

Chapter 1 : What Impact on the Country Did the Jacksonian Democracy Have? | Synonym

Jacksonian Democracy This term reflects the widespread movement for egalitarianism in the 1820s and 1830s and was named after President Andrew Jackson, who served in office between 1829 and 1837. Jackson symbolized the new Democratic party's general abhorrence of privilege and elitism.

Local and state offices that had earlier been appointive became elective. Suffrage was expanded as property and other restrictions on voting were reduced or abandoned in most states. The freehold requirement that had denied voting to all but holders of real estate was almost everywhere discarded before 1830, while the taxpaying qualification was also removed, if more slowly and gradually. In many states a printed ballot replaced the earlier system of voice voting, while the secret ballot also grew in favour. Whereas in only two states provided for the popular choice of presidential electors, by 1830 only South Carolina still left the decision to the legislature. Conventions of elected delegates increasingly replaced legislative or congressional caucuses as the agencies for making party nominations. By the 1830s a system for nominating candidates by self-appointed cliques meeting in secret was replaced by a system of open selection of candidates by democratically elected bodies. These democratic changes were not engineered by Andrew Jackson and his followers, as was once believed. There were men in all sections who feared the spread of political democracy, but by the 1830s few were willing to voice such misgivings publicly. Jacksonians effectively sought to fix the impression that they alone were champions of democracy, engaged in mortal struggle against aristocratic opponents. The accuracy of such propaganda varied according to local circumstances. The great political reforms of the early 19th century in actuality were conceived by no one faction or party. The real question about these reforms concerns the extent to which they truly represented the victory of democracy in the United States. While by the 1830s the common man of European descent had come into possession of the vote in most states, the nomination process continued to be outside his control. More important, the policies adopted by competing factions and parties in the states owed little to ordinary voters. State parties extolled the common people in grandiloquent terms but characteristically focused on prosaic legislation that awarded bank charters or monopoly rights to construct transportation projects to favoured insiders. That American parties would be pragmatic vote-getting coalitions, rather than organizations devoted to high political principles, was due largely to another series of reforms enacted during the era. The Jacksonians To his army of followers, Jackson was the embodiment of popular democracy. A truly self-made man of strong will and courage, he personified for many citizens the vast power of nature and Providence, on the one hand, and the majesty of the people, on the other. His very weaknesses, such as a nearly uncontrollable temper, were political strengths. Jackson, like most of his leading antagonists, was in fact a wealthy man of conservative social beliefs. In his many volumes of correspondence he rarely referred to labour. As a lawyer and man of affairs in Tennessee prior to his accession to the presidency, he aligned himself not with have-nots but with the influential, not with the debtor but with the creditor. Savage attacks on those policies by some wealthy critics only fortified the belief that the Jacksonian movement was radical as well as democratic. At its birth in the 1820s, the Jacksonian, or Democratic, Party was a loose coalition of diverse men and interests united primarily by a practical vision. They held to the twin beliefs that Old Hickory, as Jackson was known, was a magnificent candidate and that his election to the presidency would benefit those who helped bring it about. His excellence as candidate derived in part from the fact that he appeared to have no known political principles of any sort. In this period there were no distinct parties on the national level. Jackson, Clay, John C. The National Republicans were the followers of Adams and Clay; the Whigs, who emerged in the 1830s, were, above all else, the party dedicated to the defeat of Jackson. Library of Congress, Washington, D. The major parties The great parties of the era were thus created to attain victory for men rather than measures. Once the parties were in being, their leaders understandably sought to convince the electorate of the primacy of principles. It is noteworthy, however, that former Federalists at first flocked to the new parties in largely equal numbers and that men on opposite sides of such issues as internal improvements or a national bank could unite behind Jackson. With the passage of time, the parties did come increasingly to be identified with distinctive, and opposing, political policies. By the 1840s, Whig and Democratic

congressmen voted as rival blocs. Whigs supported and Democrats opposed a weak executive , a new Bank of the United States, a high tariff, distribution of land revenues to the states, relief legislation to mitigate the effects of the depression, and federal reapportionment of House seats. Whigs voted against and Democrats approved an independent treasury, an aggressive foreign policy , and expansionism. These were important issues, capable of dividing the electorate just as they divided the major parties in Congress. Certainly it was significant that Jacksonians were more ready than their opponents to take punitive measures against African Americans or abolitionists or to banish and use other forceful measures against the southern Indian tribes, brushing aside treaties protecting Native American rights. But these differences do not substantiate the belief that the Democrats and Whigs were divided ideologically, with only the former somehow representing the interests of the propertyless. Cartoon drawn during the nullification controversy showing the manufacturing North getting fat at Southern expense. The Jacksonians depicted their war on the second Bank of the United States as a struggle against an alleged aristocratic monster that oppressed the West, debtor farmers, and poor people generally. The second Bank was evidently well thought of by many Westerners, many farmers, and even Democratic politicians who admitted to opposing it primarily not to incur the wrath of Jackson. Anticapitalist ideology would not explain a Jacksonian policy that replaced a quasi-national bank as repository of government funds with dozens of state and private banks, equally controlled by capitalists and even more dedicated than was Biddle to profit making. It is of interest that the Jacksonian appointees were hardly more plebeian than were their so-called aristocratic predecessors. Minor parties The politics of principle was represented during the era not by the major parties but by the minor ones. The Anti-Masons aimed to stamp out an alleged aristocratic conspiracy. The variously named nativist parties accused the Roman Catholic Church of all manner of evil. The Liberty Party opposed the spread of slavery. All these parties were ephemeral because they proved incapable of mounting a broad appeal that attracted masses of voters in addition to their original constituencies. The Democratic and Whig parties thrived not in spite of their opportunism but because of it, reflecting well the practical spirit that animated most American voters.

Chapter 2 : 13 Jacksonian Democracy | History Hub

The Jacksonian Democracy not only depicted the democratic political revolution led by President Andrew Jackson but also ushered the epoch era of the "common man". The party dished out various economic and democratic reforms that allowed the layman to participate in politics as well as improve the country's patronage.

