

A Colony at War

By **Randy Golden**

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

Georgia had to act swiftly. The **Continental Congress** had imposed an embargo on the colony for its failure to join the **Continental Association**. Now that the provincial congress had agreed to adopt the articles of the association, it had to ensure that the businessmen abided by the agreement. The radicals were forced to use whatever means necessary to keep the businessmen in line.

Many things were changing on the face of political Georgia. The provincial congress was taking more and more power from the royal governor (whether he liked it or not). Administration was needed for the mundane issues brought before a political entity. One of the more important issues to be decided was the appointment of officers in the militia. To handle these issues, and to give the colony a sense of continuity even when the provincial congress was not in session, a "committee of safety" was appointed, taking power when the provincial congress officially ended on [August 17, 1775](#).

Officers who were to be commissioned had been elected and sent to **Royal Governor James Wright** for approval. The committee of safety asked Wright to commission the duly elected officers and Wright refused, at which time the committee began to commission them, including **Colonel Lachlan McIntosh**, **Lieutenant Colonel Samuel Elbert**, and **Major Joseph Habersham**.

A cool November in Philadelphia did nothing to calm tempers in the **Second Continental Congress**. Things were not going well for the newly arrived Georgia delegation, thanks to Reverend [John J. Zubly](#), a Presbyterian minister whom **John Adams** described as "...a doctor of divinity, well read, and with pretensions as a linguist." First came debates on the **Continental Association** and some of the disagreements Georgia had with the requirements. Then Reverend Zubly argued to raise the trade embargo. He met stiff opposition, especially from **Samuel Chase**.

While the other delegates from Georgia were closely aligned with men such as Adams, **Thomas Jefferson**, and **Patrick Henry**, Zubly never strayed from his belief that an independent America was a bad idea. Adams supported a "republican government," which Zubly called "...little better than a government of devils..." Although they were willing to accept Zubly in spite of his beliefs, they viewed his writing to Wright to report the actions of the congress as treason. He left the congress in mid-November and returned to **Savannah** to argue his beliefs among Georgia's **Whig** society.

Creek Indians on the frontier remained a major concern for Georgia (and South Carolina as well). British agent **John Stuart** was competing with both colonies on keeping the Creek happy. Since the Whigs were seizing incoming shipments of goods, getting British goods through **Savannah** and **Charleston** was nearly impossible. Stuart made an arrangement with the Spanish to allow the trading goods to come in through **St. Augustine**.

Radical power had been increasing in Georgia. By January, 1776 little occurred in the colony politically without the committee's blessing. When British ships entered the Savannah River, the council of safety ordered Wright and his

governor's council be arrested. They were quickly released, but Wright got the message. On [February 11, 1776](#) **James Wright** boarded an English vessel and sailed to **Cockspur Island**.

British ships had been dispatched to get food for the hungry troops in the northeast. In early March, 1776, these ships moved up the Savannah River and seized boats, their cargo (they were loaded with rice), and the men on board. Aware that British ships had sailed to Savannah harbor, the **Committee of Safety** ordered some men to remove the riggings of the ships, which would render them useless. The men were welcomed and detained by the British seamen who had boarded the vessel.

Reports of the number of men at the battle vary widely, and no accurate total will probably ever be calculated. There were an additional 400 South Carolinians a short distance from Savannah, and probably 100 more Whig militia in the city, but not at the bluff.

A group of men attempted to negotiate the release of the men sent to remove the rigging and the return of the boats. These men were also detained when they boarded the ship. The committee issued a call to arms and quickly more than 500 Georgia Whigs, aided by a hundred South Carolina Rebels positioned themselves along the bluff overlooking the harbor, preparing for a land-based attack as the ships attempted to leave for the British base on Cockspur Island. An attempt was made to float a burning ship (the *Inverness*) into the rice boats, which resulted in the destruction of the *Nelly*. Two or three other ships suffered some damage from fire.

The British used a channel on the far side of **Hutchinson Island** to escape the wrath of the Whigs. They would be back.

A Leader Dies

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

1776 had been a pivotal year for the **United States of America**, from the signing of the **Declaration of Independence** to early success on the battlefield. Toward the end of the year, however, the British were threatening **Philadelphia** to the point that the **Continental Congress** removed to **Baltimore**. By the end of the year they would occupy Philadelphia and create severe economic problems for the fledgling country.

In the South, Georgia Whigs split along conservative and moderate lines. **Lachlan McIntosh** served as the defacto head of the conservative faction (called the city or merchant party) while **Button Gwinnett** led the radical county party. The struggle between these two politicians would define the first six months of 1777, at least in the state of Georgia. Moderating the differences between Gwinnett and McIntosh was **Archibald Bulloch**, who, as President of the Council of Safety, was the leader of the Executive branch of the Georgia government.

Archibald Bulloch called for a congress to deal with Georgia's political affairs. One major issue on the table was the creation of a state constitution as recommended by the Continental Congress. By December, 1776 this provincial congress had been seated, work had begun on a document, and the congress was preparing to begin debate on the constitution. On February 5,

1777 a new state constitution replaced the "Rules and Regulations" by which the state had been governed for nine months.

The first order of business would be to elect a leader of the state's executive branch. Before that could happen an incident occurred on the southern frontier. Fort McIntosh, built on the Satilla River as a staging point for the land-based attack on East Florida, was surrendered to British Regulars on February 18 by Captain Richard Winn, along with its contingent of 50 or so men of the Georgia Militia. When news of the incident reached Savannah four days later, Bulloch was given executive power over the state by the Committee of Safety for a period of one month. This action was taken because the committee did not feel they could effectively manage the situation if an emergency arose, since its members would have to be called to order.

