The Jeffersonian Era

MAIN IDEA
During the presidencies of Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe, the country grew in both size and prestige.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
Today’s Democratic Party traces its roots to Jefferson and the Democratic-Republicans.

Terms & Names
- Democratic-Republicans
- Jeffersonian republicanism
- Marbury v. Madison
- John Marshall
- judicial review
- Louisiana Purchase
- impressment
- James Monroe
- Monroe Doctrine

One American’s Story
Patrick Gass was among those who took part in the famous Lewis and Clark expedition. Setting out in 1804, this expedition traveled overland from St. Louis, Missouri, to the Pacific. Along the way, Gass kept a journal in which he took notes on people, places, and the dramatic events he witnessed. Gass described one of those events in his journal entry for May 14, 1805.

A PERSONAL VOICE PATRICK GASS
“This forenoon we passed a large creek on the North side and a small river on the South. About 4 in the afternoon we passed another small river on the South side near the mouth of which some of the men discovered a large brown bear, and six of them went out to kill it. They fired at it; but having only wounded it, it made battle and was near seizing some of them, but they all fortunately escaped, and at length succeeded in dispatching it. These bears are very bold and ferocious; and very large and powerful. The natives say they have killed a number of their brave men.”
—A Journal of the Voyages and Travels of a Corps of Discovery

The journey Gass undertook with Lewis and Clark helped lay the foundations for expansion. The explorers brought back to the new government reports about the vast regions that lay to the west. Meanwhile, other Americans continued to shape the government in their growing nation.

Jefferson’s Presidency
The election of 1800 pitted Thomas Jefferson, a leader of the Democratic-Republicans (sometimes shortened to “Republicans”), against President John Adams and his Federalist Party.

It was a hard-fought struggle. Each party hurled wild charges at the other.
Democratic-Republicans called Adams a tool of the rich who wanted to turn the executive branch into a British-style monarchy. Federalists protested that Jefferson was a dangerous supporter of revolutionary France and an atheist.

THE ELECTION OF 1800 In the balloting in the electoral college, Jefferson defeated Adams by eight electoral votes. However, since Jefferson’s running mate, Aaron Burr, received the same number of votes as Jefferson, the House of Representatives was called upon to break the tie and choose between the two running mates. For six feverish days, the House took one ballot after another—35 ballots in all. Finally, Alexander Hamilton intervened. Although Hamilton opposed Jefferson’s philosophy of government, he regarded Burr as unqualified for the presidency. Hamilton persuaded enough Federalists to cast blank votes that Jefferson received a majority of two votes. Burr then became vice-president.

The deadlock revealed a flaw in the electoral process established by the Constitution. As a result, Congress passed the Twelfth Amendment, which called for electors to cast separate ballots for president and vice-president. This system is still in effect today.

In his inaugural address, Jefferson extended the hand of peace to his opponents. “Every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle,” he said. “We are all Republicans; we are all Federalists.”

SIMPLIFYING THE GOVERNMENT Jefferson’s theory of government, often called Jeffersonian republicanism, held that the people should control the government and that a simple government best suited the needs of the people. In accord with his belief in decentralized power, Jefferson tried to shrink the government and cut costs wherever possible. He reduced the size of the army, halted a planned expansion of the navy, and lowered expenses for government social functions. He also rolled back Hamilton’s economic program by eliminating all internal taxes and reducing the influence of the Bank of the United States.

Jefferson was the first president to take office in the new federal capital, Washington, D.C. Though in appearance the city was a primitive place of dirt roads and few buildings, its location between Virginia and Maryland reflected the growing importance of the South in national politics. In fact, Jefferson and the two presidents who followed him—James Madison and James Monroe—all were from Virginia. This pattern of Southern dominance underscored the declining influence of both New England and the Federalists in national political life at that time.

JOHN MARSHALL AND THE SUPREME COURT Just before leaving office, President Adams had tried to influence future judicial decisions by filling federal judgeships with Federalists. But the signed documents authorizing some of the appointments had not been delivered by the time Adams left office. Jefferson argued that these appointments were invalid and ordered Madison, his secretary of state, not to deliver them.