The phrase "Jacksonian Democracy" has a dual and ambiguous meaning. In its narrower sense, it denotes both the political party organized under Andrew Jackson, which called itself the American Democracy, and the program espoused by that party. Tocqueville toured the United States in 1831, and found there "the image of democracy itself, with its inclinations, its character, its prejudices, and its passions. The Jacksonian Democratic Party The Democratic Party and its program emerged in stages out of the largely personal following that elected Andrew Jackson president in 1829. The core issues through which the party defined its membership and philosophy concerned economic policy. As fully developed by the end of the 1830s, the Democratic outlook was essentially laissez-faire. Deeming themselves preservers of the Jeffersonian legacy, Democrats demanded simple, frugal, and unintrusive government. They opposed protective tariffs along with federal and often state bank charters and internal improvement projects. As president, Jackson articulated this policy through a series of vetoes, most notably the Maysville Road in 1830 and the Bank of the United States in 1835. In official messages, he cast himself as protector of "the humbler members of society—the farmers, mechanics, and laborers" against moneyed, privileged interests seeking to turn the public powers of government to unfair private advantage. Again following Jeffersonian tradition, the Democratic Party embraced anticlericalism and rigorous separation of church and state. Democrats thus garnered adherents among religious dissenters and minorities, from Catholics to freethinkers. To nominate candidates and adopt platforms, Democrats perfected a pyramidal structure of local, state, and national party conventions, caucuses, and commit-tees. These ensured coordinated action and supposedly reflected opinion at the grass roots, though their movements in fact were often directed from Washington. Jackson practiced "rotation in office"—the periodic replacement of government officials, often on partisan criteria—and defended it as offering the chance for employment to all citizens alike and thus forestalling the creation of an officeholding elite. His followers frankly employed the spoils of office as rewards for party workers. Jackson and the Democrats cast their party as the embodiment of the popular will, the defender of the common man against the Whig "aristocracy. After the War of 1812, constitutional changes in the states had broadened the participatory base of politics by easing property requirements for suffrage and making state offices and presidential electors popularly elective. By 1820, when Jackson was first elected president, nearly all white men could vote, and the vote had gained in power. Jackson and his partisans benefited from and capitalized upon these changes, but they in no sense initiated them. The presence of a class component in Jacksonian parties, setting Democratic plain farmers and workers against the Whig bourgeoisie or business elite, has been often asserted and as often denied. Some historians read Democratic paeans to the plain people as a literal description of their constituency. Others dismiss them as artful propaganda. Sophisticated efforts to quantify class divisions in politics through electoral data have yielded uncertain results. While Democrats usually marshaled a slightly larger and better organized following than the Whigs, clearly the latter too had a mass popular appeal. Whether Democratic laissez-faire policies actually worked to the benefit of their claimed plebeian constituency has also been questioned. At their competitive height in the 1830s, the two parties were nearly evenly matched throughout the country, but in the 1840s, Jacksonian Democracy would return to its sectional roots as the party of slaveholders and their northern sympathizers. Democrats outdid Whigs in justifying and promoting ethnic, racial, and sexual exclusion and subordination. Democrats championed territorial acquisition and conquest, portraying it in Jeffersonian terms as securing to all white citizens the chance for a landed independence. In 1845, a leading Democratic editor coined the phrase "manifest destiny. The annexation of Texas in 1845 and war against Mexico in 1846 were Democratic initiatives, denounced by many Whigs. Lastly, though no major party advocated female suffrage, Democrats more than Whigs identified politics as a distinctly masculine activity and relegated women to a subordinate, confined sphere. An alternative, suggested by Tocqueville and other contemporary commentators, is to view

democracy as the reigning spirit of the age and to trace its workings in all areas of American life, both within and outside party politics. As Tocqueville famously observed, "the people reign in the American political world as the Deity does in the universe. They are the cause and the aim of all things; everything comes from them, and everything is absorbed in them. From this perspective, the fact that Andrew Jackson—a rough-hewn, poorly educated, self-made frontiersman—could ascend to the presidency spoke more than his policies in office. His rhetorical championship of the plain people against the aristocrats, whatever its substance or sincerity, was itself the sign and harbinger of a social sea change toward democracy, equality, and the primacy of the common man. Jackson stands in this view not as the leader of a party, but as the symbol for an age. Seen thus, many of the particular phenomena that Andrew Jackson and his party treated with indifference or hostility seem themselves emanations of a broader Jacksonian democratic spirit. Within politics, Whigs as well as Democrats championed the common man and marshaled the masses at barbecues and rallies. Both parties appealed to ordinary voters with riveting stump speeches and by crafting candidates into folk heroes. Whigs answered the popularity of "Old Hickory" Andrew Jackson, hero of the Battle of New Orleans, with figures like "Old Tippecanoe" William Henry Harrison, victor of the rousing "log cabin" presidential campaign of 1840. Close party competition enlivened voter interest, sending turnout rates spiraling upward toward 80 percent of the eligible electorate. In the religious sphere, evangelical preachers, especially Baptist and Methodist, carried a message of individual empowerment and responsibility, sparking massive revivals and winning thousands of converts. Older, more staid denominations either modified their methods and message to compete in the contest for souls or saw their influence dwindle. Reform crusades from temperance to abolitionism likewise pitched their appeals toward every man and every woman, building networks of local affiliates and mounting massive membership and petition drives. Self-help and mutual-aid societies flourished; experiments in popular education proliferated. Poets and philosophers celebrated the egalitarian ethic and the worth of the individual. All these may be read as evidence of social democratization. Yet some historians emphasize opposing signs of growing stratification, inequality, and repression in these same years. What does seem certain is that, rightly or not, during these years the United States became in both American and foreign eyes "the image of democracy itself" for generations to come.

The Concept of Jacksonian Democracy: New York as a Test Case. Princeton University Press, 1965. Repudiation of class analysis; egalitarianism as a pervasive, not partisan, impulse. Johns Hopkins University Press, 1965. University of Illinois Press, 1965. The Age of Jackson. Riveting account, strongly pro-Jackson; starting point for modern debate. Oxford University Press, 1965. Translated by Henry Reeve, corrected by Phillips Bradley. Preeminent interpreter of American national character. Symbol for an Age. Jackson as embodiment of national self-image.

Chapter 3 : Jacksonian Democracy - HISTORY

Jacksonian Democracy was a period in American history lasting from the start of Andrew Jackson's presidency in until approximately the s. The impact of this period, however, extends well beyond these dates. The policies enacted during the Jacksonian era expanded voting rights and extended.