Had an election been held in February, it was fairly obvious that the choice would be Bulloch. After all, he had successfully steered the state to join the Revolution, and ably led it through the initial encounters with the British. Of course, the recent Florida Expedition had been a disaster, but Bulloch could hardly be blamed for the failure of men who were not under his command. Then, on the day he was appointed executive leader Archibald Bulloch died under "unusual circumstances."

Bulloch's death left a vacuum in the leadership of Georgia and could not have come at a worse time politically. The county and city parties had become more factional and holding an election for the executive of the state was going to be a divisive issue.

Button Gwinnett, who had become very powerful as a leader of the radical arm of the Whig party, was chosen as Bulloch's replacement. Likewise, Lachlan McIntosh became powerful, not as the leader of the conservative Whigs, but as Brigadier General of the Continental Army. No longer was McIntosh under Gwinnett's control. He, and the men under him, were part of the command of Robert Howe, who had replaced Charles Lee, in command of the Southern forces.

General Howe journeyed to Savannah in March, 1777, to discuss the war effort with Button Gwinnett. The new chief executive did not impress the seasoned soldier at all. Gwinnett, whom Howe found to be headstrong and domineering, wanted to take a hands-on approach in managing the Continental Army in Georgia. Once Howe determined that there was no negotiating Gwinnett's stance, he left. Gwinnett would have to manage his own military plans with his own military.

A State and Union formed

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

With the royal government in exile the first order of business for the Whigs was the creation of government, which they did by adopting a set of "**Rules and Regulations**" on [April 15, 1776](#). This document, generally viewed as Georgia's first constitution, was actually created in **Augusta**, because the Radical government had removed up river after the problems in **Savannah**. It created a broad outline of state government to be filled in later. On [May 1, 1776](#), **Archibald Bulloch** became the first leader of the state of Georgia, elected under this document.

Georgia's delegation to the **Second Continental Congress** also changed. Selected to join **Lyman Hall** for the proceedings in Philadelphia were [Button Gwinnett](#), [George Walton](#), **Archibald Bulloch**, and **John Houstoun**. Unfortunately, Bulloch felt he could better serve the state by staying in Savannah as President of the Council of Safety and Houstoun was dealing with personal affairs.

After the **Battle of the Rice Boats**, Georgia's **Council of Safety** understood that it must mobilize the state to prepare for future attacks. Since the middle of February the British fleet had patrolled the sea around **Cockspur Island** at the entrance to Savannah River, having the effect of dramatically curtailing shipping. With the call to arms, the Council realized that Savannah shipping was not their only problem. They had to prepare for an attack from other areas. The one of greatest concern was **East Florida**.

The Continental command structure had **Major General Charles Lee** commanding the forces in **Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia**, with **General John Armstrong** in charge of Georgia and South Carolina. The Council of Safety and Lee, the eccentric English-born son of an Irishman who may have given the British the idea of a "**southern strategy**", repeatedly disagreed over military matters.

One of the earliest recommendations of the **Continental Congress** and General Lee (actually made before the Battle of the Rice Boats) was for Georgia and the Carolinas to launch an expedition to remove the problem of **British East Florida**. St. Augustine was home to **John Stuart**, the British Creek Indian agent whom the Council feared would stir up trouble on Georgia's frontiers. It was also home to the East Florida government, headed by able governor **Patrick Tonyn**, and site of the encampments of the **Florida Rangers**, whose raids across the border into Georgia had cost coastal South Georgia farmers a good deal of cattle. The Rangers were led by Thomas Brown, who left Augusta after a run-in with the **Liberty Boys**.

Raids across the **St. Mary's** were daily news, the **Florida Rangers** scouring the land for cattle while various Georgia irregular units looked for the Rangers. In May, 1776, Capt. William McIntosh was ordered to take a small group of irregulars to the **St. Mary's River** and raid settlements to the south, burning any fortifications constructed by the Rangers and destroying other military infrastructure. Gov. Tonyn told the legislature of this plan 4 days after it was approved. The Floridians had an excellent information network deep into revolutionary Georgia. Additional plans were made to mount a major expedition into Tonyn's Florida. The intent would be to drive the British from the area between the St. Mary's River and the St. John's River to St. Augustine, where they would be forced to surrender due to a lack of food.

Meanwhile, on the national front, The **Second Continental Congress** reconvened on [May 10, 1776](#) and recommended that the individual colonies draft constitutions. Ten days later two of the three Georgia delegates, Button Gwinnett and Lyman Hall, arrived in **Philadelphia** to join the representatives already seated. **Richard Henry "Lighthouse Harry" Lee** made a resolution on [June 7](#) that Congress declare independence. On [June 10](#) the Second Continental Congress created a Committee to draft the document that would formally declare the United States independent of the oppressive British regime. The committee (**Roger Sherman, John Adams, Benjamin**

Franklin, Robert Livingston and Thomas Jefferson) decided to turn the process over to 33 year-old **Thomas Jefferson** to complete.

At the same time these men were working on the Declaration two other committees were formed, one to draw up the **Articles of Confederation**, the other to draw up a treaty with France. Georgia delegate [Button Gwinnett](#) served on the "**committee of thirteen**," responsible for the Articles of Confederation. Gwinnett's biggest contribution appears to be his support for the United States to control Indian affairs.

On [June 28](#) Jefferson presented his oft revised work to the committee, who in turn made revisions to the document before presenting it to the Congress on [July 1](#). First debate centered on independence, not really the document itself. On [July 2, 1776](#), the Lee Resolution was adopted. This date is occasionally given as the technical date of independence, although at this point some states still were dissatisfied with the document. For two days the delegates to the **Second Continental Congress** refined the wording of Jefferson's Declaration. Then, late in the afternoon on the 4th the body approved the document with twelve states voting for it. Only New York did not add its voice, because a new convention was convened and the delegates were awaiting instructions. On the evening of [July 4, 1776](#) the committee set out to fulfill their final duties...to have the Declaration of Independence printed.