This argument led to one of the most important Supreme Court decisions of all time in Marbury v. Madison (1803). (See page 118.) The Federalist chief justice John Marshall declared that part of Congress’s Judiciary Act of 1789, which would have forced Madison to hand over the papers, was unconstitutional. The decision strengthened the Supreme Court by establishing the principle of judicial review—the ability of the Supreme Court to declare a law, in this case an act of Congress, unconstitutional.
THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE  In 1800, Napoleon Bonaparte of France had persuaded Spain to return to France the Louisiana Territory, the land spanning from the Mississippi River west to the Rocky Mountains. France had handed this territory over to Spain in 1762, after the French and Indian War, but Napoleon planned to use it as a “breadbasket” for the colonial empire that he hoped to build in the West Indies. Many Americans were alarmed when they heard of this transfer, as they feared that a strong French presence in North America would force the United States into an alliance with Britain.

However, by 1803, Napoleon had abandoned his ideas of an American empire and offered to sell the Louisiana Territory to the United States. Jefferson doubted whether the Constitution gave him the power to make such a purchase, but he decided to proceed. At a price of $15 million, the Louisiana Purchase more than doubled the size of the United States. Under the direction of President Jefferson, Meriwether Lewis and William Clark organized and led a group, including Patrick Gass, and set off in 1804 to explore the new territory. The explorers brought back valuable information about the West and showed that transcontinental travel was possible.

Madison and the War of 1812

Jefferson easily won reelection in 1804 but a crisis clouded his second administration. Renewed fighting between Britain and France threatened American shipping. The crisis continued into the administration of James Madison, who was elected president in 1808. Some four years later, Madison led the nation into the War of 1812 against Great Britain.

THE CAUSES OF THE WAR  Although France and Britain both threatened U.S. ships between 1805 and 1814, Americans focused their anger on the British. One reason was the British policy of impressment, the practice of seizing Americans at sea and “impressing,” or drafting, them into the British navy. Americans grew even angrier after learning that officials in British Canada were supplying arms to Native Americans in support of their ongoing battle against American settlers. A group of young congressmen from the South and the West, known as the war hawks, demanded war.

THE COURSE OF THE WAR  By the spring of 1812, President Madison had decided to commit America to war against Britain, and Congress approved the war declaration in mid-June.

Republican funding cuts and a lack of popular support had left the American military with few volunteers and ill-prepared for war. Britain, however, was too preoccupied with Napoleon in Europe to pay much attention to the Americans. Nonetheless, the British scored a stunning victory in August of 1814, when they brushed aside American troops and sacked Washington, D.C. Madison and other federal officials fled the city as the British burned the Capitol, the Presidential Mansion, and other public buildings. The most impressive American victory occurred at the Battle of New Orleans. There, on January 8, 1815, U.S. troops led by General Andrew Jackson of Tennessee routed a British force. Ironically, British and American diplomats had already signed a peace agreement before the Battle of New Orleans, but news of the pact had not reached Jackson in time. The Treaty of Ghent, signed on Christmas Eve, 1814, declared an armistice, or end to the fighting.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE WAR  The war had three important consequences. First, it led to the end of the Federalist Party, whose members generally opposed the war. Second, it encouraged the growth of American industries to manufacture products no longer available from Britain because of the war. Third, it confirmed the status of the United States as a free and independent nation.
Lewis and Clark Expedition, 1804–1806

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER**

1. **Movement** About how many miles did the expedition travel on its route to the Pacific Ocean?

2. **Movement** On average, how many miles per day did they travel from Ft. Clatsop to the place where the party split up on July 3, 1806?

---

**Page from the journal of Lewis and Clark.**

- **May 14, 1804** The party departs camp near Saint Louis about 4 P.M. in heavy rain.
- **November 3, 1804** A hard wind from the northwest sets in as the party makes camp.
- **December 17, 1804** In minus-45-degrees weather, sentries have to be changed every half hour.
- **August 20, 1804** Sergeant Floyd dies, the only fatality of the expedition.
- **August 11, 1806** Lewis is accidentally shot by a member of his own party. In pain, he rejoins Clark’s party the next day.
- **July 3, 1806** The party divides. Lewis takes the direct route to the falls of Missouri. Clark heads toward the Jefferson and Yellowstone rivers.
- **August 11, 1806** Lewis is accidentally shot by a member of his own party. In pain, he rejoins Clark’s party the next day.
- **December 8, 1805–March 23, 1806** Lack of provisions forces departure from winter camp.
- **April 25–26, 1805** In high winds and cold, Lewis searches by land for the Yellowstone River. He rejoins Clark at the junction of the Missouri and Yellowstone rivers.
- **April 7, 1805** A party of 32, including Clark’s black servant York, French-Canadian trader Charbonneau, his wife Sacajawea, and their son, depart at 5 P.M. to continue the journey. High northwest wind but otherwise fair weather.