Jacksonian democracy was a political philosophy in the United States headed by the Democratic Party during the leadership of President Andrew Jackson and his followers in the s and s. The Jacksonians claimed to stand for the common people of America and proclaimed themselves protectors of the commoners against government favoritism of corporations and banks that helped only the wealthy. The ideas and practices of Jacksonian democracy forever changed politics in the U. The purpose of this structure was to coordinate efforts among Democrats throughout the political system, from the caucuses and conventions to the local and national committees. Modern-day political parties still follow this organizational structure. Expansion of Popular Voting The Jacksonians supported universal white male suffrage and benefited greatly from the expansion of voting rights. The Jacksonians did not initiate the expansion of voting rights, but they supported the changes and capitalized upon them. By , every state except for South Carolina had a popular vote for presidential electors. Jacksonians placed a high value on voter participation in the elections, using tactics such as parades to encourage voting. Voter turnout increased to nearly 80 percent of eligible voters by Separation of Church and State The Jacksonians supported a strong separation between church and state. Jacksonian leaders denounced the various religious crusades of the era that aimed at changing American society through political action. In their fight against the largely Protestant religious crusades, the Jacksonians gained many followers who were Catholics, minorities and religious dissenters. With their electoral successes during the s through the s, Jacksonian Democrats strengthened the separation between church and state in American politics. Expanded Territories Jacksonian democracy greatly expanded the geographical territories of the United States. The Jacksonians believed in Manifest Destiny, an ideology and movement to justify American expansion in the Western Hemisphere. The Seminole Wars, initially led by Andrew Jackson in before he was president, brought military forces into Florida against the Spanish forces and the Seminole Indians, pushing the Seminoles farther south. The Jacksonian President James K. Polk oversaw a major expansion of U. Polk was the president during the Mexican-American War , which concluded with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in , giving the U.

Chapter 4 : Project MUSE - The Concept of Jacksonian Democracy

Jacksonian democracy was aided by the strong spirit of equality among the people of the newer settlements in the South and West. It was also aided by the extension of the vote in eastern states to men without property; in the early days of the United States, many places had allowed only male property owners to vote.

The Federalists argued that those who owned the country should run it; it was they who paid property taxes. New western states synced their constitutions to the Bill of Rights and wrote their constitutions to allow for white male suffrage. Eventually, the original thirteen states caved in and revised their laws to allow property-less white men to vote Georgia and Pennsylvania had it from the start. Increased voting rights created a ratchet effect that made it harder to oppose voting rights the way Federalists had in the s. While universal white manhood suffrage UWMS may not seem generous to modern readers, it was radical for the times. France was the first country to allow it in , preceded and followed by the U. At the same time, the very white men who won the vote were the ones blocking others from getting it. The American Revolution scared away many of the Loyalists most likely to interfere with its egalitarian bent. The Postal Act granted cut rates for newspapers and post offices often left extras lying around for people to read. Tocqueville wrote that these accessible newspapers kept rural Americans, at least literate ones, more informed than European farmers. These fanciful stories quickly made the Sun the most successful paper in the world. Historian Matthew Goodman described how hoaxes were democratic because people exercised their own right to distinguish truth from fiction, just as they would at P. Less purely partisan than the Newspaper Wars of the s Chapter 11 , steam-powered papers of the 19th century enhanced participatory democracy while still making it incumbent on readers to distinguish between truth and fiction. The Panic of underscored how integrated most people were into the market economy. The downturn started in Europe due to fluctuations after the Napoleonic Wars and Britain reverting to the gold standard. Other factors exacerbated its impact in America, including bad bank loans and saturation of the cotton market. The Panic of led to foreclosures on homes and farms that turned many citizens against the National Bank started by Alexander Hamilton in the s. Since the central government ran the bank, voters blamed government for the recession. The original group called themselves by the name the Federalists had used to insult them in the s: First Known Political Cartoon w. Democratic Donkey, Political Parties Groups organized to mobilize these new voters and cohere their views and opinions. They formed outside the government as a way for people to get elected to serve in the government. Next-generation Democrats like Martin Van Buren of New York argued that, far from being a bad thing, actual parties as formal institutions had upsides. For one, they gave unprivileged men like Van Buren, whose parents were tavern-keepers, a stepping-stone into politics by allowing them to work their way up through the organization, similar to a company ladder. In the 19th century, parties organized barbecues, torchlight parades, and meetings to give voters a sense of identity and mobilize manipulate? Politicians now had to grovel for votes directly, often chopping down a tree and giving a stump speech. Louis Art Museum All this required a new generation of politicians. But parties are inevitable in a republic because coalitions naturally team up to defeat common enemies. The party system was complicit in bringing about the Civil War in , or at least failed to prevent it. The reason is that, as new parties splinter off, they siphon votes, at which point they re-form alliances with one of the existing parties to oppose those they mutually hate more than each other. One historian noted that third parties are like honeybees: On rare occasion, a new party will supplant one of the main parties. That happened in the s when the new Republicans displaced the Whigs. Presumably, names that stood for something specific would be too exclusive to win elections. Jackson was a rough-hewn frontiersman and the face of a new breed of politicians born into humble circumstances. Jackson was not and was the first important leader young enough to have not participated directly in the Revolution, though much of his family was killed in it, including his mother. He came from the Carolina frontier and had a scar etched into his cheek where a Redcoat cut him as a young boy when he refused to shine his boots. He taught himself to read well enough to become a country lawyer and led filibusters private military expeditions that cleared Indians off frontier land, then resold it for a higher price. Through these means, Memphis and Nashville came to be. Jackson earned his

