Launched the New Nation

USA

1789 George Washington is elected president.

1790

1789 The French Revolution begins.

1791 Slaves revolt in Saint Domingue, now known as Haiti.

1792 George Washington is reelected president.

1793 French King Louis XVI is executed in the French Revolution.

1794 The Whiskey Rebellion breaks out.

1795

1796 John Adams is elected president.

1800 Thomas Jefferson is elected president.

WORLD

1789 Napoleon Bonaparte seizes control of the French government.

1799 Napoleon Bonaparte seizes control of the French government.

1801 Act of Union, uniting Great Britain and Ireland, goes into effect.

Lake George, New York, in 1817
Launching the New Nation

1813 France and the United States sign the Louisiana Purchase.

1804 Thomas Jefferson is reelected president.

1808 James Madison is elected president.

1812 James Madison is reelected.

1814 The Treaty of Ghent ends the War of 1812.

1816 James Monroe is elected president.

1805 Haiti declares itself independent from France.

1807 Great Britain outlawed the slave trade.

1815 Napoleon is defeated at Waterloo.

You are a teacher in a small town on the western frontier in 1789. You ask your students what the new government means to them. A girl whose parents own the general store says that her father worries about taxes. Her brother says that he wants to join the army. A boy from a small farm in the backcountry replies that the government is only for town people.

How can a government truly represent all of its citizens?

Examine the Issues

• How can a government win people’s trust?
• How can a government build a unified nation out of a people with diverse interests and concerns?
George Washington had no desire to be president after the Constitutional Convention. His dream was to settle down to a quiet life at his Virginia estate, Mount Vernon. The American people had other ideas, though. They wanted a strong national leader of great authority as their first president. As the hero of the Revolution, Washington was the unanimous choice in the first presidential ballot. When the news reached him on April 16, 1789, Washington reluctantly accepted the call to duty. Two days later he set out for New York City to take the oath of office.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  GEORGE WASHINGTON**

“About ten o’clock I bade adieu [farewell] to Mount Vernon, to private life, and to domestic felicity [happiness]; and with a mind oppressed with more anxious and painful sensations than I have words to express, set out for New York . . . with the best dispositions [intentions] to render service to my country in obedience to its call, but with less hope of answering its expectations.”

—The Diaries of George Washington

When Washington took office as the first president of the United States under the Constitution, he and Congress faced a daunting task—to create an entirely new government. The momentous decisions that these early leaders made have resounded through American history.

**The New Government Takes Shape**

Washington took charge of a political system that was a bold experiment. Never before had a nation tried to base a government on the Enlightenment ideals of republican rule and individual rights. No one knew if a government based on the will of the people could really work.
Although the Constitution provided a strong foundation, it was not a detailed blueprint for governing. To create a working government, Washington and Congress had to make many practical decisions—such as how to raise revenue and provide for defense—with no precedent, or prior example, for American leaders to follow. Perhaps James Madison put it best: “We are in a wilderness without a single footstep to guide us.”

**JUDICIARY ACT OF 1789** One of the first tasks Washington and Congress tackled was the creation of a judicial system. The Constitution had authorized Congress to set up a federal court system, headed by a Supreme Court, but it failed to spell out the details. What type of additional courts should there be and how many? What would happen if federal court decisions conflicted with state laws?

The **Judiciary Act of 1789** answered these critical questions, creating a judicial structure that has remained essentially intact. This law provided for a Supreme Court consisting of a chief justice and five associate justices. It also set up 3 federal circuit courts and 13 federal district courts throughout the country. (The numbers of justices and courts increased over time.) Section 25 of the Judiciary Act, one of the most important provisions of the law, allowed state court decisions to be appealed to a federal court when constitutional issues were raised. This section guaranteed that federal laws remained “the supreme Law of the Land,” as directed by Article 6 of the Constitution.

**WASHINGTON SHAPES THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH** At the same time that Congress shaped the judiciary, Washington faced the task of building an executive branch to help him make policies and carry out the laws passed by Congress. In 1789, when Washington took office, the executive branch of government consisted of only two officials, the president and the vice-president. To help these leaders govern, Congress created three executive departments: the Department of State, to deal with foreign affairs; the Department of War, to handle military matters; and the Department of the Treasury, to manage finances.

To head these departments, Washington chose capable leaders he knew and trusted. He picked Thomas Jefferson as secretary of state, **Alexander Hamilton** as secretary of the treasury, and Henry Knox, who had served as Washington’s general of artillery during the Revolution, as secretary of war. Finally, he chose Edmund Randolph as attorney general, the chief lawyer of the federal government. These department heads soon became the president’s chief advisers, or Cabinet.

President Washington *(far right)* meets with his first Cabinet: *(from left to right)* Henry Knox, Thomas Jefferson, Edmund Randolph *(with back turned)*, and Alexander Hamilton.
Hamilton and Jefferson Debate

Hamilton and Jefferson were brilliant thinkers, but they had very different political ideas. The differences between the two also caused bitter disagreements, many of which centered on Hamilton’s plan for the economy.

**HAMILTON AND JEFFERSON IN CONFLICT** Political divisions in the new nation were great. No two men embodied these differences more than Hamilton and Jefferson. Hamilton believed in a strong central government led by a prosperous, educated elite of upper-class citizens. Jefferson distrusted a strong central government and the rich. He favored strong state and local governments rooted in popular participation. Hamilton believed that commerce and industry were the keys to a strong nation. Jefferson favored a society of farmer-citizens.

Overall, Hamilton’s vision of America was that of a country much like Great Britain, with a strong central government, commerce, and industry. His views found more support in the North, particularly New England, whereas Jefferson’s views won endorsement in the South and the West.

**HAMILTON’S ECONOMIC PLAN** As secretary of the treasury, Hamilton’s job was to set in order the nation’s finances and to put the nation’s economy on a firm footing. To do this, he proposed a plan to manage the country’s debts and a plan to establish a national banking system.