[July 5, 1776](#) broke clear and cool in Philadelphia.

Jefferson and the other committee members picked up the broadsides from a printshop owned by John Dunlop. They returned the broadsides to Congress where each state's delegation was responsible for sending the Declaration to the appropriate bodies in their home state. [Button Gwinnett](#), [Lyman Hall](#) and [George Walton](#), who had only recently arrived from **Savannah**, decided to send one copy to **Archibald Bulloch**, head of the **Council of Safety**.

On [August 8](#), Bulloch received the "broadside", which he immediately read to the Council. Two days later he again read it, this time to the people of Georgia during a celebration in Savannah. About the same time, McIntosh began his raids along the St. Mary's, successfully driving the English plantation owners from their homes. Yet the Council of Safety was not satisfied with the results of McIntosh's raids. They informed **General Lee** that the plan for the original expedition should move forward.

Broadsides were a common method of conferring information during the 18th and 19th century. Of the estimated 200 original broadsides printed on the night of July 4-5, 1776, only 24 remain.

The original Declaration of Independence, signed by John Hancock and Charles Thompson was sent to a manuscript transcriber (Mary Katherine Goddard of Baltimore), who painstakingly recreated the document 15 times by hand on special parchment treated to make it look older. These manuscripts were then signed by each member of the Second Continental Congress on Aug. 2.

Acts of War The American Revolution in Georgia

After the end of the French and Indian War in 1763, Britain's King George III decides to keep the largest standing army in peacetime. To pay for the army the members of Parliament decide to tax their colonies, especially those in North America.

In 1763, virtually all Georgians were loyal subjects, however, these acts, some particularly burdensome, began to create opposition to British rule. The phrase "no taxation without representation" and the word "boycott" become common.

Name	Date	Provisions	Georgia's reaction
Revenue Act of 1764 (Sugar Act)	April 5, 1764	Revised duties on sugar, tea, coffee, wine; expanded jurisdiction of some courts.	Protests about taxation; Georgia especially concerned because of lumber trade with sugar-producing Caribbean countries.
Stamp Act	March 22, 1765 thru March 18, 1766	Documents must contain a revenue stamp to be legal.	All deeds, wills, marriage licenses, even newspapers affected. Georgia's stamp master serves a single day in January, 1766.
Quartering Act	March 24, 1765	British troops must be given housing on demand from colonists.	New York Assembly is punished for not complying. The king could not house troops in subjects homes in England, but permitted to do so in the colonies.
Declaratory Act	March 18, 1766	Parliament declares sovereignty over colonies in all cases.	Enacted on the same day that Parliament repealed the Stamp Act, this was merely positioning so that England would not lose face for giving in to the colonies.
Townshend Acts	June 26, 29, July 2, 1767;	Includes duties on new items including	Georgia begin to import goods directly from

	repealed April 12, 1770 (some texts list a March date. This is wrong) except for tax on tea.	tea, glass and other goods available in the Western Hemisphere	nearly Western Hemisphere trading partners rather than buy from England. Georgia House dissolved in dispute over this act.
Tea Act	May 10, 1773	East India Tea Company granted sole right to sell tea directly to Americans; some duties on tea reduced	Tea was a popular drink not only in Georgia but throughout the colonies. Since 1770, tensions had fallen between the countries, but the Tea Act indicated resumption. Nearest Tea Party in Charleston, SC because Savannah has no tea assigned.
Intolerable Acts (Coercive Acts)	March-June, 1774	Closes Boston Harbor; eliminates current government of Massachusetts; restricts many other government meetings.	Convening of first Continental Congress (September, 1774)
Prohibitory Act	December 22, 1775	Tries to force Americans into submission with direct attacks on liberties granted all Englishmen.	Final blow for many Georgians, although a majority may have been loyalists. War was already 8 months old.

Benjamin Franklin's original plan for a Colonial Confederation included Barbados and other colonies.

American Indians and the American Revolution

by Collin G. Calloway

The [Declaration of Independence](#) accused [King George III](#) of unleashing "merciless Indian Savages" against innocent men, women, and children. The image of ferocious warriors propelled into action by a tyrannical monarch fixed in memory and imagination the Indians' role in the



Revolution and justified their subsequent treatment. But many [Indian Nations](#) tried to stay out of the conflict, some sided with the Americans, and those who fought with the British were not the king's pawns: they allied with the Crown as the best hope of protecting their homelands from the encroachments of American colonists and land speculators. The British government had afforded Indian lands a measure of protection by the [Royal Proclamation of 1763](#) which had attempted to restrict colonial expansion beyond the Appalachian Mountains, and had alienated many American colonists. Indians knew that the Revolution was a contest for Indian land as well as for liberty.

Some Indian tribes went to war early. Cherokee warriors, frustrated by recurrent land losses, defied the authority of older chiefs and attacked frontier settlements, only to be soundly defeated by expeditions from Virginia, Georgia, and the Carolinas. On the other hand, Indians from the mission town at Stockbridge in western Massachusetts, like most New England Indians, supported their colonial neighbors. They volunteered as minutemen even before the outbreak of the fighting, joined Washington's army at the siege of Boston, and served in New York, New Jersey, and Canada.

The Revolution split the Iroquois Confederacy. Mohawks led by Joseph Brant adhered to their long-standing allegiance to the British, and eventually most Cayugas, Onondagas, and Senecas joined them. But Oneidas and Tuscaroras sided with the Americans, owing in large measure to the efforts of their Presbyterian missionary Samuel Kirkland. The Revolution became a civil war for the Iroquois, as Oneidas clashed with Senecas at the Battle of Oriskany in 1777. Iroquois sufferings were compounded in 1779 when General John Sullivan led an American army through their country, burning forty towns and destroying crops.

