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THOMAS JEFFERSON



3d PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES
IN OFFICE FROM 1801 TO 1809

BORN April 13, 1743, at Shadwell, Va.

HIGHER EDUCATION College of William and Mary,
1760-1762.

RELIGION Unitarian.

OCCUPATION Lawyer, planter, public official.

MARRIAGE Jan. 1, 1772, to Martha Wayles Skelton.

CHILDREN Martha (1772-1836); Jane Randolph
(1774-1775); infant son (1777);
Mary (1778-1804); Lucy (1780-1781);
Lucy (1782-1785).

KNOWN AS Man of the People; Sage of
Monticello.

POLITICAL PARTY Considered a founder of the
Democratic party (then called
Republican, or Democratic-Republican).

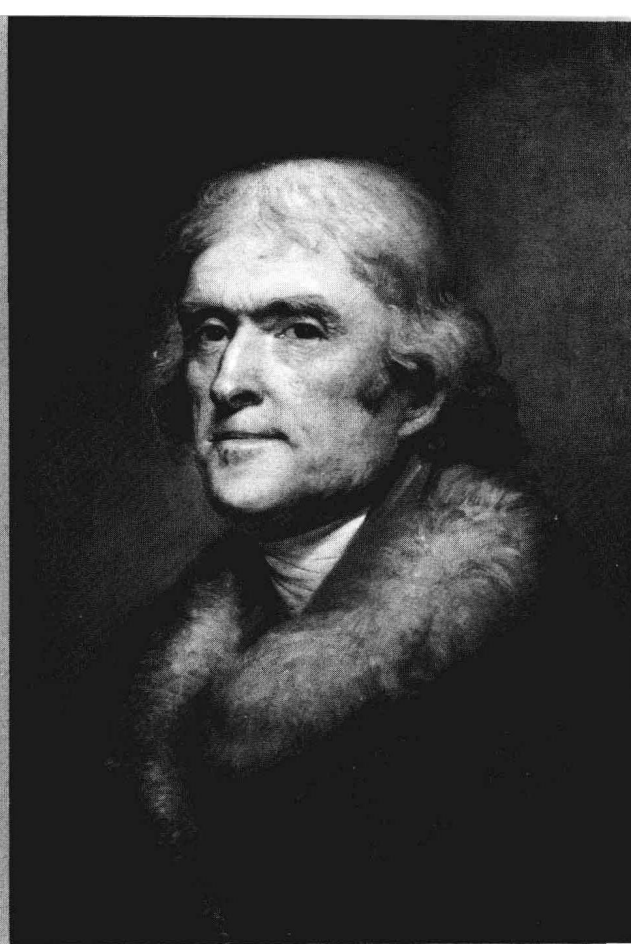
**LEGAL RESIDENCE
WHEN ELECTED** Virginia.

**POSITION WHEN
ELECTED** Vice President of the United States.

**PRINCIPAL
WRITINGS** Declaration of Independence; Notes
on the State of Virginia; Kentucky
Resolutions; scientific papers.

DIED July 4, 1826, at Monticello.

BURIAL PLACE Monticello, near Charlottesville, Va.



THE NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY

JEFFERSON, Thomas (1743–1826), 3d president of the United States. As the author of the Declaration of Independence and the Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom, he is probably the most conspicuous champion of political and spiritual freedom in his country's history. He voiced the aspirations of the new nation in matchless phrase, and one may doubt if any other American has been so often quoted. As a public official—legislator, diplomat, and executive—he served the province and commonwealth of Virginia and the young American republic almost 40 years.

While his services as a Revolutionary patriot have been honored by his countrymen with only slight dissent, his later and more controversial political activities have been variously interpreted. Believing that the government was not being conducted in the spirit of 1776, he turned against the administration in Washington's second term and remained in opposition during the presidency of John Adams. Jefferson, who was president from 1801 to 1809, was the acknowledged head of his political party, and his election to the highest office has been interpreted as a vindication of the right of political opposition. His election checked in the United States the tide of political reaction that was sweeping the Western world, and it furthered the development of political democracy. Throughout his life he sought to do that, though the term he generally used was republicanism.

Opinions differ about his conduct of foreign affairs as president. He acquired the vast province of Louisiana and maintained neutrality in a world of war, but his policies failed to safeguard neutral rights at sea and imposed hardships at

home. As a result, his administration reached its nadir as it ended. Until his last year as president he exercised leadership over his party that was to be matched by no other 19th century president, and he enjoyed remarkable popularity. He was rightly hailed as the "Man of the People," because he sought to conduct the government in the popular interest, rather than in the interest of any privileged group, and, insofar as possible, in accordance with the people's will.

He was a tall and vigorous man, not particularly impressive in person but amiable, once his original stiffness wore off. He was habitually tactful and notably respectful of the opinions and personalities of others, though he had slight tolerance of those he believed unfaithful to republicanism. A devoted family man who set great store by privacy, he built his house upon a mountain, but he did not look down on people. A distinguished architect and naturalist in his own right, a remarkable linguist, a noted bibliophile, and the father of the University of Virginia, he was the chief patron of learning and the arts in his country in his day. And, with the possible exception of Benjamin Franklin, he was the closest American approximation of the universal man.

EARLY CAREER

Jefferson was born at Shadwell, his father's home in Albemarle county, Va., on April 13 (April 2, Old Style), 1743. His father, Peter Jefferson, a man of legendary strength, was a successful planter and surveyor who gained minor title to fame as an explorer and mapmaker. His prominence in his own locality is attested by the



THOMAS JEFFERSON MEMORIAL FOUNDATION

Martha Randolph, Jefferson's daughter, served as White House hostess, Mrs. Jefferson having died in 1782.

fact that he served as a burgess and as county lieutenant. Peter's son later held the same offices. Through his mother, Jane Randolph, a member of one of the most famous Virginia families, Thomas was related to many of the most prominent people in the province.

Besides being well born, Thomas Jefferson was well educated. In small private schools, notably that of James Maury, he was thoroughly grounded in the classics. He attended the College of William and Mary—completing the course in 1762—where Dr. William Small taught him mathematics and introduced him to science. He associated intimately with the liberal-minded Lt. Gov. Francis Fauquier, and read law (1762–1767) with George Wythe, the greatest law teacher of his generation in Virginia.

Jefferson became unusually learned in the law. He was admitted to the bar in 1767 and practiced until 1774, when the courts were closed by the American Revolution. He was a successful lawyer, though his professional income was only a supplement. He had inherited a considerable landed estate from his father, and doubled it by a happy marriage on Jan. 1, 1772, to Martha Wayles Skelton. However, his father-in-law's estate imposed a burdensome debt on Jefferson. He began building Monticello before his marriage, but his mansion was not completed in its present form until a generation later. See MONTICELLO.

Jefferson's lifelong emphasis on local government grew directly from his own experience. He served as magistrate and as county lieutenant of Albemarle county. Elected to the House of Burgesses when he was 25, he served there from 1769 to 1774, showing himself to be an effective committeeman and skillful draftsman, though not an able speaker.

The Revolutionary Era. From the beginning of the struggle with the mother country, Jefferson stood with the more advanced Patriots, grounding his position on a wide knowledge of English history and political philosophy. His most notable early contribution to the cause of the Patriots was his powerful pamphlet *A Summary View of the Rights of British America* (1774), originally written for presentation to the Virginia convention of that year. In this he emphasized natural rights, including that of emigration, and denied parliamentary authority over the colonies, recognizing no tie with the mother country except the king.

As a member of the Continental Congress (1775–1776), Jefferson was chosen in 1776 to draft the Declaration of Independence. He summarized current revolutionary philosophy in a brief paragraph that has been regarded ever since as a charter of American and universal liberties. He presented to the world the case of the Patriots in a series of burning charges against the king. In the light of modern scholarship some of the charges require modification. But there is a timeless quality in the philosophical section of the Declaration, which proclaims that all men are equal in rights, regardless of birth, wealth, or status, and that government is the servant, not the master, of human beings. The Declaration alone would entitle Jefferson to enduring fame.

Desiring to be closer to his family and also hoping to translate his philosophy of human rights into legal institutions in his own state, Jefferson left Congress in the autumn of 1776 and served in the Virginia legislature until his election as governor in 1779. This was the most creative period of his revolutionary statesmanship. His earlier proposals for broadening the electorate and making the system of representation more equitable had failed, and the times permitted no action against slavery except that of shutting off the foreign slave trade. But he succeeded in ridding the land system of feudal vestiges, such as entail and primogeniture, and he was the moving spirit in the disestablishment of the church. In 1779, with George Wythe and Edmund Pendleton, he drew a highly significant report on the revising of the laws. His most famous single bills are the Bill for Establishing Religious Freedom (adopted in 1786) and the Bill for the More General Diffusion of Knowledge, which was never adopted as he drew it. His fundamental purposes were to destroy artificial privilege of every sort, to promote social mobility, and to make way for the natural aristocracy of talent and virtue, which should provide leadership for a free society.