According to Hamilton’s calculations in his *Report on the Public Credit*, the public debt of the United States in 1790 (most of it incurred during the Revolution) was many millions of dollars. The national government was responsible for about two-thirds of this debt, and individual states were responsible for the rest. The new nation owed some of the debt to foreign governments and some to private citizens, including soldiers who had received bonds—certificates that promised payment plus interest—as payment for their service during the war.

Hamilton proposed to pay off the foreign debt and to issue new bonds to cover the old ones. He also proposed that the federal government assume the debts of the states. Although this would increase the federal debt, Hamilton reasoned that assuming state debts would give creditors—the people who...
originally loaned the money—an incentive to support the new federal government. If the government failed, these creditors would never get their money back. However, this proposal made many people in the South furious. Some Southern states had already paid off most of their debts. Southerners resented assumption of state debts because they thought that they would be taxed to help pay the debts incurred by the Northern states.

**PLAN FOR A NATIONAL BANK** Hamilton’s line of reasoning also motivated his proposal for a national bank that would be funded by both the federal government and wealthy private investors. Hamilton hoped to tie wealthy investors to the country’s welfare. The Bank of the United States would issue paper money and handle tax receipts and other government funds.

Hamilton’s proposals aroused a storm of controversy. Opponents of a national bank, including James Madison, claimed that the bank would forge an unhealthy alliance between the government and wealthy business interests. Madison also argued that since the Constitution made no provision for a national bank, Congress had no right to authorize it. This argument began the debate between those who favored a “strict” interpretation of the Constitution, one in which the federal government has very limited powers, and a “loose” interpretation, which favors greater federal powers. The latter group appealed to the so-called elastic clause of the Constitution (Article 1, Section 8, Clause 18), which gives Congress the authority to do whatever is “necessary and proper” to carry out its specific enumerated powers, such as regulating commerce. In the end, however, Hamilton convinced Washington and a majority in Congress to accept his views, and the federal government established the Bank of the United States.

**THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA** To win support for his debt plan from Southern states, Hamilton offered a suggestion: What if the nation’s capital were moved from New York City to a new city in the South, on the banks of the Potomac River? This idea pleased Southerners, particularly Virginians such as Madison and Jefferson, who believed that a Southern site for the capital would make the government more responsive to their interests. With this incentive, Virginians agreed to back the debt plan. In 1790, the debt bill passed Congress, along with authorization for the construction of a new national capital in the District of Columbia, located between Maryland and Virginia.
Pierre L’Enfant, a French engineer, drew up plans for the new capital. L’Enfant was later fired by George Washington for being obstinate. He was replaced by Andrew Ellicott, who redrew L’Enfant’s plan, but kept much of the grand vision. An African-American surveyor, Benjamin Banneker, assisted Ellicott with the surveying work. They made their plan on a grand scale, incorporating boulevards, traffic circles, and monuments reminiscent of European capitals. By 1800, the capital had been moved to its new site on the Potomac.

The First Political Parties and Rebellion

President Washington tried to remain above the arguments between Hamilton and Jefferson and to encourage them to work together despite their basic differences. These differences were so great, however, that the two men continued to clash over government policy. Their conflict divided the cabinet and fueled a growing division in national politics.

**FEDERALISTS AND DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICANS** The split in Washington’s cabinet helped give rise to the country’s first political parties. The two parties formed around one of the key issues in American history—the power and size of the federal government in relation to state and local governments. Those who shared Hamilton’s vision of a strong central government called themselves Federalists. Those who supported Jefferson’s vision of strong state governments called themselves Republicans. No relation to today’s Republican Party, Jefferson’s Republicans—later called Democratic-Republicans—were in fact the ancestors of today’s Democratic Party.

The very existence of political parties worried many leaders, including Washington, who saw parties as a danger to national unity. At the close of his presidency, Washington criticized what he called “the spirit of party.”

> **A PERSONAL VOICE** GEORGE WASHINGTON
>
> “It serves always to distract the public councils and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another; foment[s] [incites] occasionally riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption. . . .”
>
> —“Farewell Address,” 1796

Despite criticism, the two parties continued to develop. The two-party system was well established by the time Washington left office.

**THE WHISKEY REBELLION** During Washington’s second term, an incident occurred that reflected the tension between federal and regional interests. In 1789, Congress had passed a **protective tariff**, an import tax on goods produced in Europe. This tax, meant to encourage American production, brought in a great deal of revenue, but Secretary Hamilton wanted more. So he pushed through an **excise tax**—a tax on a product’s manufacture, sale, or distribution—to be levied on the manufacture of whiskey.

Background

In addition to promoting American goods, the Tariff Act of 1789, as well as tariffs that followed, provided the majority of the federal government’s revenue until the 20th century.
Most whiskey producers were small frontier farmers. Their major crop was corn. Corn was too bulky to carry across the Appalachian Mountains and sell in the settled areas along the Atlantic. Therefore, the farmers distilled the corn into whiskey, which could be more easily sent to market on the backs of mules.

Since whiskey was the main source of cash for these frontier farmers, Hamilton knew that the excise tax would make them furious. And it did. In 1794, farmers in western Pennsylvania refused to pay the tax. They beat up federal marshals in Pittsburgh, and they even threatened to secede from the Union.

Hamilton looked upon the Whiskey Rebellion as an opportunity for the federal government to show that it could enforce the law along the western frontier. Accordingly, some 15,000 militiamen were called up. Accompanied by Washington part of the way and by Hamilton all the way, the federal troops hiked over the Alleghenies and scattered the rebels without the loss of a single life.

The Whiskey Rebellion was a milestone in the consolidation of federal power in domestic affairs. At the same time, the new government was also facing critical problems and challenges in foreign affairs—particularly in its relations with Europe and with Native American peoples west of the Appalachians.
Young People in the Early Republic

Whether in farms on the frontier or in any of the cities and towns sprouting up throughout the nation, life in the early United States required energy and perseverance. This was especially true for young people, who were expected to shoulder responsibilities that, in our own time, even an adult would find challenging. Children worked alongside adults from the time they could walk and were considered adults at 14. School and leisure-time activities were work oriented and were meant to prepare young people for the challenges that lay ahead.