nickname, Old Hickory, honestly “hickory being a hard wood used for hunting bows and wheel spokes. He carried two slugs around inside him, one near his lung and the other in his shoulder, as souvenirs of his life as a dueler, brawler, and soldier. Democrats undercut their chances by running three candidates who stole votes from each other. At that time, there was no apparatus to compel candidates otherwise. They were not only attracted to his take-charge, no-nonsense style; now they were angry that their democratic will had been denied. In 1824, the Democrats nominated Jackson and Jackson alone “three years early to avoid stealing votes from each other” and they arrived at a comprehensive platform they took to the voters. Platforms are agendas or lists of ideas and positions on major issues. They made sure to win mid-terms elections so that they could control votes in the House in case no one, including Jackson, won a majority of electoral votes. Jackson came out swinging in 1828, accusing Adams of being an educated, elitist dandy. Rachel took the news hard and died of a heart attack just as Andrew was winning the election. Later, when Jackson supporters in upstate New York sent him a lb. They ate it in under two hours. Their hero, Jackson, strengthened the executive branch in relation to both the legislative Congress and judicial courts branches, as well as the states. He came to office with a clear platform, unlike the overseer-type administrations that characterized most of the earlier presidents, Jefferson being the main exception. Jackson represented working farmers, craftsmen, and factory workers, and distrusted financiers who shuffled some paper around and made more money than producers who worked with their hands. Proponents of the National Bank feared that, when it came up for its second re-chartering in 1832, Jackson would veto it without concern for the political fallout because he would be a lame duck at the tail end of his second administration. This, unfortunately, only spread the type of corruption and over-speculation in western land that Jackson feared. With the Bank War, we see Jackson strengthening the executive branch in relation to Congress, but not strengthening the American economy. But, banks and slavery aside, Jackson did not favor state power over the national government, at least not when he was the one presiding over the national government. Free trade advocates they were not. Tariffs only made the items they bought in the U. As the tariff debate ensued, Jackson had a falling out with his vice-president, John C. On the other hand, if any state could overturn a national law per nullification theory, then the states would essentially have most of the power. Jackson thought the South Carolina Tariff Crisis, or Nullification Crisis, offered him an excellent opportunity to get in front of an army and wage war on South Carolina, ala George Washington in the Whiskey Rebellion. He was reaffirming the power of the executive branch and national government over the states. The combination of those two actions settled down the more rebellious Carolina Fire-Eaters. When Calhoun resigned from the vice-presidency mainly because his wife refused to socialize with Peggy Eaton, Martin Van Buren replaced him. Rather than morphing into a regional mainly southern party, they stayed strong along a north-south axis, with a common support for slavery binding them together. That helped stave off regional conflict for another quarter-century, though the Democrats ultimately broke apart regionally during the sectional crisis leading up to the Civil War. As we saw in Chapter 3, Europeans granted themselves the right to conquer and take land from anyone on Earth not ruled by a Christian sovereign through the Discovery Doctrine. And as we saw in Chapter 12, a harsh policy of displacement continued from Thomas Jefferson on through the administrations of Abraham Lincoln and his successors, all the way to the beginning of the 19th century, Jefferson told Indians they had to migrate west or acculturate among Whites, defined as converting to Christianity, farming instead of hunting, and developing a written language. American rulers underestimated how many groups would take them up on their offer, which some of the Five Civilized Tribes did. One Cherokee, Sequoyah right, developed a written language and some Cherokees even bought slaves to grow cotton. In Georgia, Cherokees sued based on their treaties and actually won in the Supreme Court on their second try. Technically, the Constitution does not give the Court final say but, without that power, the judicial branch is powerless against the other two. Madison politicians agreed that the Supreme Court was the final arbiter of law. Georgia, Jackson forced the remaining Indians west to Oklahoma, then part of the western Arkansas Territory. By the time he left office, nearly 50k Indians had been pushed west. Not all Americans supported Indian Removal. Army, leading them on a wild goose chase through the Florida Everglades. Opposition to Jackson Opposition to Old Hickory formed by the early 1830s, not just in reaction to his strong-armed tactics, but because the U. Though the Federalists were out of the picture, their idea of a strong

national government supporting business was still alive. A new party calling themselves the Whigs , led by Kentuckian Henry Clay , established a platform they called the American System: Otherwise, most farmers stood to gain from improved infrastructure. One lunatic tried to assassinate Jackson but, when his pistol misfired, the president grabbed it, beat the daylights out of him and tried to frame a senator he disliked. Like Jackson, they too nominated a War of hero, William Henry Harrison , who also had a catchy nickname: Old Tippecanoe, after his victory at Tippecanoe Creek in Indiana. Harrison, in fact, had run for office several times and, while he ran a distillery for a while, forsook alcohol when he saw its ill effects. But justice was served. Harrison won the election and proceeded to give a one-hour-and-forty-minute inaugural speech in a driving sleet storm. He caught pneumonia and died a month later. Legend attributed his death not to divine punishment for his lengthy speech, but rather to the curse Shawnee Indian Tecumseh put on the U. Presidents elected in a year ending in zero died in office for seven administrations in a row: Ronald Reagan, elected in , was shot but lived, breaking the curse. To this day, elite is a slippery term in American political jargon, often a term wealthy Whites use pejoratively to discourage working-classes from listening to progressives. Once regular white men got the right to vote, they blocked women and minorities from getting that same right. Nevertheless, with their populist appeal, the early Democrats set the long-term pattern for electoral politics. Numerous movies, most famously Mr. Then, come election time, campaigners use the money lobbies give them to run commercials accusing their opponent of being beholden to lobbies.

Chapter 5 : Jacksonian Democracy and Modern America [www.nxgvision.com]

Jacksonian Democracy was buried at Fort Sumter, but it had died many years earlier. There was a grim, ironic justice to the Jacksonians' fate. Having tapped into the disaffection of the s.