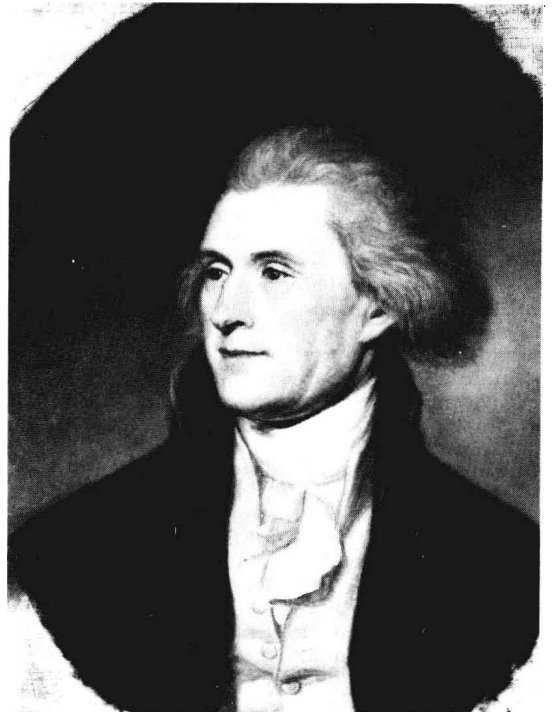
As governor from 1779 to 1781, Jefferson had little power, and he suffered inevitable discredit when the British invaders overran Virginia. An inquiry into his conduct during his last year in office was voted by the legislature after his retirement in June 1781. He was fully vindicated by the next legislature, but these charges were afterward exaggerated by political enemies, and he was hounded by them to some extent throughout his national career. The most important immediate effect of his troubles was to create in his own mind a distaste for public life that persisted in acute form until the death of his wife on Sept. 6, 1782, which reconciled him to a return to office. He also acquired an aversion to controversy and censure from which he never wholly recovered.

During this brief private interval (1781–1783) he began to compile his *Notes on the State of Virginia*, which was first published when he was in France (1785). This work was described at the time by competent authority as “a most excellent natural history not merely of Virginia but of North America.” Undertaken in response to a series of queries by the secretary of the French legation, it was ostensibly an account of the resources, productions, government, and society of a single state. But it spanned a continent and contained reflections on religion, slavery, and the Indians. It afterward appeared in many editions and was the literary foundation of his deserved reputation as a scientist.

In the Continental Congress (1783–1784), Jefferson’s most notable services were connected with the adoption of the decimal system of coinage, which later as secretary of state he tried vainly to extend to weights and measures, and with the Ordinance of 1784. Though not adopted, the latter foreshadowed many features of the famous Ordinance of 1787, which established the Northwest Territory. Jefferson went so far as to advocate the prohibition of slavery in all the territories.

Minister to France. Jefferson’s stay in France (1784–1789), where he was first a commissioner to negotiate commercial treaties and then Benjamin Franklin’s successor as minister, was in many ways the richest period of his life. He gained genuine commercial concessions from the French, negotiated an important consular convention in 1788, and served the interests of his own weak government with diligence and skill. He was confirmed in his opinion that France was a natural friend of the United States, and Britain at this stage a natural rival, and thus his foreign policy assumed the orientation it was to maintain until the eve of the Louisiana Purchase. The publication of his book on Virginia symbolized his unofficial service of information to the French. His services to his own countrymen were exemplified by the books, the seeds and plants, the statues and architectural models, and the scientific information that he sent home. His stay in Europe contributed greatly to that universality of spirit and diversity of achievement in which he was equaled by no other American statesman, except possibly Franklin.

Toward the end of his mission he reported with scrupulous care the unfolding revolution in

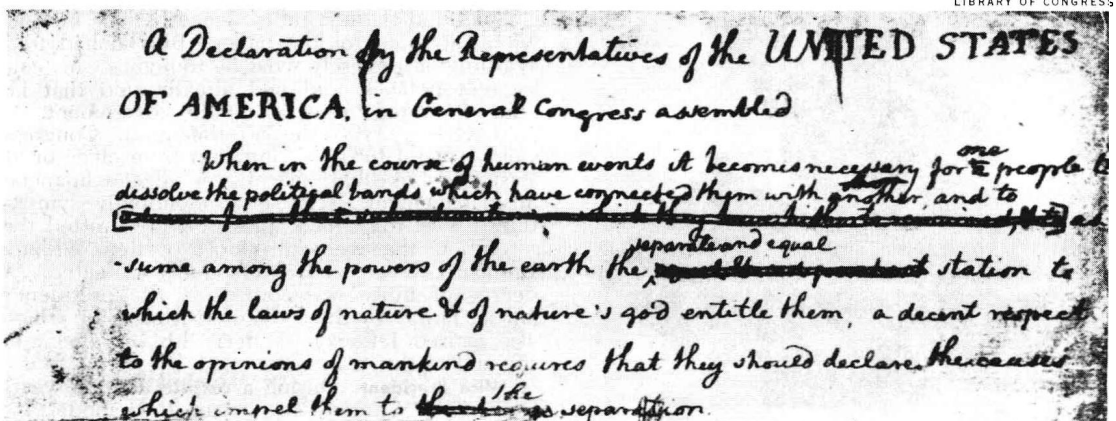


INDEPENDENCE NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK COLLECTION

Jefferson was secretary of state when Charles Willson Peale painted this portrait of him (about 1791).

France. His personal part in it was slight, and such advice as he gave was moderate. Doubting the readiness of the people for self-government of the American type, he now favored a limited monarchy for France, and he cautioned his liberal friends not to risk the loss of their gains by going too fast. Though always aware of the importance of French developments in the worldwide struggle for greater freedom and happiness, he tended to stress this more after he returned home and perceived the dangers of political reaction in his own country. Eventually he was repelled by the excesses of the French Revolution, and he thoroughly disapproved of it when it passed into an openly imperialistic phase under Napoleon. But insofar as it represented a revolt

A draft of the Declaration of Independence in Jefferson’s hand. It was amended by John Adams and Franklin.



LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

against despotism, he continued to believe that its spirit could never die.

Because of his absence in Europe, Jefferson had no direct part in the framing or ratification of the Constitution of the United States, and at first the document aroused his fears. His chief objections were that it did not expressly safeguard the rights of individuals, and that the unlimited eligibility of the president for reelection would make it possible for him to become a king. He became sufficiently satisfied after he learned that a bill of rights would be provided and after he reflected that there would be no danger of monarchy under George Washington.

Secretary of State. Although his fears of monarchical tendencies remained and colored his attitude in later partisan struggles, it was as a friend of the new government that he accepted Washington's invitation to become secretary of state.

During Jefferson's service in this post from 1790 to 1793, Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, defeated the movement for commercial discrimination against Britain, which Jefferson favored. Hamilton, also, connived with the British minister George Hammond to nullify Jefferson's efforts in 1792 to gain observance of the terms of peace from the British, and especially to dislodge them from the northwest posts. Jeffer-

son's policy was not pro-French, but it seemed anti-British. Hamilton was distinctly pro-British, largely for financial reasons, and he became more so when general war broke out in Europe and ideology was clearly involved. In 1793, Jefferson wanted the French Revolution to succeed against its external foes, but he also recognized that the interests of his own country demanded a policy of neutrality. Such a policy was adopted, to the dissatisfaction of many strong friends of democracy in America, and was executed so fairly as to win the reluctant praise of the British.

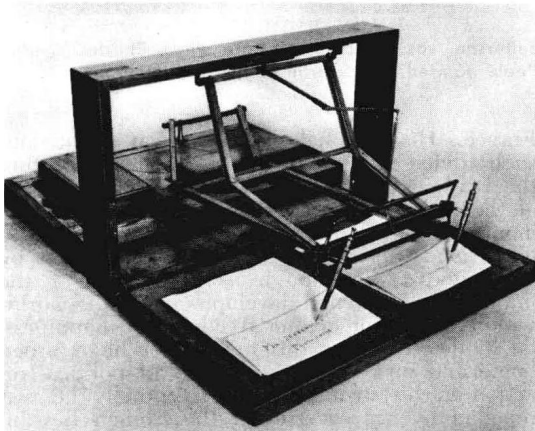
Jefferson was greatly embarrassed by the indiscretions of the fiery French minister, Edmond Charles Genêt, who arrived in Washington in the spring of 1793, but he skillfully brought about Genêt's recall and avoided a breach with the revolutionary government of his country.