EDUCATION

Country children attended school only when they weren’t needed to do chores at home or in the fields. Schoolhouses were one-room log cabins and supplies were scarce. Younger and older children learned their lessons together by reciting spelling, multiplication tables, and verses from the Bible. Schoolmasters, seldom more learned than their students, punished wrong answers and restless behavior with severe beatings.

Some city children were either tutored at home or attended private schools. Girls studied etiquette, sewing, and music. Boys prepared for professional careers. “Professors” punished poor students by beating their hands. There were no laws requiring a child to attend school until the mid-1800s.
WORK
Country children were expected to work alongside their parents from the time they were about six. Even when children went to school, they were expected to put in many hours performing such chores as chopping wood, watering the horses, gathering vegetables, and spooling yarn. City boys as young as eight years old—especially poorer ones—went to work as “apprentices” for a tradesman who taught them such trades as printing, or, like the boys pictured here, dying cloth. Other boys worked in shops or went to sea. Girls learned from their mothers how to sew, spin, mend, and cook.

LEISURE
Young people from the country gathered for events that were both entertaining as well as practical, such as the “husking bee” pictured here. Huskers were divided into teams, and the team that stripped the husks off the most ears of corn was the winner. Cheating, though resented, was expected and was usually followed by a fight.

CHILD MORTALITY
In Puritan America, one out of every two children died before they reached their teens. Child mortality remained high throughout the 18th and 19th centuries. Common causes of death for children were cholera, smallpox, diphtheria, and dysentery.

CHILDREN IN THE MILITARY
From the American Revolution until World War I, boys 14 and younger served in the United States military. Some as young as six were musicians and aides in the army and marines, while others served as deckhands and cartridge carriers in the United States Navy.

CHILDREN AND CAPITAL PUNISHMENT
Colonial law forbade the execution of children under 14, but exceptions were made. In December 1786, in New London, Connecticut, 12-year-old Hannah Ocuish was hanged for killing a six-year-old girl who had accused her of stealing strawberries.

CHILD LABOR
Apprentices who learned a trade could later go into business for themselves, but children who worked in factories had no such future. Virtually every industry in the country depended on child labor. Children worked in mills, mines, factories, and laundries.

Child Labor Data

- 1790: All of the workers—seven boys and two girls—in the first American textile mill in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, were under the age of 12.
- 1830s: One third of the labor force in New England was under the age of 16.
- 1842: For the first time, Massachusetts law limited the workday of children under the age of 12 to ten hours a day.

THINKING CRITICALLY

CONNECT TO HISTORY
1. Identifying Problems What types of physical hardships were young people exposed to during this period in history?

CONNECT TO TODAY
2. Researching Jobs In our own day, young people work at many different kinds of jobs. Some have even started their own businesses and have been very successful. Research some of the businesses that youths run on their own and present a report to the class.
Gouverneur Morris, the man responsible for the final draft of the Constitution, witnessed one of the great events of history—the French Revolution. On July 14, 1789, a mob stormed the Bastille, the infamous Paris prison, releasing the prisoners and killing the prison governor. Not long afterward, while walking on a Paris street, Morris got a close look at revolutionary violence.

**A PERSONAL VOICE** GOUVERNEUR MORRIS

“[T]he Head and Body of Mr. de Foulon are introduced in Triumph. The Head on a Pike, the Body dragged naked on the Earth. Afterwards this horrible Exhibition is carried thro the different Streets. His crime [was] to have accepted a Place in the Ministry. This mutilated form of an old Man of seventy five is shewn to Bertier, his Son in Law, the Intend’t. [another official] of Paris, and afterwards he also is put to Death and cut to Pieces, the Populace carrying about the mangled Fragments with a Savage Joy.”

—quoted from his journal

Morris was appointed minister to France in 1792. Despite his horror at the violence around him, Morris remained at his post throughout the bloodiest days of the Revolution. Meanwhile, at home, Americans were divided in their views concerning the events underway in France.

**U.S. Response to Events in Europe**

Most Americans initially supported the French Revolution because, like the American Revolution, it was inspired by the ideal of republican rule. Heartened by the American struggle against royal tyranny, the French set out to create a government based on the will of the people. The alliance between France and the United States, created by the Treaty of 1778, served as an additional bond...
between the two nations. Whether or not the United States should support the French Revolution was one of the most important foreign policy questions that the young nation faced.

**REACTIONS TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION** Despite the bonds between the nations, Americans soon became divided over the Revolution. In early 1793, a radical group called the Jacobins seized power in France. They beheaded the French king, Louis XVI, and launched the Reign of Terror against their opponents, sending moderate reformers and royalists alike to the guillotine. In an excess of revolutionary zeal, the Jacobins also declared war on other monarchies, including Great Britain.

Because of their alliance with the United States, the French expected American help. The American reaction tended to split along party lines. Democratic-Republicans, such as Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, wanted to honor the 1778 treaty and support France. Federalists, such as Alexander Hamilton, wanted to back the British. President Washington took a middle position. On April 22, 1793, he issued a declaration of *neutrality*, a statement that the United States would support neither side in the conflict. Hamilton and Jefferson came to agree; entering a war was not in the new nation's interest.

Earlier in April, the French had sent a young diplomat, Edmond Genêt, to win American support. Before following diplomatic procedure and presenting his credentials to the Washington administration, Genêt began to recruit Americans for the war effort against Great Britain. This violation of American neutrality and diplomatic protocol outraged Washington, who demanded that the French recall Genêt. By then, however, Genêt's political backers had fallen from power in Paris. Fearing for his life, the young envoy remained in the United States and became a U.S. citizen. Although Jefferson protested against Genêt's actions, Federalists called Jefferson a radical because he supported France. Frustrated by these attacks and by his ongoing feud with Hamilton, Jefferson resigned from the cabinet in 1793.