Check new design of our homepage! Jacksonian Democracy and its Characteristics and Significance The Jacksonian Democracy not only depicted the democratic political revolution led by President Andrew Jackson but also ushered the epoch era of the "common man". Historyplex defines the Jacksonian Democracy with its Characteristics and Significance. Historyplex Staff Last Updated: Mar 1, President Andrew Jackson relied on the valuable suggestions of his "Kitchen Cabinet," an informal group of politicians and newspaper editors before finalizing any significant political policy. Their informal meetings were held in the White House kitchen, hence the term. Before the Democrats took over the governmental scene, the political power was concentrated in the hands of a few wealthy elite and their political puppets. Common man had no say or involvement in exercising suffrage or participating in economic reforms. With the emergence of the Jacksonian Democrats this scenario was revolutionized, it became their primary duty to defend the government run by the people, as per the Constitution rights. Jacksonian democracy introduced the system of employing and promoting civil servants who are supporters of the government in power followed by a policy of rotation in public offices which permitted more people to become engaged in governmental issues. This deepened the interest and the faith of the common man on the government and the Democrats. Due to the expansion of the suffrage policies, voter turnout doubled during the elections from Given below are the salient features of these Jacksonian policies. The preceding presidential candidates called for an open process of selection of candidates. Andrew Jackson emerged as the winner of the Electoral College followed by John Quincy Adams, as none of them had won majority of votes. The House of Representatives had to select between the two. He became the 6th President of the United States. To Jacksonian, this alliance represented a crooked system where elite insiders engaged their own interests without heeding the will of the people. On the opposition wing stood the new party created by Henry Clay which came to known as the Whig Party who were the successors from the Federalist era of politics. The Democrats based their party on a laissez-faire policy, their working was based on pyramid structure that eased the communication among the party members with the general public. Their primary aim was to enable the white population gain the democratic right to vote, earlier men who owned legal lands were only allowed to vote leaving the rest of the destitute population away from politics. Also there existed an irregular system of voting which differed from state to state. Under the Democrats, the voting rights were gradually expanded to include all white men and not just those who owned property. By , every state except for South Carolina had a democratic vote even for presidential electors. Jacksonian placed a high regard on voter involvement by using election tactics like parades. Due to all these considerable efforts, voter magnitude increased to almost 80 percent by However, women and slaves were still denied their voting rights. The party powerfully preached and implemented for direct election of local and state officials, judges and presidential electors. In addition, reforms in the political system made it easier for the common man to vote, and the secret ballot came into existence. People voting Until the s, an individual voted by going to his city district electoral office and orally stating his preferences. The absence of a secret, written ballot resulted in detriment. Few would oppose to vote against a particular candidate when the room was packed with his admirers. Printed ballots gave the voter a more autonomous representation, even though initially the first ballots were published by the political parties themselves. Furthermore, many political positions became elective rather than being subjected to an appointed few thus making office holders more responsible to the general public. By , the provisions of the Maryland constitution that excluded Jews from practicing law and holding public office were also abolished, thus giving equal opportunity to all. They structured their ideologies according to the Jeffersonian legacy and worked as a uncomplicated, economical, and non-intrusive government. They controverted against protective tariffs along with federal and state bank charters and internal melioration projects. Jackson stated that duties, constructions, and corporate charters especially of banks, whose right of note issue gave them enormous leveraging over credit entry and the

national currency were all devices to withdraw monetary funds from the low class to the high class, thus causing concentration of economic policies in the hands of chosen few. Another prominent characteristic of the Jacksonian democracy was its confrontation with the national bank, the national bank worked on deficit spending. This scheme profited moneyed investors who could loan wealth to the national government. Hence, it was demolished by the democrats on the basis that it profited only wealthy investors and not the general public. Jackson conceived that the Constitution of the United States only gave the federal government fixed ways to control the economic system. The party also safeguarded the trade tariffs in order to assist American industries. It also went on a series of conflicts with the national bank, the Second Bank of the United States. In 1832, Jackson dictated the treasury secretary to draw back federal funding of the Second Bank in direct resistance to Congress. The Jacksonian administration stayed aloof from all the major religious tensions of the era thus distinguishing between the church and the state. Jacksonian democracy greatly followed the expansionist policies and enlarged the geographical territories of the United States. They propagated the Manifest Destiny, an ideology and movement to vindicate American enlargement policies in the Western Hemisphere. Jackson supported the removal of the indigenous Native Americans to increase United States political and geographical territory. In 1830, Jackson opposed the Congress and passed the Indian Removal Act, which enabled the government to clear the Native Americans from lands situated to the west of the Mississippi River. Specifically this act relocated thousands of Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws and others along the Trail of Tears, and American settlers began to use the former native lands. Polk further instigated the Jacksonian laws by major expansion of U. Polk presided over the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848, it established new U. The Jacksonian democracy ushered in the presidential power thus officiating the President as the leader of the American democracy. He increased the use of the veto power to manipulate Congress according to his will and held the exclusive position of controlling the cabinet by debarring the Senate to sanction the dismissal of cabinet members. The urban population grew in the cities situated on the waterfront, especially new cities like Chicago came into existence nearly overnight. New York irrupted in size, nearly tripling population from 1800, to 1830, in those significant twenty years. In the 1840s, nearly 1 million immigrants relocated to the United States, mainly from Europe, during the 1840s, that count increased to 1.5 million. Industrialization increased along with production and increase in advanced machinery. Moreover, the era witnessed the major relocation of Native Americans to the west of the Mississippi River and the accumulation of wealth in selective hands. But alterations in the public participation in politics through expanded voting rights and political reform crusades emerged to deal with the differences in the American society. The Era of Jacksonian Democracy ended by the 1840s but it left behind a mighty legacy, intertwining equality and social class justness with the preconditions of white domination. Over the years after the Civil War, that legacy continued to be a significant bulwark for the new Democratic party.

Jacksonian democracy is a 19th-century political philosophy in the United States that espoused greater democracy for the common man as that term was then defined. Originating with the seventh President Andrew Jackson and his supporters, it became the nation's dominant political worldview for a generation.

Visit Website Not everyone benefited equally from the market revolution, least of all those nonwhites for whom it was an unmitigated disaster. Jacksonianism, however, would grow directly from the tensions it generated within white society. Mortgaged farmers and an emerging proletariat in the Northeast, nonslaveholders in the South, tenants and would-be yeomen in the West—all had reasons to think that the spread of commerce and capitalism would bring not boundless opportunities but new forms of dependence. And in all sections of the country, some of the rising entrepreneurs of the market revolution suspected that older elites would block their way and shape economic development to suit themselves. By the 1820s, these tensions fed into a many-sided crisis of political faith. To the frustration of both self-made men and plebeians, certain eighteenth-century elitist republican assumptions remained strong, especially in the seaboard states, mandating that government be left to a natural aristocracy of virtuous, propertied gentlemen. Simultaneously, some of the looming shapes of nineteenth-century capitalism—chartered corporations, commercial banks, and other private institutions—presaged the consolidation of a new kind of moneyed aristocracy. And increasingly after the War of 1812, government policy seemed to combine the worst of both old and new, favoring the kinds of centralized, broad constructionist, top-down forms of economic development that many thought would aid men of established means while deepening inequalities among whites. Proposed cures for this sickness included more democracy and a redirection of economic policy. In the older states, reformers fought to lower or abolish property requirements for voting and officeholding, and to equalize representation. A new generation of politicians broke with the old republican animus against mass political parties. Urban workers formed labor movements and demanded political reforms. Westerners clamored for more and cheaper land and for relief from creditors, speculators, and bankers above all, the hated Second Bank of the United States. It has confounded some scholars that so much of this ferment eventually coalesced behind Andrew Jackson—a one-time land speculator, opponent of debtor relief, and fervent wartime nationalist. His career as an Indian fighter and conqueror of the British made him a popular hero, especially among land-hungry settlers. His enthusiasm for nationalist programs had diminished after 1815, as foreign threats receded and economic difficulties multiplied. Above all, Jackson, with his own hardscrabble origins, epitomized contempt for the old republican elitism, with its hierarchical deference and its wariness of popular democracy. Only after taking power did the Jacksonian Democracy refine its politics and ideology. Out of that self-definition came a fundamental shift in the terms of national political debate. Under the Jacksonians, government-sponsored internal improvements generally fell into disfavor, on the grounds that they were unnecessary expansions of centralized power, beneficial mainly to men with connections. The Jacksonians defended rotation in office as a solvent to entrenched elitism. Around these policies, Jacksonian leaders built a democratic ideology aimed primarily at voters who felt injured by or cut off from the market revolution. Updating the more democratic pieces of the republican legacy, they posited that no republic could long survive without a citizenry of economically independent men. Unfortunately, they claimed, that state of republican independence was exceedingly fragile. According to the Jacksonians, all of human history had involved a struggle between the few and the many, instigated by a greedy minority of wealth and privilege that hoped to exploit the vast majority. More broadly, the Jacksonians proclaimed a political culture predicated on white male equality, contrasting themselves with other self-styled reform movements. Nativism, for example, struck them as a hateful manifestation of elitist puritanism. Sabbatarians, temperance advocates, and other would-be moral uplifters, they insisted, should not impose righteousness on others. Beyond position-taking, the Jacksonians propounded a social vision in which any white man would have the chance to secure his economic independence, would be free to live as he saw fit, under a system of laws and representative government utterly cleansed of privilege. As Jacksonian leaders developed these arguments, they roused a noisy opposition—some of it coming from elements of the