Jefferson helped Hamilton gain congressional consent to the assumption of state debts, for which the location of the federal capital on the Potomac was the political return. His growing objections to the Hamiltonian financial system were partly owing to his belief that the treasury was catering to commercial and financial groups, not agricultural, but he also believed that Hamilton was building up his own political power by creating ties of financial interest and was corrupting Congress. The issue between the two secretaries was sharply joined by 1791, when the Bank of the United States was established. They gave to the president their rival interpretations of the Constitution in this connection. The victory at the time and in the long run was with Hamilton's doctrine of liberal construction, or interpretation, of the Constitution and his assertion of broad national power. But Jefferson's general distrust of power and his reliance on basic law as a safeguard have enduring value.

By late 1792 or 1793 the opponents of Hamiltonianism constituted a fairly definite national party, calling itself Republican. Jefferson's recognized leadership of this group can be more easily attributed to his official standing and his political philosophy than to his partisan activities. In the summer and autumn of 1792, by means of anonymous newspaper articles, Hamilton sought to drive Jefferson from the government. The alleged justification was the campaign being waged against Hamilton by the editor of the *National Gazette*, Philip Freneau. Jefferson had given Freneau minor employment as a translator for the State Department, but he claimed that he never brought influence to bear on him, and there is no evidence that he himself wrote anything for the paper. But he had told Washington precisely what he thought of his colleague's policies, and had already said that he himself wanted to get out of the government.

Early in 1793 the Virginians in Congress vainly sought to drive Hamilton from office or at least to rebuke him sharply for alleged financial mismanagement. Jefferson undoubtedly sympathized with this attack and probably drafted the resolutions that were introduced by Rep. William Branch Giles (Va.) and soundly defeated. A degree of unity was forced on the president's official family by the foreign crisis of 1793, which also caused Jefferson to delay his retirement to the end of the year.

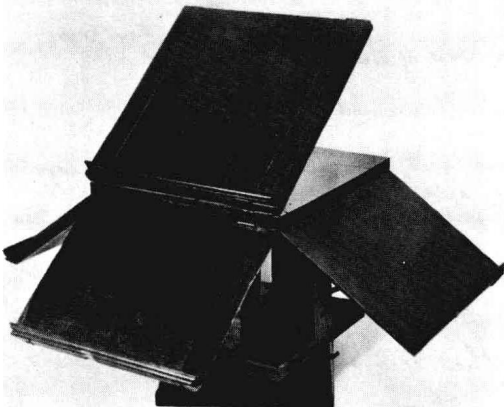
Vice President. During a respite of three years from public duties, he began to remodel his



THOMAS JEFFERSON MEMORIAL FOUNDATION

An accomplished inventor, Jefferson devised the simple copying machine (polygraph) above: when one pen was moved, the other moved in exactly the same way. Jefferson also invented the revolving music stand below.

THOMAS JEFFERSON MEMORIAL FOUNDATION





UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

Monticello, Jefferson's home in Albemarle county, Va., was designed by him in classical revival style.

house at Monticello and interested himself greatly in agriculture, claiming that he had wholly lost the "little spice of ambition" he had once had. He was outraged by Washington's attack on the Democratic societies, which were identified with his party, and by what he regarded as the surrender to the British in Jay's Treaty, but at this stage he was playing little part in politics. Nonetheless, he was supported by the Republicans for president in 1796, and, running second to John Adams by three electoral votes, he became vice president. His *Manual of Parliamentary Practice* (1801) was a result of his experience as the presiding officer over the Senate. His papers on the extinct megalonyx and on the moldboard of a plow invented by him attested to his scientific interests and attainments. These papers were presented to the American Philosophical Society, of which he became president in 1797.

A private letter of his to his friend Philip Mazzei, published that year, severely criticized Federalist leaders and was interpreted as an attack on Washington. Jefferson's partisan activities increased during his vice presidency. He deplored the Federalist exploitation of a dangerous quarrel with France, although Jefferson's own sympathy with France had declined.

The notorious Alien and Sedition Acts were the principal cause of Jefferson's disapproval of the Adams administration. Jefferson's grounds were both philosophical and partisan. The historic Republican protest against laws that attempted to suppress freedom of speech and destroy political opposition was made in the Kentucky and Virginia resolutions (1798). Jefferson wrote the former, as James Madison did the latter. Jefferson's authorship was not known at the time. In the Kentucky Resolutions he carried his states'-rights doctrines to their most extreme point in his career. In invoking the authority of the states against laws that he regarded as unconstitutional, his resolutions were in the tradition that finally led to nullification and secession. But they were also in the best tradition of civil liberties and human rights.

PRESIDENT—FIRST TERM

Jefferson's victory over John Adams in the presidential election of 1800 can be partially explained by the dissension among the Federalists, but the policies of the government were unpopular, and as a party the Federalists were now much less representative of the country than were the Republicans. Jefferson's own title to the presidency was not established for some weeks, because he was accidentally tied with his running mate, Aaron Burr, under the workings of the original electoral system. The election was thrown into the House of Representatives, where the Federalists voted for Burr through many indecisive ballots. Finally, enough of them abstained to permit the obvious will of the majority to be carried out. See also JEFFERSON-BURR ELECTION DISPUTE.

Jefferson later said that the ousting of the Federalists and the accession of his own party constituted a "revolution," but that statement was hyperbole. He was speaking of the principles of the government rather than of its form, and his major concern was to restore the spirit of 1776. He regarded himself as more loyal to the U. S. Constitution than his loose-constructionist foes were, though in fact he was less a strict constructionist in practice than in theory. Although he had objected to features of Hamilton's financial system, he had no intention of upsetting it now that it was firmly established. Instead, the purpose he had in mind, and was to be highly successful in carrying out, was to obviate some of the grave dangers he saw in the system by reducing the national debt.

Jefferson's accession to the presidency is notable in American history because it marked the first transfer of national authority from one political group to another, and it is especially significant that, despite Federalist obstructionism for a time, the transition was effected by peaceful and strictly constitutional means. Jefferson himself emphasized this in his conciliatory inaugural address. These events set a precedent of acqui-

escence in the will of the majority. The new president described this as a "sacred principle" that must prevail, but he added that, to be rightful, it must be reasonable and that the rights of minorities must be protected. His accession removed the threat of counterrevolution from his country. The government he conducted, in its spirit of tolerance and humanity, was without parallel in his world.

His first term, most of it in a period of relative international calm, was distinctly successful. He was the undisputed leader of a party that had acquired cohesion during its years in opposition. In James Madison as secretary of state and Albert Gallatin as secretary of the treasury, he had lieutenants of high competence whom he treated as peers but whose loyalty to him bordered on reverence. By virtually ruling himself out of the party, Vice President Aaron Burr relieved Jefferson of a potential rival. Working through the Republican leaders in Congress, whom he treated with the utmost respect, Jefferson exercised influence on that body that was unexampled in previous presidential history and was to be rarely matched in later administrations. Because of his own commitment, and that of most of his countrymen, to the doctrine of division of powers between the executive and legislative branches, his leadership, except in foreign affairs, was indirect and generally unadmitted. He also shared with most of his fellows a rather negative concept of the functions of the federal government in the domestic sphere. The policy of economy and tax reduction that the favorable world situation permitted him to follow served to reduce rather than increase the burdens of his countrymen, and it contributed no little to his popularity.