**Politics and Style**

Events in France not only affected politics in the United States, they influenced styles of clothing as well. Political differences could often be detected by observing different styles of dress and appearance.

- **DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICANS** favored a more informal style, similar to that found in France after the French Revolution.
  - loose hair
  - neckerchief
  - narrow coattails
  - “trowsers”
  - laces

- **FEDERALISTS** tended to be pro-British, which was evident in their more formal dress.
  - wig or powdered hair to resemble a wig
  - bow tie
  - broad coattails
  - breeches and stockings
  - buckles

*Launching the New Nation* 191
**TREATY WITH SPAIN**  The United States wanted to secure land claims west of the Appalachian mountains and to gain shipping rights on the Mississippi River. To do this, it needed to come to an agreement with Spain, which still held Florida and the Louisiana Territory, a vast area of land west of the Mississippi River.

Negotiations stalled because of the turmoil in Europe. Spain, unlike Britain, signed a treaty with France. Spain then feared British retaliation and suspected that a joint British-American action might be launched against the Louisiana Territory. Suddenly, Spain agreed to meet with U.S. minister to Great Britain Thomas Pinckney, and on October 27, 1795, both sides signed a treaty.

Pinckney's Treaty of 1795, also known as the Treaty of San Lorenzo, included virtually every concession that the Americans desired. Spain gave up all claims to land east of the Mississippi (except Florida) and recognized the 31st parallel as the southern boundary of the United States and the northern boundary of Florida. Spain also agreed to open the Mississippi River to traffic by Spanish subjects and U.S. citizens, and to allow American traders to use the port of New Orleans.

**Native Americans Resist White Settlers**

Pioneers moving west assumed that the 1783 Treaty of Paris, in which Great Britain had ceded its land rights west of the Appalachians, gave them free rein to settle the area. But the British still maintained forts in the Northwest Territory—an area that included what is now Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin—in direct violation of the treaty. In addition to this continued British presence, the settlers met fierce resistance from the original inhabitants.

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**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER**

1. **Location**  What is one common feature of the locations of most of the British forts on this map?

2. **Human–Environment Interaction**  Why would this feature be of great importance to an army?
FIGHTS IN THE NORTHWEST  Having been excluded from the negotiations that led to the Treaty of Paris, Native Americans in the Northwest Territory never accepted the provisions. They continued to claim their tribal lands and demanded direct negotiations with the United States. They also took heart from the presence of British troops, who encouraged their resistance. When white settlers moved into their territory, Native Americans often attacked them.

To gain control over the area that would become Ohio, the federal government sent an army led by General Josiah Harmar. In 1790, Harmar’s troops clashed with a confederacy of Native American groups led by a chieftain of the Miami tribe named Little Turtle. The Native Americans won that battle. The following year, the Miami Confederacy inflicted an even worse defeat on a federal army led by General Arthur St. Clair.

BATTLE OF FALLEN TIMBERS  Finally, in 1792, Washington appointed General Anthony Wayne to lead federal troops against the Native Americans. Known as “Mad Anthony” for his reckless courage, Wayne spent an entire year drilling his men. Greatly impressed, Little Turtle urged his people to seek peace.

The other chiefs did not agree with Little Turtle and replaced him with a less able leader. On August 20, 1794, Wayne defeated the Miami Confederacy at the Battle of Fallen Timbers, near present-day Toledo, Ohio. After the battle, Wayne’s army marched defiantly past the British Fort Miami, only two miles away, and then built an American post nearby.

Launched the New Nation 193
This victory ended Native American resistance in Ohio. The following year, the Miami Confederacy signed the Treaty of Greenville, agreeing to give up most of the land in Ohio in exchange for $20,000 worth of goods and an annual payment of nearly $10,000. This settlement continued a pattern in which settlers and the government paid Native Americans much less for their land than it was worth. Meanwhile, in the Northwest Territory, new sources of conflict were developing between Britain and the United States.

**JAY’S TREATY** At the time of the Battle of Fallen Timbers, John Jay, the chief justice of the Supreme Court, was in London to negotiate a treaty with Britain. One of the disputed issues was which nation would control territories west of the Appalachian Mountains. When news of Wayne’s victory at Fallen Timbers arrived, the British agreed to evacuate their posts in the Northwest Territory and a treaty was signed on November 19, 1794. The treaty managed to pass the Senate, but many Americans, especially western settlers, were angry at its terms, which allowed the British to continue their fur trade on the American side of the U.S.-Canadian border.

**Adams Provokes Criticism**

The bitter political fight over Jay’s Treaty, along with the growing division between Federalists and Democratic-Republicans, convinced Washington not to seek a third term in office. In his “Farewell Address” he urged the United States to “steer clear of permanent alliances” with other nations. Then, in 1797, Washington retired to his home at Mount Vernon.

In the presidential election of 1796, Americans faced a new situation: a contest between opposing parties. The Federalists nominated Vice-President John Adams for president and Thomas Pinckney for vice-president. The Democratic-Republicans nominated Thomas Jefferson for president and Aaron Burr for vice-president.

In the election, Adams received 71 electoral votes, while Jefferson received 68. Because the Constitution stated that the runner-up should become vice-president, the country found itself with a Federalist president and a Democratic-Republican vice-president. What had seemed sensible when the Constitution was written had become a problem because of the unexpected rise of political parties.

The election also underscored the growing danger of sectionalism—placing the interests of one region over those of the nation as a whole. Almost all the electors from the southern states voted for Jefferson, while all the electors from the northern states voted for Adams.