In the Ohio country Guyashuta of the Senecas, Cornstalk of the Shawnees, and White Eyes of the Delawares worked hard to steer a neutral course in the early years of the war. At the Treaty of Fort Pitt in 1778, Delawares and Americans pledged "perpetual peace and friendship." But after Americans killed White Eyes and Cornstalk, and slaughtered noncombatant Moravian Delawares at the mission town of Gnadenhutten, Ohio Indians made common cause with the British. They won victories in the West long after Cornwallis had surrendered in the East, and continued to resist American expansion for a dozen years after the Revolution.

In 1783, under the terms of the [Peace of Paris](#), without regard to its Indian allies, Britain handed over to the new United States all its territory east of the Mississippi, south of the Great Lakes, and north of Florida. The United States proceeded to expand westward, acquiring Indian lands by treaty and by force. Stockbridges and Oneidas who had supported the Americans lost lands as well as Senecas and Shawnees who had fought against them.

[Indians](#) fought in the Revolution for Indian liberties and Indian homelands, not for the British empire. But the image of Indian participation presented in the Declaration of Independence

prevailed: most Americans believed that Indians had backed monarchy and tyranny. A nation conceived in liberty need feel no remorse about dispossessing and expelling those who had fought against its birth.

African Americans In The Revolutionary Period

"How is it that we hear the loudest yelps for liberty among the drivers of Negroes?" Samuel Johnson, the great English writer and dictionary maker, posed this question in 1775. He was



among the first, but certainly not the last, to contrast the noble aims of the American Revolution with the presence of 450,000 enslaved [African Americans](#) in the 13 colonies. Slavery was practiced in every colony in 1775, but it was crucial to the economy and social structure from the Chesapeake region south to Georgia. Slave labor produced the great export crops of the South—tobacco, rice, indigo, and naval stores. Bringing slaves from Africa and the West Indies had made settlement of the New World possible and highly

profitable. Who could predict what breaking away from the British Empire might mean for black people in America?

The British governor of [Virginia](#), Lord Dunmore, quickly saw the vulnerability of the South's slaveholders. In November 1775, he issued a proclamation promising freedom to any slave of a rebel who could make it to the British lines. Dunmore organized an "Ethiopian" brigade of about 300 [African Americans](#), who saw action at the [Battle of Great Bridge](#) (December 9, 1775). Dunmore and the British were soon expelled from Virginia, but the prospect of armed former slaves fighting alongside the British must have struck fear into plantation masters across the South.

African Americans in New England rallied to the patriot cause and were part of the militia forces that were organized into the new [Continental Army](#). Approximately 5 percent of the American soldiers at the [Battle of Bunker Hill](#) (June 17, 1775) were black. New England blacks mostly served in integrated units and received the same pay as whites, although no African American is known to have held a rank higher than corporal.

It has been estimated that at least 5,000 black soldiers fought on the patriot side during the Revolutionary War. The exact number will never be known because eighteenth century muster rolls usually did not indicate race. Careful comparisons between muster rolls and church, census, and other records have recently helped identify many black soldiers. Additionally, various eyewitness accounts provide some indication of the level of African Americans' participation during the war. Baron von Clostermann, a member of [Rochambeau's](#) French army at Yorktown, wrote in July 1781, "A quarter of them [the American army] are Negroes, merry, confident and sturdy."

The use of African Americans as soldiers, whether freemen or slaves, was avoided by Congress and General Washington early in the war. The prospect of armed slave revolts proved more

threatening to white society than British redcoats. General Washington allowed the enlistment of free blacks with "prior military experience" in January 1776, and extended the enlistment terms to all free blacks in January 1777 in order to help fill the depleted ranks of the Continental Army. Because the states constantly failed to meet their quotas of manpower for the army, Congress authorized the enlistment of all blacks, free and slave, in 1777. Of the southern states, only Maryland permitted African Americans to enlist. In 1779, Congress offered slave masters in South Carolina and Georgia \$1,000 for each slave they provided to the army, but the legislatures of both states refused the offer. Thus, the greatest number of African American soldiers in the American army came from the North.

Although most Continental regiments were integrated, a notable exception was the elite First Rhode Island. Mustered into service in July 1778, the First Rhode Island numbered 197 black enlisted men commanded by white officers. Baron von Closen described the regiment as "the most neatly dressed, the best under arms, and the most precise in its maneuvers." The regiment received its baptism of fire at the battle of Rhode Island (Newport) on August 29, 1778, successfully defeating three assaults by veteran Hessian troops. At the siege of [Yorktown](#), on the night of October 14, 1781, the regiment's light company participated in the assault and capture of Redoubt 10. On June 13, 1783, the regiment was disbanded, receiving high praise for its service. Another notable black unit, recruited in the French colony of St. Domingue (present-day Haiti), fought with the French and patriots at the [Battle of Savannah](#) (October 9, 1779).

When the British launched their southern campaign in 1780, one of their aims was to scare Americans back to the crown by raising the fear of massive slave revolts. The British encouraged slaves to flee to their strongholds, promising ultimate freedom. The strategy backfired, as slave owners rallied to the patriot cause as the best way to maintain order and the plantation system. Tens of thousands of African Americans sought refuge with the British, but fewer than 1,000 served as soldiers. The British made heavy use of the escapees as teamsters, cooks, nurses, and laborers. At the war's conclusion, some 20,000 blacks left with the British, preferring an uncertain future elsewhere to a return to their old masters. American blacks ended up in Canada, Britain, the West Indies, and



Europe. Some were sold back into slavery. In 1792, 1,200 black loyalists who had settled in Nova Scotia left for Sierra Leone, a colony on the west coast of Africa established by Britain specifically for former slaves.