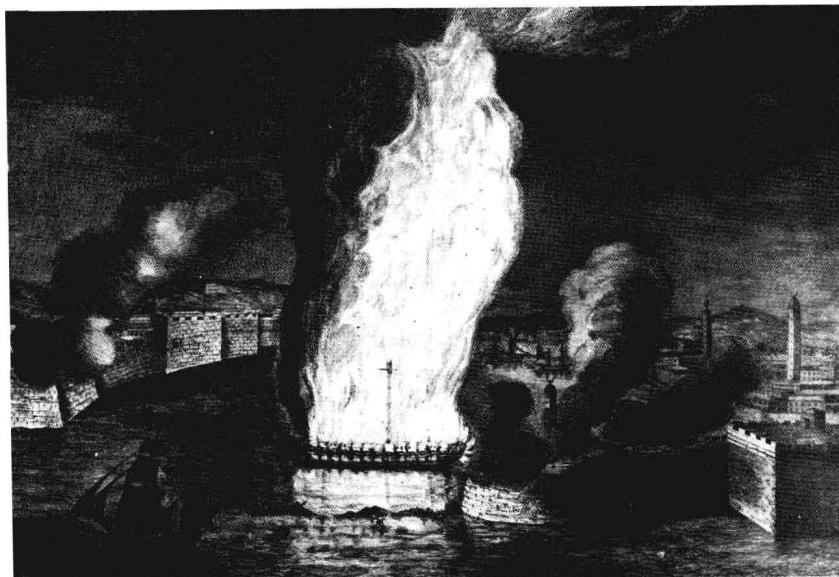
Dispute with the Judiciary. Jefferson restored the party balance in the civil service, but he was relatively unsuccessful in his moves against the judiciary, which had been reinforced by fresh Federalist appointees at the very end of the Adams administration. In the eyes of Jefferson and the Republicans, the federal judiciary constituted a branch of the opposing party and could be expected to obstruct the administration

in every possible way. He treated as null and void late appointments by Adams that seemed of doubtful legality, and the Republicans repealed the Judiciary Act of 1801 with his full approval. But he was rebuked by Chief Justice John Marshall in the famous case of *Marbury v. Madison* (1803) for withholding the commission of a late-hour appointee as justice of the peace. The effort to remove partisan judges by impeachment was a virtual failure, and the Federalists remained entrenched in the judiciary, though they became less actively partisan.

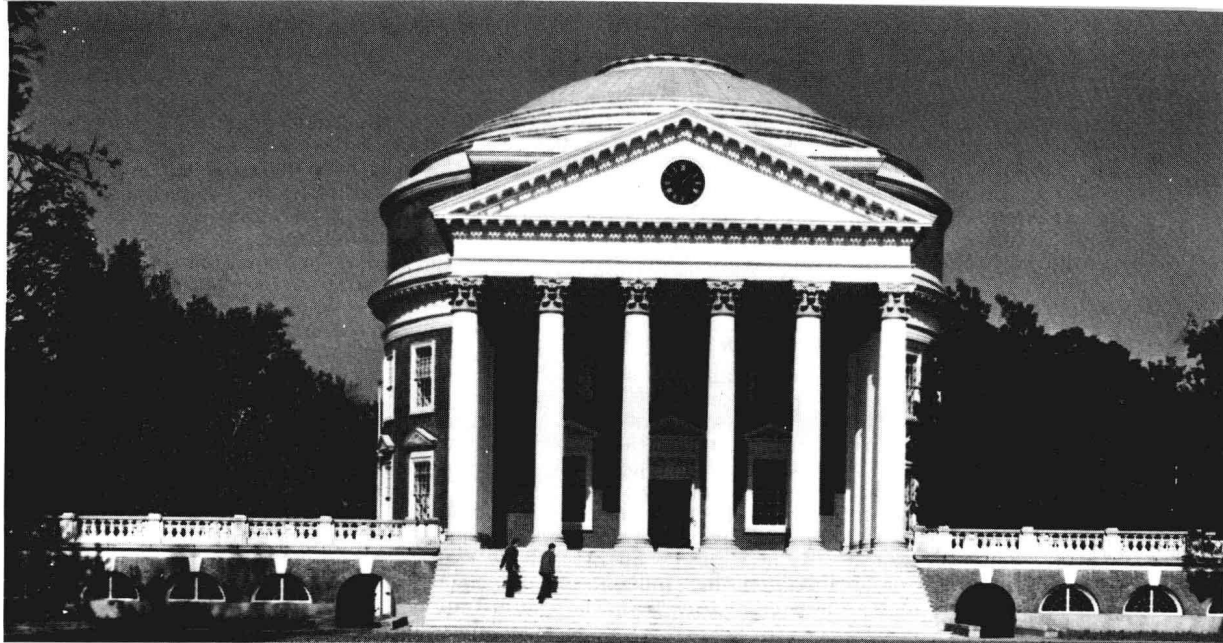
The Louisiana Purchase. These partial political failures were more than compensated by the purchase of Louisiana in 1803, the most notable achievement of Jefferson's presidency. His concern for the free navigation of the Mississippi River had caused him, while secretary of state, to assume a more belligerent tone toward Spain, which controlled the mouth of the river, than toward any other nation. The retrocession of the province of Louisiana from Spain to France, now powerful and aggressive under Napoleon, aroused his fears and, for the first time in his career, caused his diplomatic friendship to veer toward the British.

The acquisition of an imperial province, rather than the mouth of the river, was a fortunate accident that added the West to the American Union. The treaty that Robert R. Livingston and James Monroe sent home aroused constitutional scruples in Jefferson's mind, which he expressed privately. Because this vast acquisition of territory would inevitably change the character of the Union, it seemed to him that it should be authorized by a constitutional amendment. But the process of amendment was painfully slow, and the treaty had to be ratified by a specified date. Napoleon, who was thought by some to have already repented this transaction, could not have been expected to tolerate any departure from its terms. Recognizing that this was no time for constitutional purism, the president yielded to his friends, while strict constructionist arguments were taken up ineffectually by the New England Federalists. Nearly everybody else enthusiastically approved of the acquisition.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



During the Barbary Wars against the pirates, Jefferson sent the tiny U. S. Navy to bombard Tripoli. The American frigate *Philadelphia*, while stuck on a reef, was captured by the Tripolitans and was being refitted when the Americans slipped aboard and set her afire.



FLOURNOY, VIRGINIA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

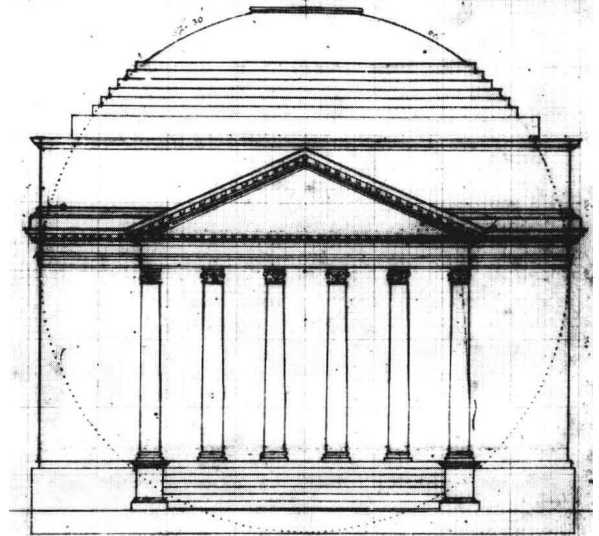
The Rotunda, in classical style, is one of the original buildings at the University of Virginia, all of which Jefferson designed. His sketch (right) for the Rotunda shows the influence of the Pantheon in Rome.

In May 1801 the Pasha of the piratical state of Tripoli, dissatisfied with his tribute, declared war on the United States. Jefferson ordered a naval squadron to the Mediterranean Sea to blockade Tripoli. The bizarre conflict that ensued served as a training school for the American Navy, and the relatively favorable treaty of 1805 justified Jefferson's resort to force.

Personal Attacks on Jefferson. During his first term Jefferson was subjected to attacks on his personal character that have rarely, if ever, been matched in presidential history. In 1802 sensational charges against him were publicized by James Thomson Callender, a dissolute and unscrupulous journalist whom he had unwisely befriended and who had turned on him when not given a lucrative federal appointment. These charges were gleefully taken up by Jefferson's political enemies, but he maintained his policy of making no public reply to personal attacks. The abuse he suffered from newspapers weakened his confidence in a free press. He believed that his triumphant reelection in 1804 justified his toleration of his critics and reflected approval of his public conduct.

But the Federalists in their desperation continued to publicize the stories Callender had told, and in 1805 in a private letter Jefferson admitted that, while unmarried, he had made improper advances to the wife of a friend. For this he had made honorable amends, and he denied all the other charges. There appears to be no evidence that he ever again referred to them, and he undoubtedly believed that the best answer to them was the whole tenor of his life.

From an early stage in his public career, Jefferson had been subjected to attacks on religious grounds. While he kept his opinions regarding religion very much to himself, believing that they were a private concern, his insistence on the complete separation of church and state was well known. This gained him the support of "dissenting" groups, notably the Baptists, but it aroused bitter opposition among Congregationalists in



UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

those parts of New England where the clergy and magistrates still constituted a virtual establishment. From the presidential campaign of 1796 at least, New England clergymen denounced him from their pulpits as an atheist and as anti-Christ.