**ADAMS TRIES TO AVOID WAR** Soon after taking office, President Adams faced his first crisis: a looming war with France. The French government, which regarded the Jay treaty with Britain as a violation of the French-American alliance, refused to receive the new American ambassador and began to seize American ships bound for Britain. Adams sent a three-man delegation consisting of Charles Pinckney, minister to France; future Chief Justice John Marshall; and Elbridge Gerry to Paris to negotiate a solution.

By this time, the Reign of Terror had ceased and the French government consisted of a legislature and a five-man executive branch called the Directory. French power and prestige were at a high point because of the accomplishments of a young general named Napoleon Bonaparte who had conquered most of western Europe. The Directory had little patience with the concerns of the Americans.

The American delegation planned to meet with the French foreign minister, Talleyrand. Instead, the Directory sent three low-level officials, whom Adams in
his report to Congress called “X, Y, and Z.” These officials demanded a $250,000 bribe as payment for seeing Talleyrand. News of this insult, which became known as the XYZ Affair, provoked a wave of anti-French feeling at home. “Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute” became the slogan of the day. The mood was so anti-French that audiences refused to listen to French music.

In 1798, Congress created a navy department and authorized American ships to seize French vessels. Twelve hundred men marched to the president’s residence to volunteer for war. Congress authorized the creation of an army of 50,000 troops and brought George Washington yet again out of retirement to be “Lieutenant General and Commander in Chief of the armies raised or to be raised.” While war was never officially declared, for the next two years an undeclared naval war raged between France and the United States.

THE ALIEN AND SEDITION ACTS

Anti-French feeling continued to flourish, and many Federalists believed that French agents were everywhere, plotting to overthrow the government. New arrivals from foreign countries were soon held in particular suspicion, especially because many immigrants were active in the Democratic-Republican party. Some of the most vocal critics of the Adams administration were foreign-born. They included French and British radicals as well as recent Irish immigrants who lashed out at anyone who was even faintly pro-British, including the Federalist Adams.

To counter what they saw as a growing threat against the government, the Federalists pushed through Congress in 1798 four measures that became known as the Alien and Sedition Acts. Three of these measures, the Alien Acts, raised the residence requirement for American citizenship from five years to 14 years and allowed the president to deport or jail any alien considered undesirable.

The fourth measure, the Sedition Act, set fines and jail terms for anyone trying to hinder the operation of the government or expressing “false, scandalous, and malicious statements” against the government. Under the terms of this act, the federal government prosecuted and jailed a number of Democratic-Republican editors, publishers, and politicians. Outraged Democratic-Republicans called the laws a violation of freedom of speech guaranteed by the First Amendment.

VIRGINIA AND KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS

The two main Democratic-Republican leaders, Jefferson and James Madison, saw the Alien and Sedition Acts as a serious misuse of power on the part of the federal government. They decided to organize opposition to the Alien and Sedition Acts by appealing to the states. Madison drew up a set of resolutions that were adopted by the Virginia legisla-
turance, while Jefferson wrote resolutions that were approved in Kentucky. The Kentucky Resolutions in particular asserted the principle of nullification—that states had the right to nullify, or consider void, any act of Congress that they deemed unconstitutional. Virginia and Kentucky viewed the Alien and Sedition Acts as unconstitutional violations of First Amendment citizens rights.

The resolutions warned of the dangers that the Alien and Sedition Acts posed to a government of checks and balances guaranteed by the Constitution.

**A PERSONAL VOICE** THOMAS JEFFERSON

“Let the honest advocate of confidence [in government] read the alien and sedition acts, and say if the Constitution has not been wise in fixing limits to the government it created, and whether we should be wise in destroying those limits.”

—8th Resolution, The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions

Moreover, Virginia and Kentucky claimed the right to declare null and void federal laws going beyond powers granted by the Constitution to the Federal government.

The resolutions also called for other states to adopt similar declarations. No other state did so, however, and the issue died out by the next presidential election. Nevertheless, the resolutions showed that the balance of power between the states and the federal government remained a controversial issue. In fact, the election of 1800 between Federalist John Adams and Republican Thomas Jefferson would center on this critical debate.

**THE DEATH OF WASHINGTON** Throughout 1799, George Washington remained active, writing letters to recruit possible generals and making plans for the army that might be needed in a possible war against France. However, on December 14, Washington died after catching a severe cold. Washington was buried according to his wishes with a military funeral at Mount Vernon.

Ironically, Washington’s death was instrumental in improving relations with France. Napoleon Bonaparte, now first consul of France, hoped to lure American friendship away from the British and back to the French. Napoleon ordered ten days of mourning to be observed in the French armies for the American leader. Soon, Napoleon would offer even greater concessions to the Americans.
Jefferson Alters the Nation’s Course

The United States expanded its borders during Thomas Jefferson’s administration.

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<th>Terms &amp; Names</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Lewis and Clark</td>
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<td>• Aaron Burr</td>
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<td>• Judiciary Act of 1801</td>
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<td>• Marbury v. Madison</td>
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<td>• judicial review</td>
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<td>• Louisiana Purchase</td>
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<td>• Sacajawea</td>
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Patrick Gass was born on June 12, 1771 and died on April 2, 1870. During that time, the country grew from the original 13 colonies to 37 states. Gass played a part in that expansion as a participant in the Lewis and Clark expedition commissioned by President Jefferson to explore the West. Setting out from St. Louis, Missouri, in 1804, the expedition traveled overland to the Pacific Ocean. Along the way, Gass kept a journal. The following passage is from his journal entry of 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...”

—A Journal of the Voyages and Travels of a Corps of Discovery

By charting unexplored territory, the Lewis and Clark expedition helped lay the foundations for western expansion. It was one of the great achievements of the Jefferson presidency.