coalition that originally elected Jackson president. The oppositionist core, however, came from a cross-class coalition, strongest in rapidly commercializing areas, that viewed the market revolution as the embodiment of civilized progress. Far from pitting the few against the many, oppositionists argued, carefully guided economic growth would provide more for everyone. Government encouragement—in the form of tariffs, internal improvements, a strong national bank, and aid to a wide range of benevolent institutions—was essential to that growth. Powerfully influenced by the evangelical Second Great Awakening, core oppositionists saw in moral reform not a threat to individual independence but an idealistic cooperative effort to relieve human degradation and further expand the store of national wealth. Eager to build up the country as it already existed, they were cool to territorial expansion. The Jacksonians, with their spurious class rhetoric, menaced that natural harmony of interests between rich and poor which, if only left alone, would eventually bring widespread prosperity. By 1830, both the Jacksonian Democracy and its opposite now organized as the Whig party had built formidable national followings and had turned politics into a debate over the market revolution itself. Yet less than a decade later, sectional contests linked to slavery promised to drown out that debate and fracture both major parties. The Jacksonian mainstream, so insistent on the equality of white men, took racism for granted. North and South, the democratic reforms achieved by plebeian whites—especially those respecting voting and representation—came at the direct expense of free blacks. Although informed by constitutional principles and genuine paternalist concern, the Jacksonian rationale for territorial expansion assumed that Indians and, in some areas, Hispanics were lesser peoples. As for slavery, the Jacksonians were determined, on both practical and ideological grounds, to keep the issue out of national affairs. Few mainstream Jacksonians had moral qualms about black enslavement or any desire to meddle with it where it existed. Through the 1820s and 1830s, the mainstream Jacksonian leadership, correctly confident that their views matched those of the white majority, fought to keep the United States a democracy free from the slavery question—condemning abolitionists as fomenters of rebellion, curtailing abolitionist mail campaigns, enforcing the congressional gag rule that squelched debate on abolitionist petitions, while fending off the more extremist proslavery southerners. In all of this fighting, however, the Jacksonians also began to run afoul of their professions about white egalitarianism. Slaveholders, quite naturally, thought they were entitled to see as much new territory as legally possible opened up to slavery. But that prospect appalled northern whites who had hoped to settle in lily white areas, untroubled by that peculiar institution whose presence they believed would degrade the status of white free labor. It would take until the 1850s before these contradictions fully unraveled the Jacksonian coalition. But as early as the mid-1840s, during the debates over Texas annexation, the Mexican War, and the Wilmot Proviso, sectional cleavages had grown ominous. The presidential candidacy of Martin Van Buren on the Free-Soil ticket in 1848—a protest against growing southern power within the Democracy—amply symbolized northern Democratic alienation. In the middle remained a battered Jacksonian mainstream, ever hopeful that by raising the old issues, avoiding slavery, and resorting to the language of popular sovereignty, the party and the nation might be held together. Led by men like Stephen A. Douglas, these mainstream compromisers held sway into the mid-1850s, but at the cost of constant appeasement of southern concerns, further exacerbating sectional turmoil. Jacksonian Democracy was buried at Fort Sumter, but it had died many years earlier. Having tapped into the disaffection of the 1820s and 1830s and molded it into an effective national party, they advanced the democratization of American politics. By denouncing the moneyed aristocracy and proclaiming the common man, they also helped politicize American life, broadening electoral participation to include an overwhelming majority of the electorate. Once the slavery issue entered the concerns of even a small portion of the electorate, it proved impossible to remove without trampling on some of the very egalitarian principles the Jacksonians were pledged to uphold. None of this, however, should be a source of self-satisfaction to modern Americans. Although the Jacksonian Democracy died in the 1850s, it left a powerful legacy, entwining egalitarian aspirations and class justice with the presumptions of white supremacy. Over the decades after the Civil War, that legacy remained a bulwark of a new Democratic party, allying debt-ridden farmers and immigrant workers with the Solid South. And at the close of the twentieth century, the tragic mix of egalitarianism and racial prejudice so central to the Jacksonian Democracy still infected American politics, poisoning some of its best impulses with some of its worst.

Jeffersonian democracy was a political philosophy in the United States headed by the Democratic Party during the leadership of President Andrew Jackson and his followers in the 1820s and 1830s. The Jacksonians claimed to stand for the common people of America and proclaimed themselves protectors of.