Unlike Thomas Paine, who attacked all sects, Jefferson attacked none, and he contributed to many churches, but he was distinctly anticlerical and was as opposed to absolutism in priests and presbyters as in kings. In a private letter to Dr. Benjamin Rush in 1800, he said: "I have sworn upon the altar of God eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the mind of man." That assertion is properly recognized as one of his most characteristic.

In another strictly private communication to Dr. Rush, made in his first term as president, Jefferson revealed his own religious opinions. He believed in God and immortality and was a Unitarian in theology, though he rarely used the term. Comparing the ethical teachings of Jesus with those of the ancient philosophers and the Jews, he expressed the highest appreciation of the former. He began at this time, and finished

in old age, a compilation of extracts from the Gospels in English, Greek, Latin, and French. He carefully excluded miracles from the compilation. Entitled *The Life and Morals of Jesus of Nazareth*, it remained unpublished until the 20th century. While opposed to what he regarded as the corruptions of Christianity, he described himself as a Christian, and he undoubtedly sought to follow the ethical precepts of Jesus.

PRESIDENT—SECOND TERM

On both the domestic and foreign fronts Jefferson encountered greater difficulties in his second term than in his first. But he was relatively successful at home during most of it. Factionalism increased among Republicans. But the revolt of John Randolph, an uncompromising strict constructionist and formerly the Republican leader in the House of Representatives, was contained. Until the last session of Congress in his presidency, Jefferson maintained his influence over that body and his undisputed leadership of his party.

The Burr Conspiracy. Meanwhile, the conspiracy of former Vice President Aaron Burr was foiled. It is still uncertain whether that adventurer proposed to separate the western states from the Union or to invade Mexico, but his expedition down the Mississippi River was unquestionably a threat to national unity and domestic security. Heeding the warning of Gen. James Wilkinson, the governor of the Louisiana Territory, Jefferson took steps in the fall of 1806 that led to the seizure of most of Burr's boats on the Ohio River and his later apprehension on the Mississippi. Burr's trial for treason and afterward for a misdemeanor, in the federal circuit court presided over by John Marshall, became a fiasco when Marshall's rulings made conviction impossible.

Jefferson erred gravely in saying in advance that Burr's guilt was beyond dispute, but his conduct in connection with the trial did not support the charge of persecution made by Burr's lawyers and the Federalists. Jefferson was more justly criticized for his support of Wilkinson, to whom he was grateful for the exposure of the conspiracy, but whose actions against alleged supporters of Burr in New Orleans was high-handed.

Jefferson's persistent efforts to acquire West Florida, which he continued to claim as part of the Louisiana Purchase, may be regarded as an exercise in futility. But he was properly concerned to round out the territory of the United States, and he contributed significantly to its exploration. In his first term he projected the

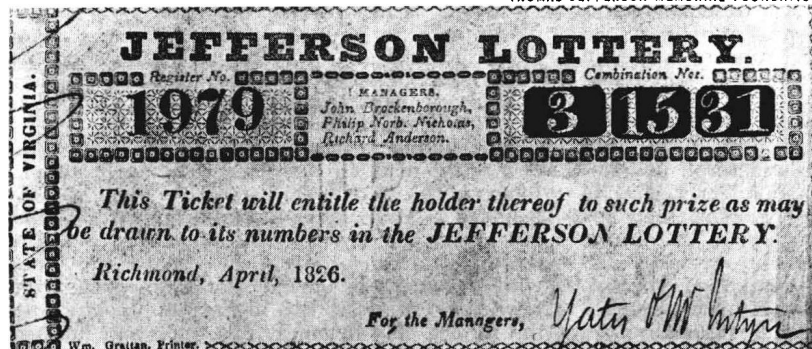
expedition to the Pacific that was concluded by Lewis and Clark during his second term. Other expeditions that he sent out failed or had slight geographical and scientific significance, but his title as the chief presidential patron of exploration remains unchallenged.

The Embargo. The situation of the United States as a neutral nation became increasingly hazardous as the conflict between Britain and France, which embraced the whole Western world, increased in ruthlessness and desperation. Both powers trampled on neutral rights, but Britain, because it commanded the sea, was the greater offender. Despite reiterated protests by the U. S. government, the British policy of impressing American seamen was pursued with increased vigor. The attack of the British man-of-war *Leopard* on the American frigate *Chesapeake* in 1807 could have been regarded as an act of war. It was the subject of negotiations, but proper atonement for it was not made in Jefferson's administration.

American commerce was caught in the cross-fire between British Orders in Council and Napoleonic decrees. Recognizing the impossibility of coping with both blockades, but undispensed to take sides in this conflict and convinced that peace was in the best interest of his young country, Jefferson and his government sought to safeguard American life and shipping and to bring pressure on the rival powers by suspending commerce. The embargo, adopted in December 1807 and strengthened by later legislation, was regarded by Jefferson as the only alternative to war and submission. The act barred all exports to Britain and France. But it had less effect abroad than had been expected and caused economic difficulty at home. This was especially true in New England, heavily reliant on commerce, where it was strongly opposed from the outset by pro-British Federalists and was resisted more extensively and more successfully than elsewhere.

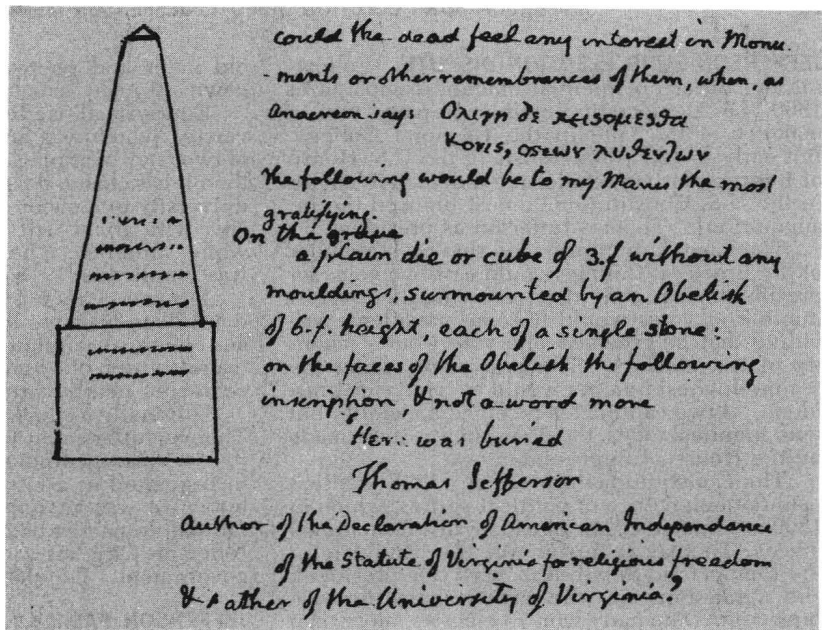
In the effort to enforce the embargo, the government was drawn step by step into infringements on the liberties of individuals that were inconsistent with Jefferson's most cherished principles. He exercised no authority that was not vested in him by law, and, distrustful of power as he was, he did not seize it for its own sake. He believed that individuals should accept financial sacrifice on patriotic grounds. Many did so, but there was little glamor in this commercial warfare and the negative heroism it required. Toward the end of his administration, he assented to the embargo's repeal, to save the Union, he said. A more moderate measure was adopted, but it did not avert war with Britain in 1812.

THOMAS JEFFERSON MEMORIAL FOUNDATION



When Jefferson fell into debt, a public lottery was initiated to assist him. But friends raised some \$16,000 themselves.

Jefferson designed the simple monument for his grave. The inscription that he requested made no reference to his presidency.



LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

RETIREMENT

Jefferson, meanwhile, was succeeded as president in 1809 by his loyal lieutenant, James Madison. During the last 17 years of his life, Jefferson remained in Virginia. His failures tended to be forgotten, and as the "Sage of Monticello" he engaged in a vast and rich correspondence with John Adams and others. He abandoned newspapers for Tacitus and Thucydides, he said, and until his dying day he feasted on classical writings. He read them in the original, as he did authors in French, Spanish, and Italian. Toward the end of the War of 1812, he sold his magnificent collection of books to the government for the Library of Congress, of which he has been regarded ever since as the virtual founder.

Jefferson resigned the presidency of the American Philosophical Society, which he had held for many years, but maintained his interest in all branches of human learning. He kept charts of the temperature. He personally directed the operations of his mills and farms into his 70's. He never ceased his efforts to advance agriculture. Jefferson's last great public service was the founding of the University of Virginia, which was chartered in 1819. He inspired the legislative campaign for a university, got it located in his own county, planned the buildings, and served as the first rector.

He gave much attention to the education of his grandchildren, chiefly the offspring of his daughter Martha and Thomas Mann Randolph. His daughter Maria, who married John W. Eppes, died during his first term as president. For her son Francis, he built a gem of a house at Poplar Forest in Bedford county. This served him as a retreat from the host of visitors at Monticello.

Jefferson had long been troubled by debt, and the failure of a friend whose note he had endorsed brought him to virtual bankruptcy. But he was rich in honor, friendship, and domestic happiness when he died at Monticello on July 4, 1826 just hours before John Adams, on the 50th anniversary of the Declaration of Independence.

DUMAS MALONE, *University of Virginia*
Author of "Jefferson and His Time"

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JEFFERSON-BURR ELECTION DISPUTE. Following the bitter presidential election campaign of 1800 the Democratic-Republican party won a majority of the vote in the Electoral College. But early in 1801, Federalists in the U.S. House of Representatives, exploiting a defective clause in the U.S. Constitution, almost blocked the inauguration of Thomas Jefferson as president.

The Constitution provided that each member of the Electoral College would cast two votes for president. The candidate receiving the greatest number of votes would become president, providing that he received one vote from a majority of the electors. The person receiving the second-highest number would become vice president. If two candidates received a majority but with identical totals, the decision was to be made by the House of Representatives.

The Constitutional provision failed to anticipate the emergence of political parties, which in 1800 nominated teams of candidates for national offices. Thomas Jefferson was the candidate of the Democratic-Republican party for president, and Aaron Burr was the party's choice for vice president. The party won 73 electors, more than half the total, and all 73 voted for both Jefferson and Burr. So the final decision was up to the House. The Constitution provided that each state cast one vote, with a majority of all states required for a choice. Jefferson's party controlled eight delegations, one less than a majority; the Federalists controlled six states; and two delegations were equally divided.

Many Federalists regarded Jefferson as a dangerous radical and decided to support Burr. In 34 ballots, Jefferson won no more than eight state delegations. Finally, a few Federalists abstained on the 36th ballot. Jefferson secured the votes of ten states and was declared the winner.

The Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution, ratified in 1804, provides that members of the Electoral College ballot separately for the offices of president and vice president.

JEFFERSON CITY, the capital of Missouri and the seat of Cole county. It is situated on the south bank of the Missouri River, 105 miles (170 km) west of St. Louis. The city, at the geographic center of the state about midway between St. Louis and Kansas City, was designed to be the state capital from its inception in 1821, when the federal government donated the land for the capital. Many of the city's workers are employed by the state and city governments, but the city has several industries as well.

The present state capitol, completed in 1917, is an imposing domed building with interior murals by Thomas Hart Benton depicting the history of Missouri. The State Museum, in the capitol building, features displays of arrowheads and guns, Civil War trophies, and antiques. The governors mansion, built in 1871, is nearby, as are the State Office Building, the Jefferson State Office Building, and the Missouri Supreme Court Building.

The city also is the site of the state library, which houses a fine law collection. The city's Thomas Jefferson Library System serves four counties through a main library, branch libraries, and bookmobiles. The headquarters of the Missouri Department of Commerce are here.

The Cole County Historical Society Museum in Jefferson City contains souvenirs of five wars,

old maps and photographs, and inaugural ball gowns of many first ladies.

Educational facilities include Lincoln University, which was founded in 1866 by veterans of two Civil War black infantry regiments. Since then it has changed from a small hometown black university to a major coeducational state university, with about half its enrollment made up of white students. The Capital Business College was founded in 1915.

Jefferson City has an industrial base of more than 20 industries, including publishing firms, an electrical equipment manufacturer, and a manufacturer of cosmetics. It is also a trading center for nearby farming areas.

Originally a small river settlement named for Thomas Jefferson, it was chosen as the state capital in 1821, incorporated as a town in 1825, and incorporated as a city in 1839. It grew slowly, but once was an important transfer point from railroad to packet boat on the route to the West. Jefferson City has a mayor and council form of government. Population: 33,619.

JEFFERSON FAMILY, American actors, of whom the best known were Joseph Jefferson I (1774–1832) and his even more famous grandson Joseph Jefferson III (1829–1905), who was a leading actor on the 19th century American stage.

The first-known member of the family was Thomas Jefferson (1732–1807), an actor reputedly sponsored by David Garrick. He was stage manager of a theater in Plymouth, England, where his son Joseph I was born in 1774.

Joseph emigrated to the United States in 1795. He performed first in Boston and then, from 1796 to 1803, in New York City. In 1803 he went to Philadelphia, Pa., where he was a star at the Chestnut Street Theatre. He was known as "Old Jefferson" because of his ability to portray elderly roles. He died in Harrisburg, Pa., on Aug. 4, 1832.

Among the children of "Old Jefferson," most of whom went on the stage, was Joseph II (1804–1842), an actor and painter. His son Joseph III was born in Philadelphia on Feb. 20, 1829, and made his first stage appearance at the age of four. For more than 20 years he was a barnstorming player, often performing in frontier settlements of the American West.

In 1856, Jefferson joined Laura Keene's company in New York City, and in 1858 he established his reputation as Asa Trenchard in her production of *Our American Cousin*. His greatest success was in the title role of Dion Boucicault's *Rip Van Winkle*, first performed in London in 1865—a part with which he was identified for the rest of his career. Jefferson died in Palm Beach, Fla., on April 25, 1905.

JEFFERSON MEMORIAL, a monument in Washington, D.C., erected to the memory of Thomas Jefferson. It is situated in East Potomac Park on the south bank of the Tidal Basin on a line with the south axis of the White House. The memorial was planned by a commission created by an act of Congress (approved June 26, 1934) and was designed by John Russell Pope, Otto R. Eggers, and Daniel P. Higgins. Ground was broken on Dec. 15, 1938, and the memorial was dedicated on April 13, 1943, the 200th anniversary of Jefferson's birth.

The circular colonnaded structure, topped by a dome, follows in design the classical style



Jefferson Memorial, in Washington, D. C., is in a style of classic architecture that Jefferson especially liked. EWING GALLOWAY

of architecture, borrowing much from the Italian architect Andrea Palladio, whose style Jefferson greatly admired and embodied in such buildings of his own creation as the state capitol at Richmond, Va. The memorial's walls and dome of white Vermont marble reach about 96 feet (30 meters) above the level of a walk within the exterior colonnade that circles the building. The entrance steps, rising from a plaza at the Tidal Basin shore, are flanked by beautifully planted terraces. Carved above the entranceway is a massive sculptural group, the work of Adolph A. Weinman, depicting Jefferson with the four other members of the committee (Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston) that drafted the Declaration of Independence.

The memorial room, encircled by 16 columns of Vermont marble, is dominated by a heroic statue of Jefferson by Rudolph Evans. Executed in bronze and set on a 6-foot (2-meter) pedestal of black Minnesota granite, it portrays him standing and is 19 feet (6 meters) high. The domed ceiling of Indiana limestone rises about 67 feet (20 meters) above the head of the statue. On the interior walls of white Georgia marble are four massive panels, surmounted by festoons, in which are carved in bronze short selections from Jefferson's writings affirming his fundamental beliefs. On the southwest wall are sentences from the Declaration of Independence; on the next panel, excerpts from his Virginia Statute of Religious Freedom avowing the principle of freedom of the mind; and on the northeast, quotations setting forth his belief in freedom of the individual and the necessity for educating the mass of the people. On the last panel appears Jefferson's affirmation that "laws and institutions must go hand in hand with the progress of the human mind."

VINCENT L. EATON
Library of Congress

JEFFERSONIAN DEMOCRACY, political beliefs expressed in Thomas Jefferson's writings that stress faith in self-government based on a rural society of educated independent farmers.

JEFFERSONIAN REPUBLICANS. See DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN PARTY.

JEFFERSONVILLE, a city in southeast Indiana, the seat of Clark county, on the Ohio River across from Louisville, Ky. It is a residential and industrial city. Manufactures include wood products, sporting goods, chemicals, and riverboats and barges.

Indiana University Southeast maintains a campus here. The Howard National Steamboat Museum has an excellent collection of steamboat memorabilia. The Colgate clock, with a 40-foot (12-meter) diameter, is one of the largest clocks in the world.

Jeffersonville, named for Thomas Jefferson, was laid out in 1802 and incorporated as a city in 1839. The city has a mayor-council form of government. Population: 21,220.

JEFFREYS, *jeff' rēz*, **George** (1645?-1689), English judge who, as chief commissioner, presided over the "Bloody Assizes" that followed the suppression of Monmouth's rebellion in 1685.

Born at Acton in Denbighshire, Wales, Jeffreys studied for the law. He was called to the bar in 1668 and in 1677 became solicitor-general to the duke of York (later James II). Made a judge of the Inner Temple in 1678, then chief justice of Chester in 1680, he played an active role in the trials of those accused of plotting against the crown. He was created a baronet in 1681 and then raised to the office of lord chief justice of the king's bench in 1683.

He was created Baron Jeffreys of Wem in 1685 and was appointed president of the commission for the western circuit that was to try those involved in the duke of Monmouth's unsuccessful revolt against James II. During these "Bloody Assizes," well over 100 rebels were executed for high treason. Others were sold into slavery. Jeffreys' conduct at these trials, as well as at other trials earlier in his career, was harsh and vindictive. Not only cruel but corrupt, he extorted money from many of the rebels in return for pardons or lighter sentences. However, the crown approved of his work on the commission and rewarded him with the lord chancellorship in September 1685.

With the overthrow of James II in December 1688, Jeffreys tried to escape abroad, disguised as a sailor. He was recognized, seized, and sent to the Tower, where he died on April 18, 1689.

JEFFREYS, jef'rēz, Sir Harold (1891–), English scientist, who made important contributions to widely different fields, especially geophysics and astronomy. He played a leading role in developing geophysics from a few scattered researches to a systematic and unified science. Jeffreys was coauthor of the standard tables of travel times of earthquake waves, calculated that the earth's central core is liquid, investigated the strength of the earth and imperfections in its elasticity, studied the role of convection in creating the earth's interior structure, and was one of the first to study the effect of radioactivity on the earth's interior temperature.

In astronomy, Jeffreys showed that the outer planets Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune must be composed of substances of low molecular weight, such as ammonia and methane, at very low temperatures (not over -120°C , or -184°F). As a meteorologist, Jeffery explained the causes of monsoons and sea breezes, and demonstrated the role of cyclones in maintaining the earth's general circulation.

Jeffreys was born in Durham county, England, on April 22, 1891. He spent most of his career at Cambridge University.

JEFFRIES, jef'rēz, Jim (1875–1953), American boxer, who was heavyweight champion from 1899 to 1905. James Jackson Jeffries was born in Carroll, Ohio, on April 15, 1875. He was Jim Corbett's sparring partner in Reno, Nev., and started his boxing career in 1896 on the West Coast. After a string of victories, he challenged Bob Fitzsimmons for the heavyweight title, which he won by a knockout at Coney Island, New York, on June 9, 1899. A powerful puncher who fought from a crouch with his left arm extended, Jeffries defeated all comers, usually by knockouts, and retired from the ring, undefeated, in 1905.

Lured from retirement, Jeffries was matched against Jack Johnson, the new champion, in a

Heavyweight champion Jim Jeffries retired undefeated, but later fought Jack Johnson and lost his only bout.

THE BETTMANN ARCHIVE



title bout at Reno on July 4, 1910. Overweight and out of condition, he was knocked out in the 15th round, marking his only defeat. He died in Burbank, Calif., on March 3, 1953. Jeffries was elected to the Boxing Hall of Fame in 1954.

JEHOASH, king of Judah. See **JOASH**.

JEHOIAKIM, ji-hoi'ə-kim, king of Judah from about 609 to 598 B.C., just before the Babylonian conquest. A son of King Josiah, he originally was named Eliakim. When Egypt conquered Judah he was put on the throne and renamed by the pharaoh Necho, who had deposed his brother Jehoahaz II. In return Jehoiakim paid tribute to Egypt, levying heavy taxes on his subjects. For his oppressive measures and idolatrous practices he was rebuked by the prophet Jeremiah. In defiance he burned a scroll containing Jeremiah's prophecies on the downfall of Judah.

When the Babylonians under Nebuchadnezzar II defeated the Egyptians at Carchemish in 605, Jehoiakim submitted for three years and then revolted. Nebuchadnezzar sent troops to crush him. Jehoiakim died in 598, probably assassinated by the pro-Babylonian party, a few months before Nebuchadnezzar took Jerusalem and carried off Jehoiakim's son and successor, Jehoiakin, to Babylon. The events are detailed in I and II Chronicles, II Kings, and Jeremiah.

JEHORAM, ji-hō'rām, two Old Testament kings, who figure in II Kings and II Chronicles. The name is also spelled Joram.

JEHORAM, king of Israel, son of Ahab and the idolatrous Jezebel, succeeded his brother Ahaziah and ruled from about 849 to 842 B.C. Aided by King Jehoshaphat of Judah, he fought the rebellious Moabites, with inconclusive results. While he was attempting to regain Ramoth-Gilead from Syria, a revolution inspired by the prophet Elisha put Jehu, a general, on the throne. Jehu shot Jehoram, who fell in Naboth's vineyard, thus fulfilling Elijah's prophecy of the doom of Ahab's line.

JEHORAM, king of Judah, son of Jehoshaphat and husband of the idolatrous Athaliah, daughter of Ahab, also ruled from about 849 to 842 B.C. Soon after his succession he killed his six brothers and other nobles, possibly to forestall a revolt. He was unable to crush the revolts of Edom and Libnah or drive out the invading Philistines and Arabs. These disasters and his death from a painful dysentery were, according to the prophecy of Elijah, punishment for following the false gods of Ahab's family.

JEHOSHAPHAT, ji-hos'ə-fat, king of Judah from about 873 to 849 B.C., at the time of its greatest prosperity. According to I Kings and II Chronicles, Jehoshaphat (Josaphat), son of Asa, was a capable and virtuous ruler. He fortified and garrisoned cities and sent out priests and others to teach the people the religion of Yahweh. He appointed royal instead of local judges and established a court of appeal in Jerusalem. He subdued Edom, which gave Judah control of caravan routes from Arabia; defeated an invading army of Moabites, Ammonites, and Meunites; and received tribute from the Philistines and Arabs.

Most significant was Jehoshaphat's alliance with Israel. It ended long-standing hostility but led ultimately to disaster for Judah, which seems to have been subordinate. Jehoshaphat unwill-

ingly helped Ahab in an unsuccessful battle to regain Ramoth-Gilead from Syria, and he aided Ahab's son Jehoram against the rebellious Moabites. Jehoshaphat married his own son Jehoram to Ahab's daughter Athaliah. Most of their descendants perished, supposedly as a result of divine punishment of Ahab's idolatrous line.

JEHOVAH, ji-hō'və, an erroneous form of the name of the God of Israel. The ancient Hebrews, like many other peoples, believed that names had mysterious power and therefore rarely pronounced "Yahweh," the personal name of their God. In early biblical manuscripts they used the Tetragrammaton, or four consonants of his name—YHWH—which were pronounced from memory. After the Babylonian Exile in the 6th century B.C., *Adonai* ("My Lord") and *Elohim* ("God") were gradually substituted for "Yahweh," and its pronunciation was forgotten.

In the 6th and 7th centuries A.D., Masoretic scribes wrote the vowels for *Adonai* under the Tetragrammaton to remind readers to use the substitute term. Medieval Christian scholars mistakenly combined the consonants and vowels of the two words into the new word "Jehovah," which was used in the King James Version. Greek, Latin, and Modern English versions use "Lord" or "Yahweh."

JEHOVAH'S WITNESSES, ji-hō'vəz, a society of Christians who all share personally in promoting study of the Bible and spreading their beliefs. Witnesses believe their founder to be Jehovah, who has had his witnesses on earth since Abel. The modern organization began in the 1870's with Charles Taze Russell of Pittsburgh, Pa., as an outstanding representative, who preached the millennial reign of Jesus Christ. He was the first president of what became the Watch Tower Bible and Tract Society, legal agent for the Witnesses and publisher of their voluminous literature. Membership exceeds 2.3 million in more than 200 lands.

Beliefs. Jehovah's Witnesses base their beliefs solely on the Bible. They worship Jehovah as the true God and teach that Jesus Christ is his Son. Unlike Trinitarians, they hold that Jesus is not God but a spirit creature, the first of God's created works. They believe that by an act of God he was born as a perfect man and thereafter sacrificed his humanity as a ransom for all of Adam's offspring, who through Adam's sin were born without right to eternal life. Resurrected and restored to spirit life in heaven, Jesus is able to administer the benefits of his sacrifice as atonement for sin to all who have faith in him.

The Witnesses publicly proclaim that in 1914 Jesus Christ was enthroned in his Messianic kingdom in heaven. They point to the imminent end of the present world system in a divinely ordained "great tribulation," culminating in the Battle of Armageddon, which will rid the earth of wickedness. Thereafter will begin the millennial reign of Christ on earth with 144,000 glorified disciples. The earth will become a paradise of righteousness and peace. Billions of persons now dead will, by an earthly resurrection, live again as humans and have the chance, by demonstrating loving obedience to Jehovah, to live forever in perfection.

Practices. The Witnesses, who regard Jesus as their head, are directed by a Governing Body from international headquarters in Brooklyn,

N.Y. The headquarters staff publishes six versions of the Bible in English, besides many foreign translations. It also publishes two periodicals—*The Watchtower*, with a circulation of about 9 million in 106 languages, and *Awake*—and numerous books and booklets.

Local congregations are presided over by bodies of elders consisting of men meeting scriptural qualifications. Witnesses, who are all considered unsalaried ministers, attend five congregational meetings a week to train for their systematic house-to-house visits. They must also refrain from any form of political or military activity, which is held to be ungodly, and from other behavior they consider unethical.

The Witnesses have often aroused the opposition of civil governments for their public preaching, distribution of literature, and refusal to salute the flag or do military service. In the United States they have taken several cases to the U.S. Supreme Court. Decisions have helped safeguard the rights of freedom of worship, of speech, and of the press.

FRED W. FRANZ, *President*
Watch Tower Bible and Tract Society

JEHU, jē'hōō, king of Israel from about 842 to 815 B.C. Before becoming king, he was a general in the service of Ahab and his son Jehoram. At that time the worship of Baal, introduced by Ahab's wife, Jezebel, was widespread, incurring the censure of the prophet Elijah and his successor Elisha.

In a war with Assyria, Ahab was slain attempting to recapture Ramoth-Gilead. In a later battle there against Syria, Jehoram was wounded. He retired to Jezreel, leaving Jehu in command. Elisha, with the support of the army, anointed him king. Jehu then killed Jehoram in the vineyard of Naboth, which Ahab had seized illegally, and ordered the death of Jezebel. He also killed Ahab's grandson, the visiting King Ahaziah of Judah, and most of his royal house and, fulfilling Elijah's prophecy, eliminated the remainder of Ahab's family. Throughout the carnage Jehu drove his chariot with reckless abandon. In a final action Jehu conducted the slaughter of a large gathering of Baal worshippers whom he had invited to a sacrifice for the god.

Jehu paid tribute to Shalmaneser III of Assyria in 842 B.C., presumably for supporting his accession to the throne or for aid against Syria. This incident is portrayed on a black obelisk in the British Museum. Jehu's career is detailed in II Kings.

JEJUNUM, ji-jōō'nəm, the middle section of the small intestine. It lies between the duodenum, which connects to the stomach, and the ileum, which empties into the large intestine. It averages nearly 9 feet (2.7 meters) long in the adult human.

See also **INTESTINE**.

JEKYLL AND HYDE. See **DOCTOR JEKYLL AND MR. HYDE**.

JELICOE, jel'ə-kō, **John Rushworth** (1859–1935), British admiral. John Rushworth Jellicoe was born in Southampton on Dec. 5, 1859. He entered the navy in 1872 and later began to concentrate on naval gunnery. He came under the influence of John Fisher, later first sea lord. After the Boxer Rebellion, in which he was se-

verely wounded (1900), Jellicoe advanced rapidly. He was director of naval ordinance (1905), rear admiral of the Atlantic fleet (1907–1908), third sea lord (1908–1910), commander of the Atlantic and then the home fleet (1911–1912), and second sea lord (1912–1914).

In 1914, as World War I erupted, Jellicoe was placed in command of the Grand Fleet and in 1915 was promoted to admiral. He directed the North Sea blockade of Germany and the operations of the Battle of Jutland (1916), which effectively neutralized Germany's capital ships for the rest of the war. He became first sea lord, then was retired from the admiralty in 1917. In 1918 he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Jellicoe of Scapa.

In 1919, Jellicoe was promoted to admiral of the fleet. He then served as governor general of New Zealand in 1920–1924 and after his return was made Earl Jellicoe. He died in London on Nov. 20, 1935.

JELLY AND JAM, sweet spreads made from boiled fruit or fruit juice to which sugar has been added. The major difference between jam and jelly is that jelly is made only from fruit juice while jam is made from fruit pulp that has been crushed, mashed, ground, or chopped into pieces. A type of jam containing whole fruits is known as *preserve*, while a jam containing fruit peel as well as pulp is called a *marmalade*. Another major difference between jam and jelly concerns their consistency. Jam is typically a thick mass that spreads out slightly when turned out of its container and quivers slightly when touched.

The consistency of jam or jelly depends on the proportions and handling of the fruit or juice and the content of acid, sugar, and pectin. All fruits contain some natural pectin and mild acid. Some, such as apples and grapes, contain enough of both to make a good jam or jelly. Others, however, such as elderberries, will not make good jam or jelly unless additional acid and pectin are included. Acid may be added as one tablespoon of lemon juice or $\frac{1}{4}$ teaspoon of crystalline citric acid for each cup of fruit or juice. Pectin may be increased either by adding a high-pectin fruit, such as apples, or by adding commercial pectin. Commercial pectin is available in both liquid and powdered forms, and both are highly satisfactory with any fruit. In using commercial pectin, it is important to follow the directions on the package since the two forms are not interchangeable and each is used differently.

The sugar content of jam or jelly also helps produce the desired consistency. In general, a higher proportion of sugar results in a thicker jam or jelly. In addition, sugar serves as a preservative, contributes to the flavor, and has a firming effect on the fruit pulp in jam. Light corn syrup or honey can be used to replace some, but not all, of the sugar that is called for in jam and jelly recipes.

Once it is made, the jam or jelly should be stored in a cool, dry, dark place to retard growth of mold and prevent the loss of color. Jam and jelly jars are usually sealed with a layer of paraffin wax.

The making of jam and jelly probably began centuries ago in the Middle Eastern countries where cane sugar grew naturally. It is believed that the Crusaders first introduced the sweets to Europe when they returned from the Middle East, and by the late Middle Ages, jams, jellies,

and fruit preserves were popular in Europe. By the end of the 17th century, books on jam-making were published.

In the United States, early settlers in New England preserved fruits with honey, molasses, or maple sugar. Pectin extracted from apple parings was used to thicken jellies.

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JELLYFISH, a swimming invertebrate marine animal that has a gelatinous body in one stage of its life cycle. Known scientifically as medusae, jellyfish are free-living stages in the life cycles of animals belonging to two classes of coelenterates: the Hydrozoa and the Scyphozoa. They are not fish and do not resemble fish.

Many of these animals also have a stage in their life cycle in which they are attached to rocks, shells, pilings, and other underwater objects. In this stage they are called *polyps*. In the Hydrozoa, the medusoid stage is usually small and inconspicuous, although the Portuguese man-of-war is a well-known exception to this rule. Most of the familiar jellyfish, including the sea nettle, belong to the Scyphozoa, in which the medusoid stage is generally prominent.

The jellyfish's body, called the *bell* or *umbrella*, is a gelatinous mass shaped like a saucer, bowl, or cup. A varying number of short or long tentacles are arranged symmetrically around the rim of the bell. From the center of the concave undersurface of the bell, the mouth—often surrounded by frilly lobes—hangs down on the end of a digestive tube. At its top the digestive tube connects with digestive canals that radiate through the body to the rim of the canal. They usually join a circular canal in this rim. This network makes up the medusa's digestive system.

A network of nerves runs throughout the body. On the rim of the bell, in addition to tentacles, there are often sense organs in the form of eyespots and organs of balance, called *statocysts*. The reproductive organs are simple aggregations of sex cells found as projecting masses on the digestive tube, on the concave side of the bell beneath the digestive canals, or in pockets in these canals.

Hydromedusae have simple digestive canals and a circular muscular shelf, the *velum*, which extends inward from the bell edge. Scyphomedusae lack a velum and generally have a more complicated construction. Their digestive canals are branched, and complicated sensory aggregations occur in multiples of four along the bell margin. The bodies of all jellyfish are radially symmetrical.

Jellyfish are carried from place to place by tides and currents. They swim by pulsating contractions of the bell, but these pulsations serve mainly to prevent the animals from sinking and are of little value for locomotion.

Jellyfish are carnivorous, feeding on fish and other animals that they catch by means of stinging capsules—called *nematocysts*—present on their tentacles and, to a lesser extent, on other parts of the body. On contact with prey, these capsules explosively discharge a threadlike tube through which a stupefying poison is injected into the prey. In a second type of nematocyst, the tube is used to entangle small prey. A third type has a sticky tube that can act as an anchor.