Jefferson Wins Presidential Election of 1800

The presidential campaign of 1800 was a bitter struggle between Thomas Jefferson, a Democratic-Republican, and his Federalist opponent, President John Adams. Each party hurled wild charges at the other. To Democratic-Republicans, Adams was a tool of the rich who wanted to turn the executive branch into a British-style monarchy. To Federalists, Jefferson was a dangerous supporter of revolutionary France and an atheist bent on destroying organized religion.
ELECTORAL DEADLOCK In the balloting, Jefferson defeated Adams by eight electoral votes. However, since Jefferson's running mate, Aaron Burr, received the same number of votes in the electoral college as Jefferson, the House of Representatives was called upon to choose between the two highest vote getters. For six feverish days, the House took one ballot after another—35 ballots in all. Finally, Alexander Hamilton intervened. Hamilton persuaded enough Federalists to cast blank votes to give Jefferson a majority of two votes. Burr then became vice-president. Although Hamilton opposed Jefferson's philosophy of government, he regarded Jefferson as much more qualified for the presidency than Burr was.

The deadlock revealed a flaw in the electoral process as spelled out in 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.

The Jefferson Presidency

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 [Democratic-] Republicans; we are all Federalists." Nevertheless, Jefferson planned to wage a "peaceful revolution" to restore what he saw as the republican ideals of 1776 against the strong-government policies of Federalism. Under Washington and Adams, Federalists had filled the vast majority of government positions. Jefferson reversed this pattern by replacing some Federalist officials with Democratic-Republican ones. By 1803, the government bureaucracy was more evenly balanced between Democratic-Republicans and Federalists.

SOUTHERN DOMINANCE OF POLITICS 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. The decline of the Federalists was hastened by Jefferson’s political moderation. Also, many Federalists refused to participate in political campaigns because they did not want to appeal to the common people for support. Furthermore, national expansion worked against the Federalists because settlers in the new states tended to vote for the Democratic-Republicans, who represented farmers’ interests.

JOHN MARSHALL AND THE SUPREME COURT Federalists continued to exert great influence in the judicial branch, however. Adams had appointed John Marshall, a staunch Federalist, as chief justice of the Supreme Court. Marshall served on the Court for more than 30 years, handing down decisions that would strengthen the power of the Supreme Court and the federal government.

Some of Adams's other judicial appointments proved to be less effective, however. Just prior to leaving office as president, Adams had pushed through Congress the **Judiciary Act of 1801**, which increased the number of federal judges by 16. In an attempt to control future federal judicial decisions, Adams promptly filled most of these positions with Federalists. These judges were called **midnight judges** because Adams signed their appointments late on the last day of his administration.

Adams's packing of the courts with Federalists angered Jefferson and the Democratic-Republicans. Since the documents authorizing some of the appointments had not been delivered by the time Adams left office, Jefferson argued that these appointments were invalid.

**MARBURY v. MADISON** This argument led to one of the most important Supreme Court decisions of all time: **Marbury v. Madison** (1803). William Marbury was one of the midnight judges who had never received his official papers. James Madison was Jefferson’s Secretary of State, whose duty it was to deliver the papers. The Judiciary Act of 1789 required the Supreme Court to order that the papers be delivered, and Marbury sued to enforce this provision. Chief Justice Marshall decided that this provision of the act was unconstitutional because the Constitution did not empower the Supreme Court to issue such orders. (See Marbury v. Madison on page 206). The decision was later recognized as significant for affirming the principle of **judicial review**—the ability of the Supreme Court to declare an act of Congress unconstitutional.

The United States Expands West

During Jefferson’s presidency, Americans continued their westward migration across the Appalachians. For instance, between 1800 and 1810, the population of Ohio grew from 45,000 to 231,000. Although pioneer life was hard, the pioneers kept coming.

**A PERSONAL VOICE F. A. MICHAUX**

"The houses that they inhabit are built upon the borders of the river, . . . whence they enjoy the most delightful prospects [views]: still, their mode of building does not correspond with the beauties of the spot, being nothing but miserable log houses, without windows, and so small that two beds occupy the greatest part of them."

—From Travels to the West of the Allegheny Mountains

Supplies for the journey west.
Lewis and Clark Expedition, 1804–1806

INTERACTIVE

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

May 14, 1804
The party departs camp near Saint Louis about 4 a.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-degree weather, sentries have to be changed every half-hour.

February 25–26, 1805
In high winds and cold, Lewis searches by land for the Yellowstone River. He renews 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.

December 8, 1805–March 23, 1806
Lack of provisions forces departure from winter camp.

July 3, 1806
The party divides. Lewis takes the direct route to the falls of the 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.

September 23, 1806
Taking a shortcut that saves about 580 miles, the party reaches Saint Louis at 12 noon. Total mileage: 7,690.

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 Fort Clatsop to the place where the party split up on July 3, 1806?

Page from the journal of Lewis and Clark
Most of the settlers who arrived in Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee came through the Cumberland Gap, a natural passage through the Appalachians near where Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia meet. A generation earlier, in 1775, Daniel Boone, one of America’s great frontier guides, had led the clearing of a road from Virginia, through the Cumberland Gap, into the heart of Kentucky. When it was finished, the Wilderness Road became one of the major routes for westward migration.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE  In 1800, Napoleon Bonaparte of France persuaded Spain to return the Louisiana Territory, which it had received from France in 1762. When news of the secret transfer leaked out, Americans reacted with alarm. Jefferson feared that a strong French presence in the midcontinent would force the United States into an alliance with Britain.

Jefferson wanted to resolve the problem by buying New Orleans and western Florida from the French. He sent James Monroe to join American ambassador Robert Livingston in Paris. Before Monroe arrived, however, Napoleon had abandoned his hopes for an American empire. He had failed to reconquer France’s most important island colony, Saint Domingue (now known as Haiti). By the time that Monroe arrived in Paris in April 1803, Napoleon had decided to sell the entire Louisiana Territory to the United States.

With no time to consult their government, Monroe and Livingston went ahead and closed the deal for $15 million. Jefferson, though, was not certain that the purchase was constitutional. As a strict constructionist, he doubted whether the Constitution gave the government the power to acquire new territory. But, after a delay, he submitted the treaty finalizing the purchase, and the Senate ratified it. With the Louisiana Purchase, which included all the land drained by the western tributaries of the Mississippi River, the size of the United States more than doubled.