The Revolution brought change for some American blacks, although nothing approaching full equality. The courageous military service of African Americans and the revolutionary spirit ended slavery in New England almost immediately. The middle states of New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey adopted policies of gradual emancipation from 1780 to 1804. Many of the founders opposed slavery in principle (including some whose wealth was largely in human property). Individual manumissions increased following the Revolution. Still, free blacks in both the North and South faced persistent discrimination in virtually every aspect of life,

notably employment, housing, and education. Many of the founders hoped that slavery would eventually disappear in the American South. When cotton became king in the South after 1800, this hope died. There was just too much profit to be made working slaves on cotton plantations. The statement of human equality in the Declaration of Independence was never entirely forgotten, however. It remained as an ideal that could be appealed to by civil rights activists through the following decades.

Salem Poor: "A Brave and Gallant Soldier"

In the Massachusetts State Archives is a petition to the General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, stating that in the "late [Battle at Charlestown](#)," a man from Colonel Frye's Regiment "behaved like an experienced officer" and that in this man "centers a brave and gallant soldier." This document, dated December of 1775, just six months after the Battle of Bunker Hill, is signed by fourteen officers who were present at the battle, including [Colonel William Prescott](#). Of the 2,400 to 4,000 colonists who participated in the battle, no other man is singled out in this manner.

This hero of the Battle of Bunker Hill is [Salem Poor](#) of Andover, Massachusetts. Although documents show that Poor, along with his regiment and two others, were sent to Bunker Hill to build a fort and other fortifications on the night of June 16, 1775, we have no details about just what Poor did to earn the praise of these officers. The petition simply states "to set forth the particulars of his conduct would be tedious." Perhaps his heroic deeds were too many to mention.

Few details of this hero's life are available to us. Born a slave in the late 1740s, Poor managed to buy his freedom in 1769 for 27 pounds, which represented a year's salary for the typical working man. He married Nancy, a free African American woman, and they had a son. Salem Poor left his wife and child behind in May 1775 and fought for the patriot cause at [Bunker Hill](#), [Saratoga](#), and [Monmouth](#). We can only speculate about the motives for Poor's sacrifice: was it patriotism, a search for new experience, or the prospect of a new and better life? The Battle of Bunker Hill was a daring and provocative act against established authority; all who participated could well have been hanged for treason. Shut out from many opportunities in colonial society, Salem Poor chose to fight for an independent nation. In the words of Harriet Beecher Stowe, the bravery of Poor and other African American soldiers "has a peculiar beauty and merit."



"Am I Not a Man
and a Brother?"
1787

The first and most identifiable image of the 18th century abolitionist movement was a kneeling African man.

Members of the Society of Friends, informally known as Quakers, were among the earliest leaders of the abolitionist movement in Britain and the Americas. By the beginning of the American Revolution, Quakers had moved from viewing slavery as a matter of individual conscience, to seeing the abolition of slavery as a Christian duty.

Quakers, who believe in simplicity in all things, tended to view the arts as frivolous; but when the Quaker-led Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade met in London in 1787, three of its members were charged with preparing a design for "a Seal [to] be engraved for the use of this Society."

Later that year, the society approved a design "expressive of an African in Chains in a Supplicating Posture." Surrounding the naked man was engraved a motto whose wording echoed an idea widely accepted during the Enlightenment among Christians and secularists: "Am I Not A Man and A Brother?" The design was approved by the Society, and an engraving was commissioned.

The design was symbolic both artistically and politically. In addition to evoking classical art, the figure's nudity signified a state of nobility and freedom, yet he was bound by chains. Black figures, usually depicted as servants or supplicants, typically knelt in the art of the period, at a time when members of the upper classes did not kneel when praying; this particular image combined the European theme of conversion from heathenism and the idea of emancipation into a posture of gratitude.

Josiah Wedgwood, who was by then a member of the Society, produced the emblem as a jasperware cameo at his pottery factory. Although the artist who designed and engraved the seal is unknown, the design for the cameo is attributed to William Hackwood or to Henry Webber, who were both modelers at the Wedgwood factory.

In 1788, a consignment of the cameos was shipped to Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia, where the medallions became a fashion statement for abolitionists and anti-slavery sympathizers. They were worn as bracelets and as hair ornaments, and even inlaid with gold as ornaments for snuff boxes. Soon the fashion extended to the general public.

That same year, the image also appeared in London on the covers of a pamphlet addressed to Parliament and a book about a voyage to Guinea, presumably with the Society's approval.

Although the intent and the effect of the emblem was to focus public opinion on the evils of the African slave trade, its ultimate effect was to underscore the perception of black inferiority. The supplicant posture of blacks persisted as a standard feature of Western art long after slavery was abolished.

Ironically, although the image became the emblem of the anti-slavery movement, the Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade was emphatic that its only goal was the abolition of the slave trade, not of slavery itself. That position was vigorously protested by individual members such as Granville Sharp, the most influential abolitionist of his time.

Birthplace of a Nation



Raising the first flag at Independence Hall, Philadelphia

Circa 1776-77. Copy of painting by Clyde O. DeLand



When the [First Continental Congress](#) met to decide ways of recovering certain colonial rights and liberties violated by various acts of the British government, Philadelphia was the logical choice for the meeting. The principal city of the Colonies, it offered not only all the amenities the

delegates needed, but also a central location between North and South, a major consideration in an era of slow, tedious, and sometimes dangerous travel.

The Congress convened at [Carpenters' Hall](#) in September 1774 and addressed a declaration of rights and grievances to [King George III](#). The delegates also agreed to boycott English goods and resolved that, unless their grievances were redressed, a second Congress should assemble the following spring. England did nothing to satisfy American complaints, and by the time the [Second Continental Congress](#) gathered at the Pennsylvania State House on May 10, 1775, the situation had worsened. Armed conflict had broken out at [Lexington and Concord](#) in Massachusetts, and Congressional delegates were now called upon to direct a war which few desired. Reluctantly they moved from protest to resistance, assuming authority over provincial troops at Boston and appointing [George Washington](#) Commander-in-chief "of all continental forces, raised or to be raised, for the defence of American liberty.