The election of Jefferson in 1800, which he called "the revolution of 1800", brought in the Presidency of Thomas Jefferson and the permanent eclipse of the Federalists, apart from the Supreme Court. While principled, with vehemently held core beliefs, the Jeffersonians had factions that disputed the true meaning of their creed. For example, during the War of 1812 it became apparent that independent state militia units were inadequate for conducting a serious war against a major country. The new Secretary of War John C. Calhoun, a Jeffersonian, proposed to build up the Army. With the support of most Republicans in Congress, he got his way. The core political value of America is republicanism – "citizens have a civic duty to aid the state and resist corruption, especially monarchism and aristocracy. The Jeffersonian party was officially the "Republican Party" political scientists later called it the Democratic-Republican Party to differentiate it from the later Republican Party of Lincoln. Turnout indeed soared across the country. In the presidential election, he blanketed the state with agents who passed out 30, hand-written tickets, naming all 15 electors printed tickets were not allowed. Historians consider Beckley to be one of the first American professional campaign managers and his techniques were quickly adopted in other states. The national government is a dangerous necessity to be instituted for the common benefit, protection and security of the people, nation or community – "it should be watched closely and circumscribed in its powers. Most anti-Federalists from 1791 joined the Jeffersonians. The Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798 written secretly by Jefferson and James Madison proclaim these principles. Financiers, bankers and industrialists make cities the "cesspools of corruption" and should be avoided. Constitution The United States Constitution was written in order to ensure the freedom of the people. However, as Jefferson wrote to James Madison in 1789, "no society can make a perpetual constitution or even a perpetual law. The earth belongs always to the living generation". The protection and expansion of human liberty was one of the chief goals of the Jeffersonians. They also reformed their respective state systems of education. They believed that their citizens had a right to an education no matter their circumstance or status in life. The Jeffersonians lost this battle to Chief Justice John Marshall, a Federalist, who dominated the Court from 1801 to his death in 1835. Control by Spain was tolerable – "control by France was unacceptable. A standing army and navy are dangerous to liberty and should be avoided – "much better was to use economic coercion such as the embargo. The militia was adequate to defend the nation. During the Revolutionary War previously, a national conflict, in this case the War of 1812, required the creation of a national army for the duration of international hostilities. Westward expansion[edit] Territorial expansion of the United States was a major goal of the Jeffersonians because it would produce new farm lands for yeomen farmers. The Jeffersonians wanted to integrate the Indians into American society, or remove further west those tribes that refused to integrate. However Sheehan argues that the Jeffersonians, with the best of goodwill toward the Indians, destroyed their distinctive cultures with its misguided benevolence. It opened up vast new fertile farmlands from Louisiana to Montana. Jefferson saw the West as an economic safety valve which would allow people in the crowded East to own farms. The farmers with whom Jefferson identified conquered the West, often through violence against Native Americans. Jefferson himself sympathized with Native Americans, but that did not stop him from enacting policies that would continue the trend towards the dispossession of their lands. The workers would no longer be independent voters. Such a situation, Jefferson feared, would leave the American people vulnerable to political subjugation and economic manipulation. The solution Jefferson came up with was, as scholar Clay Jenkinson noted, "a graduated income tax that would serve as a disincentive to vast accumulations of wealth and would make funds available for some sort of benign redistribution downward" as well as tariffs on imported articles, which were mainly purchased by the wealthy. He believed that not only would economic dependence on Europe diminish the virtue of the republic, but that the United States had an abundance of natural resources that Americans should be able to cultivate and use to tend to their

own needs. Furthermore, exporting goods by merchant ships created risks of capture by foreign pirates and armies, which would require an expensive navy for protection. While the Federalists advocated for a strong central government, Jeffersonians argued for strong state and local governments and a weak federal government. The federal government would concentrate its efforts solely on national and international projects. Jefferson felt that Hamilton favored plutocracy and the creation of a powerful aristocracy in the United States which would accumulate increasingly greater power until the political and social order of the United States became indistinguishable from those of the Old World. The ratification of the United States Bill of Rights, especially the First Amendment, gave Jefferson even greater confidence in the document. For example, Jefferson once wrote a letter to Charles Willson Peale explaining that although a Smithsonian-style national museum would be a wonderful resource, he could not support the use of federal funds to construct and maintain such a project. The Jeffersonians proved much more successful than the Federalists in building state and local party organizations that united various factions. Randolph was the Jeffersonian leader in Congress from 1793 to 1795, but he later broke with Jefferson and formed his own "Tertium Quids" faction because he thought the president no longer adhered to the true Jeffersonian principles of Jefferson himself sided with the moderate faction exemplified by figures such as Madison, who were much more conciliatory towards Federalism. Their competition marked the Second Party System. It was a large political party with many local and state leaders and various factions, and they did not always agree with Jefferson or with each other. He believed the national security concerns were so urgent that it was necessary to purchase Louisiana without waiting for a Constitutional amendment. He enlarged federal power through the intrusively-enforced Embargo Act of 1807. He idealized the "yeoman farmer" despite being himself a gentleman plantation owner. Staaloff proposed that it was due to his being a proto-Romantic; [46] John Quincy Adams claimed that it was a manifestation of pure hypocrisy, or "pliability of principle"; [47] and Bailyn asserts it simply represented a contradiction with Jefferson, that he was "simultaneously a radical utopian idealist and a hardheaded, adroit, at times cunning politician". The result, Wilentz argues, was "flexible responses to unforeseen events. In recent years, Hamilton and his reputation have decidedly gained the initiative among scholars who portray him as the visionary architect of the modern liberal capitalist economy and of a dynamic federal government headed by an energetic executive.

Chapter 8 : Jeffersonian democracy - Wikipedia

Chapter 9 Terms Term Detail Significance 1. Age of the Common Man /Jacksonian Democracy Under Jackson Nation had a strong executive, the government lessened the restrictions on who could vote, the idea that the president should act how the people want, and that anyone could be a government official.