LEWIS AND CLARK  Jefferson was eager to explore the new territory. In 1803, he appointed Meriwether Lewis to lead the expedition he called the Corps of Discovery from St. Louis to the Pacific coast. Jefferson ordered the Corps to collect scientific information about unknown plants and animals en route to the Pacific and to learn as much as possible about the Native American tribes encountered along the way. Lewis chose William Clark to be second in command. Starting off with some 50 soldiers and woodsmen, including Patrick Gass, the expedition later became smaller but added a Native American woman, Sacajawea, who served as interpreter and guide. The Lewis and Clark expedition took two years and four months and recorded invaluable information about the western territories.

Launching the New Nation  201
During the War of 1812, Samuel Wilson became a symbol for the nation. The owner of a meat-packing business in Troy, New York, he began supplying barrels of salted meat to the army, stamping the barrels with the initials “U.S.,” for United States. One of Wilson’s employees joked that the letters stood for “Uncle Sam,” Wilson’s nickname. Soon army recruits were calling themselves “Uncle Sam’s soldiers.” One of Wilson’s great-nephews, Lucius Wilson, spoke about his famous relative in 1917.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  LUCIUS E. WILSON**

“He was the old original Uncle Sam that gave the name to the United States. . . . [He] engaged in many enterprises, employed many hands [workers], had extensive acquaintance, was jolly, genial, generous, and known [as] and called ‘Uncle Sam’ by everyone.”

—Uncle Sam: The Man and the Legend

The story took on the features of a legend. Uncle Sam came to symbolize American values of honesty and hard work. The war during which the phrase caught on was just around the corner for the United States.

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**The War Hawks Demand War**

Jefferson’s popularity soared after the Louisiana Purchase, and he won reelection in 1804. During his second term, renewed fighting between Britain and France threatened American shipping. In 1806, Napoleon decided to exclude British goods from Europe. In turn, Great Britain decided that the best way of attacking Napoleon’s Europe was to **blockade** it, or seal up its ports and prevent ships from entering or leaving. By 1807, Britain had seized more than 1,000 American ships and confiscated their cargoes, and France had seized about half that number.

**GRIEVANCES AGAINST BRITAIN** Although both France and Britain engaged in these acts of aggression, 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. Another reason was the Chesapeake incident. In June 1807, the commander of a British warship demanded the right to board and search the U.S. naval frigate Chesapeake for British deserters. When the U.S. captain refused, the British opened fire, killing 3 Americans and wounding 18.

Jefferson convinced Congress to declare an embargo, a ban on exporting products to other countries. He believed that the Embargo Act of 1807 would hurt Britain and the other European powers and force them to honor American neutrality. The embargo hurt America more than Britain, and in 1809 Congress lifted the ban on foreign trade—except with France and Britain.

TECUMSEH’S CONFEDERACY
Another source of trouble appeared in 1809, when General William Henry Harrison, the governor of the Indiana Territory, invited several Native American chiefs to Fort Wayne, Indiana, and persuaded them to sign away three million acres of tribal land to the U.S. government.

Not all chiefs gave in. Like Little Turtle and chiefs from other tribes, the Shawnee chief Tecumseh believed that the only way for Native Americans to protect their homeland against intruding white settlers was to form a confederacy, a united Native American nation.

Tecumseh was aided by his younger brother, known as the Prophet. Around 1805, the Prophet had started a reform movement within the Shawnee tribe to cast off all traces of the white “civilization,” including Christianity. Both the Prophet and Tecumseh warned that the Great Spirit was angry with all of the tribes who had abandoned their traditional practices and beliefs. The time had come to return to those beliefs, they urged, and to implore the aid of the Great Spirit in driving out the invaders.

More practical than his brother, Tecumseh was a brilliant strategist and a skillful diplomat. While continuing to press Harrison to withdraw from Native American land, Tecumseh began negotiations with the British for assistance in what seemed like an inevitable war with the Americans. Throughout 1810 and 1811, Tecumseh traveled throughout the Midwest and the South, trying to win followers to his confederacy. Unfortunately, many tribes had already accepted payment for their lands. Others were reluctant to give up tribal autonomy by joining the kind of confederacy that Tecumseh proposed.

THE WAR HAWKS
In November 1811, while Tecumseh was absent, his brother led the Shawnee in an attack on Harrison and his troops. Harrison struck back. On the banks of the Tippecanoe river, he burned the Shawnee capital known as Prophetstown to the ground. Harrison’s victory at what came to be known as the Battle of Tippecanoe made him a national hero, but his troops suffered heavy losses. When it was discovered that the Native American confederacy was using arms from British Canada, a group of young congressmen from the South and the West known as the war hawks called for war against Britain. Led by Senator John C. Calhoun of South Carolina and Henry Clay of Kentucky, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, the war hawks rallied behind their motto: “On to Canada!”

“Tecumseh argued that the Great Spirit gave this great land to his red children.”

TECUMSEH

Launching the New Nation  203
The War Brings Mixed Results

In the election of 1808, another Virginia Democratic-Republican—James Madison—coasted to victory against a weak Federalist opponent, Charles C. Pinckney. By the spring of 1812, President Madison had decided to go to war against Britain. Madison believed that Britain was trying to strangle American trade and cripple the American economy. Congress approved the war declaration in early June.

**THE WAR IN CANADA** Declaring war was one thing—but fighting it was another. The American military was unprepared for war. Detroit was captured by the British shortly after war was declared and the Americans suffered numerous setbacks, including a failed attempt to take Montreal. The following year, a fleet commanded by Oliver Hazard Perry defeated a British fleet on Lake Erie, and American soldiers retook Detroit and won several battles. Different Native American groups allied with British or U.S. forces, depending on relationships they had developed before the war. Tecumseh, like many Native Americans, had fought for the British with the hopes of continuing British aid in stopping U.S. expansion. The Shawnee leader was killed at the Battle of the Thames in 1813.