---

**This dollar coin honors Sacajawea, a young Shoshone woman who served as interpreter and guide for the expedition.**

**Mandan Village by Karl Bodmer**

---

**Compass of Lewis and Clark.**

---

**Journey west, 1804–1805**

**Journey home, 1806**

**Lewis’s route home**

**Clark’s route home**

**Fort**

0 250 500 miles

0 250 500 kilometers
Nationalism Shapes Foreign Policy

As with James Madison, foreign affairs dominated the first term of President James Monroe, who was elected in 1816. His secretary of state, John Quincy Adams, established a foreign policy based on nationalism—a belief that national interests should be placed ahead of regional concerns, such as slavery in the South or tariffs in the Northeast.

**TERRITORY AND BOUNDARIES** High on Adams’s list of national interests were the security of the nation and the expansion of its territory. To further these interests, Adams arranged the Convention of 1818, which fixed the U.S. border at the 49th parallel from Michigan west to the Rocky Mountains. Adams also reached a compromise with Britain to jointly occupy the Oregon Territory, the territory west of the Rockies, for ten years. He also convinced Don Luis de Onís, the Spanish minister to the United States, to transfer Florida to the United States. The Adams-Onís Treaty (1819) also established a western boundary for the United States that extended along the Sabine River from the Gulf of Mexico north to the Arkansas River to its source, and then north to the 42nd parallel, and west to the Pacific Ocean.

**THE MONROE DOCTRINE** When Napoleon invaded Portugal and Spain in 1807, the two countries did not have the money or military force to both defend themselves and keep control of their overseas territories at the same time. But when Napoleon was defeated in 1815, Portugal and Spain wanted to reclaim their former colonies in Latin America.

Meanwhile, the Russians, who had been in Alaska since 1784, were establishing trading posts in what is now California. In 1821, Czar Alexander I of Russia...
claimed that Alaska’s southern boundary was the 51st parallel, just north of Vancouver Island. He forbade foreign vessels from using the coast north of this line.

With Spain and Portugal trying to move back into their old colonial areas, and with Russia pushing in from the northwest, the United States knew that it had to do something. Many Americans were interested in acquiring northern Mexico and the Spanish colony of Cuba. Moreover, the Russian action posed a threat to American trade with China, which brought huge profits.

Accordingly, in his 1823 message to Congress, President Monroe warned all European powers not to interfere with affairs in the Western Hemisphere. They should not attempt to create new colonies, he said, or try to overthrow the newly independent republics in the hemisphere. The United States would consider such action “dangerous to our peace and safety.” At the same time, the United States would not involve itself in European affairs or interfere with existing colonies in the Western Hemisphere.

**A PERSONAL VOICE**  
**PRESIDENT JAMES MONROE**

“Our policy in regard to Europe . . . is not to interfere in the internal concerns of any of its powers . . . But in regard to those continents [of the Western Hemisphere], circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different. It is impossible that the allied [European] powers should extend their political system to any portion of either continent without endangering our peace and happiness.”

—Annual Message to Congress, December 2, 1823

These principles became known as the **Monroe Doctrine**. The doctrine became a foundation for future American policy and represented an important step onto the world stage by the assertive young nation. At home however, sectional differences soon challenged national unity, requiring strong patriotic sentiments and strong leaders like Andrew Jackson to hold the nation together.
MARBURY v. MADISON (1803)

ORIGINS OF THE CASE A few days before Thomas Jefferson’s inauguration, outgoing president John Adams appointed William Marbury to be a justice of the peace. But the commission was not delivered to Marbury. Later, Jefferson’s new secretary of state, James Madison, refused to give Marbury the commission. Marbury asked the Supreme Court to force Madison to give him his commission.

THE RULING The Court declared that the law on which Marbury based his claim was unconstitutional, and therefore it refused to order Madison to give Marbury his commission.

LEGAL REASONING Writing for the Court, Chief Justice John Marshall decided that Marbury had a right to his commission, and he scolded Madison at length for refusing to deliver it.