General principles[edit] William S. Belko in summarizes "the core concepts underlying Jacksonian Democracy" as: By the end of the s, attitudes and state laws had shifted in favor of universal white male suffrage [6] and by all requirements to own property and nearly all requirements to pay taxes had been dropped. However, the Free Soil Jacksonians, notably Martin Van Buren , argued for limitations on slavery in the new areas to enable the poor white man to flourishâ€”they split with the main party briefly in The Whigs generally opposed Manifest Destiny and expansion, saying the nation should build up its cities. Many Jacksonians held the view that rotating political appointees in and out of office was not only the right, but also the duty of winners in political contests. Patronage was theorized to be good because it would encourage political participation by the common man and because it would make a politician more accountable for poor government service by his appointees. Jacksonians also held that long tenure in the civil service was corrupting, so civil servants should be rotated out of office at regular intervals. However, patronage often led to the hiring of incompetent and sometimes corrupt officials due to the emphasis on party loyalty above any other qualifications. Jackson said that he would guard against "all encroachments upon the legitimate sphere of State sovereignty". As the Jacksonians consolidated power, they more often advocated expanding federal power, presidential power in particular. Election by the "common man"[edit] Portrait of Andrew Jackson by Thomas Sully in An important movement in the period from to â€”before the Jacksonians were organizedâ€”was the expansion of the right to vote toward including all white men. No new states had property qualifications although three had adopted tax-paying qualificationsâ€” Ohio , Louisiana and Mississippi , of which only in Louisiana were these significant and long lasting. In Rhode Island, the Dorr Rebellion of the s demonstrated that the demand for equal suffrage was broad and strong, although the subsequent reform included a significant property requirement for anyone resident but born outside of the United States. However, free black men lost voting rights in several states during this period. He had to be pulled to the polls, which became the most important role of the local parties. They systematically sought out potential voters and brought them to the polls. Held in Baltimore, Maryland, September 26â€”28, , it transformed the process by which political parties select their presidential and vice-presidential candidates. Numerous politicians and editors who were given favorable loans from the Bank run for cover as the financial temple crashes down. A famous fictional character Major Jack Downing right cheers: Every state had numerous political factions, but they did not cross state lines. Political coalitions formed and dissolved and politicians moved in and out of alliances. In , John Quincy Adams pulled together a network of factions called the National Republicans , but he was defeated by Jackson. By the late s, the Jacksonian Democrats and the Whigs politically battled it out nationally and in every state. The new party which did not get the name Democrats until swept to a landslide. As Mary Beth Norton explains regarding Through a lavishly financed coalition of state parties, political leaders, and newspaper editors, a popular movement had elected the president. As Norton et al. The Democrats represented a wide range of views but shared a fundamental commitment to the Jeffersonian concept of an agrarian society. They viewed a central government as the enemy of individual liberty and they believed that government intervention in the economy benefited special-interest groups and created corporate monopolies that favored the rich. They sought to restore the independence of the individualâ€”the artisan and the ordinary farmerâ€”by ending federal support of banks and corporations and restricting the use of paper currency. The long-term effect was to create the modern strong presidency. Reformers eager to turn their programs into legislation called for a more active government. However, Democrats tended to oppose programs like educational reform and the establishment of a public education system. For instance, they believed that public schools restricted individual liberty by interfering with parental responsibility and undermined freedom of religion by replacing church schools. Jackson looked

at the Indian question in terms of military and legal policy, not as a problem due to their race. Among the leading followers was Stephen A. Douglas, senator from Illinois, who was the key player in the passage of the compromise of 1850, and was a leading contender for the Democratic presidential nomination. According to his biographer Robert W. Douglas was preeminently a Jacksonian, and his adherence to the tenants of what became known as Jacksonian democracy grew as his own career developed. Popular rule, or what he called would later call popular sovereignty, lay at the base of his political structure. Like most Jacksonians, Douglas believed that the people spoke through the majority, that the majority will was the expression of the popular will. Jackson was denounced as a tyrant by opponents on both ends of the political spectrum such as Henry Clay and John C. This led to the rise of the Whig Party. Jackson created a spoils system to clear out elected officials in government of an opposing party and replace them with his supporters as a reward for their electioneering. With Congress controlled by his enemies, Jackson relied heavily on the power of the veto to block their moves. One of the most important of these was the Maysville Road veto in 1817. His primary objection was based on the local nature of the project. The debates in Congress reflected two competing visions of federalism. The Jacksonians saw the union strictly as the cooperative aggregation of the individual states, while the Whigs saw the entire nation as a distinct entity. Many ex-Jacksonians turned their crusade against the Money Power into one against the Slave Power and became Republicans. He points to the struggle over the Wilmot Proviso of 1846, the Free Soil Party revolt of 1848, and the mass defections from the Democrats in 1854 over the Kansas-Nebraska Act. Taney endorsed slavery through the Dred Scott decision. Southern Jacksonians overwhelmingly endorsed secession in 1861, apart from a few opponents led by Andrew Johnson. In the North, Jacksonians Stephen A. Van Buren was defeated in the next election by William Henry Harrison. Harrison died just 30 days into his term and his Vice President John Tyler quickly reached accommodation with the Jacksonians. Tyler was then succeeded by James K. Finally, Andrew Johnson, who had been a strong supporter of Jackson, became President following the assassination of Abraham Lincoln in 1865, but by then Jacksonian democracy had been pushed off the stage of American politics. President Donald Trump has also been characterized as a Jacksonian.

Chapter 9 : Jacksonian Democracy and its Characteristics and Significance

Jacksonian Democracy refers to the political philosophy of United States President Andrew Jackson and his supporters. Jackson's policies followed in the footsteps of Thomas Jefferson.

Are you sure you want to delete this answer? Yes Sorry, something has gone wrong. More broadly, the term refers to the period of the Second Party System when Jacksonian philosophy was ascendant as well as the spirit of that era. It can be contrasted with the characteristics of Jeffersonian democracy, which dominated the previous political era. The Jacksonian era saw a great increase of respect and power for the common man, as the electorate expanded to include all white male adult citizens, rather than only land owners in that group. Jacksonians believed in enfranchising all white men, rather than just the propertied class, and supported the patronage system that enabled politicians to appoint their supporters into administrative offices, arguing it would reduce the power of elites and prevent aristocracies from emerging. They demanded elected not appointed judges and rewrote many state constitutions to reflect the new values. In national terms the Jacksonians favored geographical expansion, justifying it in terms of Manifest Destiny. There was usually a consensus among both Jacksonians and Whigs that battles over slavery should be avoided. Andrew Jackson was the seventh President of the United States. He was elected in and remained in office for two terms, until To many Americans, Jackson was known as being an action hero, and became acknowledged as the symbol and spokesperson for the "common man". He was also known for having a strong-will and quick temper. These traits truly set Jackson aside from previous government leaders and Presidents. However, through his distinctive personality, Jackson was able to reconstruct the office of the President and politics in general, and witness tremendous change in American society. This time, , is known as the age of Jackson. It is a time of politic and social change. It is fundamental of this period to explore the role Jackson played in reshaping the face of politics, due to the development of the Democratic Party and national banking system. It is also important to examine the social changes of this time. This includes the change in gender roles, and also the vital religious revivals that occurred. The Jacksonian Democrats thought of themselves as saviors of the common people, the constitution, political democracy, and economic opportunity. To the extent that they attempted to support equal economic opportunity and some aspects of political democracy Source s: