees, they also take pride in what they have achieved. As Chad Smith, the current leader of the Cherokee Nation, put it, “We are not a people of the past. We are a people of the present, and for many centuries, we will be a people of the future.”


Sequoyah
Birthplace
Museum
ᎤᏂ ᏔᎵᏁᎢᏍᏗ ᎠᏂᏣᎳᎩ
Trail of Tears
National Historic Trail

Broken Promises: Treaties with American Indians

The land that grew into the United States had been home to American Indians long before Europeans stepped foot on the continent. At first, it seemed possible that the European newcomers could peacefully share the land. But that was not possible at all. As more and more white settlers desired to build homes and farms, they demanded that their government move the Americans Indians out.

The federal government made more than 370 treaties with various American Indian tribes. These agreements were designed to move the tribes off their land in exchange for money, goods, and other promises. Examine the wording from some of the treaties to try to determine what each side is giving up and what each side is gaining in these agreement.

Treaty with Six Nations, January 9, 1789

(This treaty mentions an earlier treaty at Fort Stanwix on October 22, 1784, made between the U.S. government and tribes in northern New York.)

ARTICLE 1. *WHEREAS the United States, in congress assembled, did, by their commissioners, Oliver Wolcott, Richard Butler, and Arthur Lee, esquires, duly appointed for that purpose, at a treaty held with the said Six Nations, viz: with the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Tuscaroras, Cayugas, and Senekas, at fort Stanwix, on the twenty-second day of October, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-four, give peace to the said nations, and receive them into their friendship and protection: And whereas the said nations have now agreed to and with the said Arthur St. Clair, to renew and confirm all the engagements and stipulations entered into at the beforementioned treaty at fort Stanwix: and whereas it was then and there agreed, between the United States of America and the said Six Nations, that a boundary line should be fixed between the lands of the said Six Nations and the territory of the said United States, which boundary line is as follows, viz: Beginning at the mouth of a creek, about four miles east of Niagara, called Ononwayea, or Johnston's Landing Place, upon the lake named by the Indians Oswego, and by us Ontario; from thence southerly, in a direction always four miles east of the carrying place, between lake Erie and lake Ontario, to the mouth of Tehoseroton, or Buffalo creek, upon lake Erie; thence south, to the northern boundary of the state of Pennsylvania; thence west, to the end of the said north boundary; thence south, along the west boundary of the said state to the river*

Ohio. The said line, from the mouth of Ononwayea to the Ohio, shall be the western boundary of the lands of the Six Nations, so that the Six Nations shall and do yield to the United States, all claim to the country west of the said boundary; and then they shall be secured in the possession of the lands they inhabit east, north, and south of the same, reserving only six miles square, round the fort of Oswego, for the support of the same. The said Six Nations, except the Mohawks, none of whom have attended at this time, for and in consideration of the peace then granted to them, the presents they then received, as well as in consideration of a quantity of goods, to the value of three thousand dollars, now delivered to them by the said Arthur St. Clair, the receipt whereof they do hereby acknowledge, do hereby renew and confirm the said boundary line in the words beforementioned, to the end that it may be and remain as a division line between the lands of the said Six Nations and the territory of the United States, forever. And the undersigned Indians, as well in their own names as in the name of their respective tribes and nations, their heirs and descendants, for the considerations beforementioned, do release, quit claim, relinquish, and cede, to the United States of America, all the lands west of the said boundary or division line, and between the said line and the strait, from the mouth of Ononwayea and Buffalo Creek, for them, the said United States of America, to have and to hold the same, in true and absolute propriety, forever.

ARTICLE 2. *The United States of America confirm to the Six Nations, all the lands which they inhabit, lying east and north of the beforementioned boundary line, and relinquish and quit claim to the same and every part thereof, excepting only six miles square round the fort of Oswego, which six miles square round said fort is again reserved to the United States by these presents.*

ARTICLE 3. *The Oneida and Tuscarora nations, are also again secured and confirmed in the possession of their respective lands.*

ARTICLE 4. *The United States of America renew and confirm the peace and friendship entered into with the Six Nations, (except the Mohawks), at the treaty beforementioned, held at fort Stanwix, declaring the same to be perpetual. And if the Mohawks shall, within six months, declare their assent to the same, they shall be considered as included. . . .*

After the Treaty

The Onondaga, Seneca, Oneida, and Tuscarora remained in New York, eventually settling on reservations. A few decades later, a large group of Oneida moved to Wisconsin. Others moved to Canada along with the

Mohawk and the Cayuga. The U.S. has kept one promise made in a 1794 Treaty of Canandaigua. Every year, the government follows Article 6 of that treaty, which says that the government will provide goods worth $4,500, “which shall be expended yearly forever.” The government sends bolts of cloth to distribute to tribal citizens.

Treaty with the Cherokee, July 2, 1791

ARTICLE 1. *There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between all the citizens of the United States of America, and all the individuals composing the whole Cherokee nation of Indians.*

ARTICLE 2. *The undersigned Chiefs and Warriors, for themselves and all parts of the Cherokee nation, do acknowledge themselves and the said Cherokee nation, to be under the protection of the said United States of America, and of no other sovereign whosoever; and they also stipulate that the said Cherokee nation will not hold any treaty with any foreign power, individual state, or with individuals of any state.*

ARTICLE 3. *The Cherokee nation shall deliver to the Governor of the territory of the United States of America, south of the river Ohio, on or before the first day of April next, at this place, all persons who are now prisoners, captured by them from any part of the United States: And the United States shall on or before the same day, and at that same place, restore to the Cherokees, all the prisoners now in captivity, which the citizens of the United States have captured from them.*

ARTICLE 4. *The boundary between the citizens of the United States and the Cherokee nation, is and shall be as follows: Beginning at the top of the Currahee mountain, where the Creek line passes it . . .*

ARTICLE 5. *It is stipulated and agreed, that the citizens and inhabitants of the United States, shall have a free and unmolested use of a road from Washington district to Mero district, and of the navigation of the Tennessee river.*

ARTICLE 6. *It is agreed on the part of the Cherokees, that the United States shall have the sole and exclusive right of regulating their trade.*

ARTICLE 7. *The United States solemnly guarantee to the Cherokee nation, all their lands not hereby ceded.*

ARTICLE 8. *If any citizen of the United States, or other person not being an Indian, shall settle on any of the Cherokees' lands, such person shall forfeit the protection of the United States, and the*

Cherokees may punish him or not, as they please.

ARTICLE 9. *No citizen or inhabitant of the United States, shall attempt to hunt or destroy the game on the lands of the Cherokees; nor shall any citizen or inhabitant go into the Cherokee country, without a passport first obtained from the Governor of some one of the United States, or territorial districts, or such other person as the President of the United States may from time to time authorize to grant the same. . . .*

After the Treaty

After Congress passed the Indian Removal Act in 1830, the Cherokee could no longer hold onto their promised land. Nearly 7,000 U.S. soldiers forced as many as 16,000 Cherokee from their homes, which the soldiers then robbed and burned. The Cherokee along with other eastern tribes had to walk to their assigned land in Indian Territory, which today is in northeastern Oklahoma.

Treaty with the Chickasaw, September 20, 1816

ARTICLE 1. *Peace and friendship are hereby firmly established, and perpetuated, between the United States of America and Chickasaw nation.*

ARTICLE 2. *The Chickasaw nation cede to the United States (with the exception of such reservations as shall hereafter be specified) all right or title to lands on the north side of the Tennessee river, and relinquish all claim to territory on the south side of said river, and east of a line commencing at the mouth of Caney creek running up said creek to its source, thence a due south course to the ridge path, or commonly called Gaines's road, along said road south westwardly to a point on the Tombigby river, well known by the name of the Cotton Gin port, and down the west bank of the Tombigby to the Chocktaw boundary.*

ARTICLE 3. *In consideration of the relinquishment of claim, and cession of lands, made in the preceding article, the commissioners agree to allow the Chickasaw nation twelve thousand dollars per annum for ten successive years, and four thousand five hundred dollars to be paid in sixty days after the ratification of this treaty into the hands of Levi Colbert, as a compensation for any improvements which individuals of the Chickasaw nation may have had on the lands surrendered; that is to say, two thousand dollars for improvements on the east side of the Tombigby, and two thousand five hundred dollars* *for improvements on the north side of the Tennessee river.*

After the Treaty

In 1837, U.S. soldiers removed the Chickasaw from Mississippi, Kentucky, Alabama, and Tennessee. The Chickasaw were forced to join other tribes in Indian Territory. Unlike some other tribes, the Chickasaw negotiated to receive money for their lost land. The U.S. paid them more than $500,000.

- Treaty With the Six Nations, signed at Fort Harmar, January 9, 1789.

Entire Selection: http://avalon.law.yale.edu/18th_century/six1789.asp

Accessed March, 2017

- Treaty With the Cherokee, signed at Holston, July 2, 1791.

Entire Selection: http://avalon.law.yale.edu/18th_century/chr1791.asp

Accessed March, 2017

- Treaty With the Chickaswa, signed at the Chickasaw council house, September 20, 1816.

Entire Selection: http://avalon.law.yale.edu/19th_century/nt004.asp

Accessed March, 2017