However, he then considered Marbury’s claim that, under the Judiciary Act of 1789, the Supreme Court should order Madison to deliver the commission. As Marshall pointed out, the powers of the Supreme Court are set by the Constitution, and Congress does not have the authority to alter them. The Judiciary Act attempted to do just that.

Marshall reasoned that, since the Constitution is the “supreme law of the land, no law that goes against the Constitution can be valid.”

“If... the courts are to regard the constitution, and the constitution is superior to any ordinary act of the legislature, the constitution, and not such ordinary act, must govern the case to which they both apply.”

If an act of Congress violates the Constitution, then a judge must uphold the Constitution and declare the act void. In choosing to obey the Constitution, the Supreme Court did declare the Judiciary Act unconstitutional and void, and so refused to grant Marbury’s request.

RELATED CASES

U.S. CONSTITUTION, ARTICLE III, SECTION 2 (1788)
“The judicial power shall extend to all cases... arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made... under their authority.”

U.S. CONSTITUTION, ARTICLE VI, CLAUSE 2 (1788)
“This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof... shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby...”

FLETCHER v. PECK (1810)
The Court ruled a state law unconstitutional for the first time.

COHENS v. VIRGINIA (1821)
The Court overturned a state court decision for the first time.

GIBBONS v. OGDEN (1824)
The Court ruled that the federal Congress—not the states—had the power under the Constitution to regulate interstate commerce.
WHY IT MATTERED

In 1803, interest in Marbury’s commission was primarily about partisan politics. The fight was just one skirmish in the ongoing battle between Federalists, such as Adams, and Democratic-Republicans, led by Jefferson and Madison, which had intensified in the election of 1800.

When Jefferson won the election, Adams made a final effort to hinder Jefferson’s promised reforms. Before leaving office, he tried to fill the government with Federalists, including the “midnight” justices such as Marbury. Madison’s refusal to deliver Marbury’s appointment was part of Jefferson’s subsequent effort to rid his administration of Federalists.

Marshall’s opinion in Marbury might seem like a victory for Jefferson because it denied Marbury his commission. However, by scolding Madison and extending the principle of judicial review—the power of courts to decide whether or not specific laws are valid—the Court sent a message to Jefferson and to the Congress that the judiciary had the power to affect legislation. The Marshall Court, however, never declared another act of Congress unconstitutional.

HISTORICAL IMPACT

In striking down part of the Judiciary Act, an act of Congress, Marshall gave new force to the principle of judicial review. The legacy of John Marshall and of Marbury is that judicial review has become a cornerstone of American government. One scholar has called it “America’s novel contribution to political theory and the practice of constitutional government.” As Justice Marshall recognized, judicial review is an essential component of democratic government; by ensuring that Congress exercises only those powers granted by the Constitution, the courts protect the sovereignty of the people.

Perhaps more importantly, the principle of judicial review plays a vital role in our federal system of checks and balances. With Marbury, the judicial branch secured its place as one of three coequal branches of the federal government. The judiciary has no power to make laws or to carry them out. However, judges have an important role in deciding what the law is and how it is carried out.

In City of Boerne v. Flores (1997), for instance, the Supreme Court declared void the Religious Freedom Restoration Act of 1993. Members of Congress had passed the act in an attempt to change the way federal courts apply the First Amendment’s Free Exercise Clause. The Supreme Court ruled that Congress does not have the authority to decide what the First Amendment means—in effect, to define its own powers. The Court, and not Congress, is the interpreter of the Constitution.

Through the 1999–2000 term, the Court had rendered 151 decisions striking down—in whole or part—acts of Congress. It had also voided or restricted the enforcement of state laws 1,130 times. That the entire country has with few exceptions obeyed these decisions, no matter how strongly they disagreed, proves Americans’ faith in the Supreme Court as the protector of the rule of law.

THINKING CRITICALLY

CONNECT TO HISTORY

1. Comparing Read encyclopedia articles about another Marshall Court decision, such as Fletcher v. Peck, Cohens v. Virginia, or Gibbons v. Ogdan. Compare that decision with Marbury and consider what the two cases and opinions have in common. Write a paragraph explaining the major similarities between the cases.

2. Visit the links for Historic Decisions of the Supreme Court to research a recent Supreme Court decision involving judicial review of an act of Congress. Write a case summary in which you describe the law’s purpose, the Court’s ruling, and the potential impact of the decision.

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R8.