For nearly a year, while fighting continued, Congress sought unsuccessfully for ways to resolve the dispute between England and the Colonies. No demand for independence was made until June 1776, when Virginia delegate [Richard Henry Lee](#) offered a resolution declaring "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States," and calling for the establishment of foreign alliances and a plan of confederation. In response, Congress appointed a committee to draft a declaration "setting forth the causes which impelled us to this mighty resolution." Most of the work of the committee fell to young Thomas Jefferson who, basing his draft on the broad foundation of universal human rights, crafted a document which transcended the politics of the moment. Congress passed Lee's resolution on July 2, and two days later adopted the Declaration. The 1778 alliance with France legitimized American independence.

A committee organized to cope with the matter of confederation quickly provided a draft report, "[Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union](#)," which Congress debated intermittently for nearly a year before adopting it as the first Constitution of the United States on November 15, 1777. Ratified on March 1, 1781, the Articles of Confederation were more a "league of friendship" among independent States than a true act of Union, but they governed the United States from the final years of the war, through the peace negotiations, and into the early years of nationhood. Their failure to provide for a strong central government, however, led to the calling of a Grand Convention" in Philadelphia in 1787 to revise the document. Revision proved impossible and convention delegates set about to create an entirely new charter that would supplant the Articles as the law of the land. The result was the [Constitution of the United States](#), formally adopted on September 17, 1787, and ratified the next year. By this time Philadelphia was no longer the home of the national government. Mutinous Pennsylvania soldiers, demanding back pay from their State government, had surrounded the State House in 1783, and a nervous Congress decamped to Princeton. It subsequently moved to Annapolis and Trenton before finally ending up in New York City. One of the first orders of business for the Pennsylvania representatives to the new government under the Constitution was to try to bring the capital back to Philadelphia, where the Nation had been born and nurtured, and where it had taken its first tenuous steps toward an uncertain future.

Philadelphia: The Capital City



The U.S. Government under the Constitution began in New York City on March 4, 1789. In 1790 it came to Philadelphia, the result of a compromise whereby Southern congressmen agreed to support Secretary of the Treasury [Alexander Hamilton's](#) financial proposals in return for locating a permanent capital somewhere on the banks of the Potomac River. Philadelphia was named temporary capital while the new Federal city was being prepared.

Many Philadelphians hoped that, once here, the government could be persuaded to stay, and they spared no effort to make it comfortable. The new County Courthouse, on the west side of the State House, was prepared for the use of Congress, while the new City Hall, on the east side, was readied for sessions of the Supreme Court. [Robert Morris](#) made his elegant mansion available for President Washington and his family.

The decade during which Philadelphia served as the capital was a time of "firsts" and precedent-setting decisions, including the inauguration of Washington for his second term, the formal addition of the Bill of Rights to the Constitution, the establishment of the Mint and the First Bank of the United States, and the admission of the first new States (Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee) to the Union. It was here too that the Federal Government weathered the first internal threat to its authority ([the Whiskey Rebellion of 1794](#)) and the first external threats from foreign powers. In 1793, French minister Edmund Genet's disregard of America's proclaimed neutrality in the war then raging between England and France drew a stern rebuke from the Washington Administration. This was the first of a series of diplomatic disputes which, 5 years later, ended the Franco-American alliance of 1778 and brought the two nations to undeclared war. The United States and England were also on the brink of hostilities over problems arising out of the 1783 peace treaty and the seizure of American ships. [Jay's Treaty](#), debated and ratified in [Congress Hall](#), resolved the difficulties and averted war.

When Philadelphia ceased to be in capital in 1800, it never regained its supremacy as the country's principal city. But the events which took place here made Philadelphia an enduring symbol of the ideas and ideals of this Nation's beginnings.



View of Independence Hall, Philadelphia, 1780s. Courtesy of National Archives

Boston Massacre - 1770



1770, pre-Revolutionary incident growing out of the resentment against the British troops sent to Boston to maintain order and to enforce the [Townshend Acts](#). The troops, constantly tormented by irresponsible gangs, finally (March 5, 1770) fired into a rioting crowd and killed five men—three on the spot, two of wounds later. The funeral of the victims was the occasion for a great patriot demonstration. The British captain, Thomas Preston, and his men were tried for murder, with Robert Treat Paine as prosecutor, [John Adams](#) and Josiah Quincy as lawyers for the defense. Preston and six of his men were acquitted; two others were found guilty of manslaughter, punished, and discharged from the army. See study by H. B. Zobel (1970).

Boston Massacre in 1770



Engraving of the Boston Massacre made by Paul Revere as a memorial to the five victims of the shooting.

Threatened with clubs and taunted by jeers, the British redcoats fired into a heckling mob at Boston's "Bloody Massacre." When the smoke and confusion cleared, five Bostonians were dead or dying. John Adams, a lawyer (and future President), helped win acquittal for six of the soldiers, but his cousin, Sam Adams, a patriot leader, called the incident a "plot to massacre the inhabitants of Boston" and used it to rouse fellow colonists to rebel.



Boston's Bloody Massacre, March 5, 1770

An eyewitness account of what happened:

"A number of persons, to the amount of thirty or forty, mostly boys and youngsters, who assembled ... near the sentry at the Custom-house door, damned him, and bid him fire and be damned; and some snow ball were throwed ... I saw a party of soldiers come from the main guard, and draw themselves up ... the people still continued in the street, crying, 'Fire, fire, and be damned,' and hove some more snow balls, whereupon I heard a musket go off, and in the space of two or three seconds, I heard the word 'fire' given ... and instantly the soldiers fired one after another."