**THE WAR AT SEA** The war was an opportunity for the relatively young U.S. Navy to test its ability. Badly outnumbered with only 16 ships, the United States was aided by its three 44-gun frigates, or warships, the President, the United States, and the Constitution. Known for their speed and ability to sail close to enemy vessels and open fire, these ships sailed alone. Each scored victories against British vessels.

However, the superior numbers of the British navy began to tell. In November of 1812, the British government ordered a blockade of the Chesapeake and Delaware bays (see the map below). As the war progressed and U.S. frigates scored...
more victories against British ships, the blockade was extended along the east coast. By the end of 1813, most American ships were bottled up in port.

**BRITISH BURN THE WHITE HOUSE** By 1814, the British were raiding and burning towns all along the Atlantic coast. The redcoats brushed aside some hastily assembled American troops and entered Washington, D.C. In retaliation for the U.S. victory at the Battle of York, the capital of Upper Canada, in which U.S. forces burned the governor’s mansion and the legislative assembly buildings, the British burned the Capitol, the White House, and other public buildings. On August 24, Madison and other federal officials had to flee from their own capital.

**THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS** At the same time, a general from Tennessee named Andrew Jackson was winning a series of battles that gained him national fame. After a six months’ campaign involving four battles, Jackson defeated Native Americans of the Creek tribe at the battle of Horseshoe Bend in March of 1814. The Creeks had earlier been victorious at the battle of Fort Mims in which all but 36 of the fort’s 553 inhabitants were killed. Jackson’s victory at Horseshoe Bend destroyed the military power of Native Americans in the south.

Ironically, Jackson’s greatest victory came after the war was over. On January 8, 1815, Jackson’s troops defeated a superior British force at the Battle of New Orleans. Hundreds of British troops died, while just a handful of Americans lost their lives.

**THE TREATY OF GHENT** Unknown to Jackson, British and American diplomats had already signed a peace agreement. The Treaty of Ghent, signed on Christmas Eve 1814, declared an armistice, or end to the fighting. Although it did not address the issues of impressment or neutral shipping rights, Americans were eager for peace and welcomed the treaty.

Within a few years, the United States and Great Britain were able to reach agreement on many of the issues left open at Ghent. In 1815, a commercial treaty reopened trade between the two countries. In 1817, the Rush-Bagot agreement limited the number of warships on the Great Lakes. In 1818, a British-American commission set the northern boundary of the Louisiana Territory at the 49th parallel as far west as the Rocky Mountains. The two nations then agreed to a ten-year joint occupation of the Oregon Territory. But at home, Americans were unable to resolve differences that had already begun to divide the nation.
### 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.

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### RELATED CASES

- **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.

CONNECT TO HISTORY

1. Comparing Read encyclopedia articles about another Marshall Court decision, such as Fletcher v. Peck, Cohens v. Virginia, or Gibbons v. Ogden. 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.

CONNECT TO TODAY

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.
TERMS & NAMES
For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its connection to the new United States.

1. Alexander Hamilton
2. Cabinet
3. neutrality
5. John Marshall
6. Louisiana Purchase
7. Meriwether Lewis
8. embargo
9. Tecumseh
10. Andrew Jackson

MAIN IDEAS
Use your notes and the information in the chapter to answer the following questions.

Washington Heads the New Government
(pages 182–187)
1. What were the first steps taken by the Washington administration in building a new government?
2. Why did President Washington want both Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton to be among his closest advisers?
3. Why was the Whiskey Rebellion a significant event in the early days of the new government?

Foreign Affairs Trouble the Nation
(pages 190–196)
4. What were three major international issues at this time, and how did the United States respond to them?
5. How did the United States manage to stay out of war during this period?
6. How did the expanding nation deal with Native Americans?

Jefferson Alters the Nation’s Course
(pages 197–201)
7. What were some of the accomplishments of Jefferson’s first administration?
8. How did the Louisiana Purchase change the United States?

The War of 1812
(pages 202–205)
9. What events led to the War of 1812?
10. What did the Treaty of Ghent accomplish?

CRITICAL THINKING
1. CONTRASTING Create a chart listing some of the more important differences in the beliefs and goals of the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans. Whose ideas appeal to you more?

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<th>Federalists</th>
<th>Democratic-Republicans</th>
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2. HYPOTHESIZING What if you had been your current age in 1800? What might have been some of the advantages and disadvantages of growing up in this period? Write two paragraphs describing what you like and dislike about the U.S. at that time. Provide examples from the text in your answer.
Use the cartoon and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer the question below.

1. The British cartoon above entitled “The Fall of Washington—or Maddy [Madison] in full flight” was published in 1814. In it, a character exclaims, “The great Washington fought for Liberty, but we are fighting for shadows.” The character is contrasting the Revolutionary War and —
   - A  Shays’s Rebellion.
   - B  the XYZ Affair.
   - C  the War of 1812.
   - D  Washington’s declaration of neutrality.

**ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT**

1. **INTERACT WITH HISTORY**
   - Recall your discussion of the question on page 181:
   
   **How can a government truly represent all of its citizens?**

   Imagine that it is now 1814, and one of your former students has written to ask your opinion about how the United States has grown as a nation. Write a response in which you mention events from the chapter that show key challenges and achievements that helped to shape the young republic.

2. **LEARNING FROM MEDIA**
   - View the American Stories video, “Recruited by Lewis and Clark: Patrick Gass Chronicles the Journey West.” Discuss the following questions in a small group; then do the activity.
   - What were some of the roles played by Native Americans in the journey of Lewis and Clark?
   - Provide examples that stand out for you.
   - What aspect of the journey do you think that Patrick Gass found most difficult? Why?

   **Cooperative Learning Activity** Who do you think are the explorers of our own day? Prepare a report and present it to the class.