Boston Tea Party - 1773



Boston Tea Party

"Fellow countrymen, we cannot afford to give a single inch! If we retreat now, everything we have done becomes useless! If Hutchinson will not send tea back to England, perhaps we can brew a pot of it especially for him!"

Samuel Adams -- December 16, 1773

1773. In the contest between British Parliament and the American colonists before the Revolution, Parliament, when repealing the [Townshend Acts](#), had retained the tea tax, partly as a symbol of its right to tax the colonies, partly to aid the financially embarrassed East India Company. The colonists tried to prevent the consignees from accepting taxed tea and were successful in New York and Philadelphia. At Charleston the tea was landed but was held in government warehouses. At Boston, three tea ships arrived and remained unloaded but Gov. Thomas Hutchinson refused to let the ships leave without first paying the duties. A group of indignant colonists, led by [Samuel Adams](#), [Paul Revere](#), and others, disguised themselves as [Native Americans](#), boarded the ships on the night of Dec. 16, 1773, and threw the tea into the harbor. In reply Parliament passed the Boston Port Bill (see [Intolerable Acts](#)). See study by B. W. Labaree (1964).



NATHANIEL CURRIER: The Boston Tea Party

During the Boston Tea Party, patriots disguised as [Mohawk Indians](#), heaved 342 chests of tea overboard from three British ships. Although the lithograph shows the tea party taking place during the day, it actually occurred at night. The tide was out and the water was so shallow that tea piled up in mounds higher than the boat decks.

Congress Officially Created the U.S. Military

September 29, 1789



Henry Knox, Secretary of War

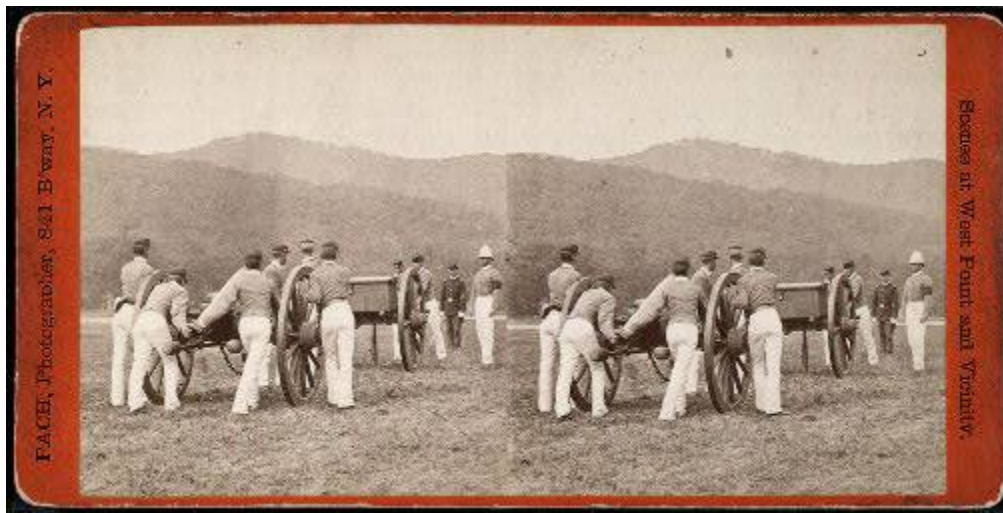
In its very first session, the United States Congress had a lot of decisions to make. One important topic the first representatives and senators needed to address was establishing the U.S. military. There already was a colonial army--the Continental Army--that had fought the British in the American Revolution and won under General George Washington. But this army was not the official army of the United States.

Finally, on September 29, 1789, the last day of its first session, the U.S. Congress passed an act to establish the United States military. However, this happened only after President Washington reminded them, twice!

Washington wrote a letter on August 7, 1789, to remind the Senate and the House of Representatives to create provisions for the U.S. military. He told them he didn't need to argue

for an issue on which the "honor, safety and well being of our Country so evidently and essentially depend: But it may not be amiss to observe that I am particularly anxious it should receive an early attention as circumstances will admit." The Secretary of War, Henry Knox, read this aloud to the members of Congress, but they did not immediately act upon it.

Three days later, on August 10, Washington again urged Congress to address the issue. Finally, on September 29, the House of Representatives and the Senate passed the bill that established the armed forces of the United States of America. This probably meant very little change to the men already serving, but it meant a lot to George Washington. Over time, the United States Navy, Marines, and Air Force would join the ground troops. What do you know about the development of the different military branches since then?



Academies such as West Point were created to train the U.S. military

Constitutional Convention



Continental Congress

Britain responded to the Boston Tea Party in 1774 by passing several laws that became known in America as the Intolerable Acts. One law closed Boston Harbor until Bostonians paid for the destroyed tea. Another law restricted the activities of the Massachusetts legislature and gave added powers to the post of governor of Massachusetts. Those powers in effect made him a dictator. The American colonists were very angered by these forceful acts. In response to these actions and laws, the colonists banded together to fight back. Several committees of colonists called for a convention of delegates from the colonies to organize resistance to the Intolerable Acts. The convention was later to be called the Continental Congress.

The First Continental Congress met in Philadelphia from Sept. 5 to Oct. 26, 1774, to protest the Intolerable Acts. Representatives attended from all the colonies except Georgia. The leaders included Samuel Adams and John Adams of Massachusetts and George Washington and Patrick Henry of Virginia. The Congress voted to cut off colonial trade with Great Britain unless Parliament abolished the Intolerable Acts. It approved resolutions advising the colonies to begin training their citizens for war. They also attempted to define America's rights, place limits on Parliament's power, and agree on tactics for resisting the aggressive acts of the English Government. It also set up the Continental Association to enforce an embargo against England. By the time the first meeting of the Continental Congress ended, hostilities had begun between Britain and the colonies.

Daniel Boone's Move to Kentucky

by **Theodore Roosevelt**



Daniel Boone

American Pioneer and Trailblazer

1734 - 1820

*"I have never been lost, but I will admit
to being confused for several weeks."*

—Daniel Boone

Daniel Boone was born November 2, 1734 in a log cabin in Berks County, near present-day Reading, Pennsylvania. Boone is one of the most famous pioneers in United States history. He spent most of his life exploring and settling the American frontier.

The American backwoodsmen had surged up, wave upon wave, till their mass trembled in the troughs of the Alleghanies, ready to flood the continent beyond. The people threatened by them were dimly conscious of the danger which as yet only loomed in the distance. Far off, among their quiet adobe villages, in the sun-scorched lands by the Rio Grande, the slow Indo-Iberian peons and their monkish masters still walked in the tranquil steps of their fathers, ignorant of the growth of the power that was to overwhelm their children and successors; but nearer by, Spaniard and Creole Frenchman, Algonquin and Appalachian, were all uneasy as they began to feel the first faint pressure of the American advance.

As yet they had been shielded by the forest which lay over the land like an unrent mantle. All through the mountains, and far beyond, it stretched without a break; but toward the mouth of the Kentucky and Cumberland rivers the landscape became varied with open groves of woodland, with flower-strewn glades and great barrens or prairies of long grass. This region, one of the fairest in the world, was the debatable ground between the northern and the southern Indians. Neither dared dwell therein, but both used it as their hunting-grounds; and it was traversed from end to end by the well-marked war traces which they followed when they invaded each other's territory. The whites, on trying to break through the barrier which hemmed them in from the western lands, naturally succeeded best when pressing along the line of least resistance; and so their first great advance was made in this debatable land, where the uncertainly defined hunting-grounds of the Cherokee, Creek, and Chickasaw marched upon those of Northern Algonquin and Wyandot.

Unknown and unnamed hunters and Indian traders had from time to time pushed some little way into the wilderness; and they had been followed by others of whom we do indeed know the names, but little more. One explorer had found and named the Cumberland River and mountains, and the great pass called Cumberland Gap. Others had gone far beyond the utmost limits this man had reached, and had hunted in the great bend of the Cumberland and in the woodland region of Kentucky, famed among the Indians for the abundance of the game. But their accounts excited no more than a passing interest; they came and went without comment, as lonely stragglers had come and gone for nearly a century. The backwoods civilization crept slowly westward without being influenced in its movements by their explorations.

Finally, however, among these hunters one arose whose wanderings were to bear fruit; who was destined to lead through the wilderness the first body of settlers that ever established a community in the Far West, completely cut off from the seaboard colonies. This was Daniel Boone. He was born in Pennsylvania in 1734, but when only a boy had been brought with the rest of his family to the banks of the Yadkin in North Carolina. Here he grew up, and as soon as he came of age he married, built a log hut, and made a clearing, whereon to farm like the rest of

his backwoods neighbors. They all tilled their own clearings, guiding the plow among the charred stumps left when the trees were chopped down and the land burned over, and they were all, as a matter of course, hunters. With Boone hunting and exploration were passions, and the lonely life of the wilderness, with its bold, wild freedom, the only existence for which he really cared. He was a tall, spare, sinewy man, with eyes like an eagle's, and muscles that never tired; the toil and hardship of his life made no impress on his iron frame, unhurt by intemperance of any kind, and he lived for eighty-six years, a backwoods hunter to the end of his days. His thoughtful, quiet, pleasant face, so often portrayed, is familiar to every one; it was the face of a man who never blustered or bullied, who would neither inflict nor suffer any wrong, and who had a limitless fund of fortitude, endurance, and indomitable resolution upon which to draw when fortune proved adverse. His self-command and patience, his daring, restless love of adventure, and, in time of danger, his absolute trust in his own powers and resources, all combined to render him peculiarly fitted to follow the career of which he was so fond.

Boone hunted on the western waters at an early date. In the valley of Boone's Creek, a tributary of the Watauga, there is a beech-tree still standing, on which can be faintly traced an inscription setting forth that "D. Boone cilled a bar on (this) tree in the year 1760." On the expeditions of which this is the earliest record he was partly hunting on his own account, and partly exploring on behalf of another, Richard Henderson. Henderson was a prominent citizen of North Carolina, a speculative man of great ambition and energy. He stood high in the colony, was extravagant and fond of display, and his fortune being jeopardized he hoped to more than retrieve it by going into speculations in western lands on an unheard-of scale; for he intended to try to establish on his own account a great proprietary colony beyond the mountains. He had great confidence in Boone; and it was his backing which enabled the latter to turn his discoveries to such good account.

Boone's claim to distinction rests not so much on his wide wanderings in unknown lands, for in this respect he did little more than was done by a hundred other backwoods hunters of his generation, but on the fact that he was able to turn his daring woodcraft to the advantage of his fellows. As he himself said, he was an instrument "ordained of God to settle the wilderness." He inspired confidence in all who met him, so that the men of means and influence were willing to trust adventurous enterprises to his care; and his success as an explorer, his skill as a hunter, and his prowess as an Indian fighter, enabled him to bring these enterprises to a successful conclusion, and in some degree to control the wild spirits associated with him.

Boone's expeditions into the edges of the wilderness whetted his appetite for the unknown. He had heard of great hunting-grounds in the far interior from a stray hunter and Indian trader, who had himself seen them, and on May 1, 1769, he left his home on the Yadkin "to wander through the wilderness of America in quest of the country of Kentucky." He was accompanied by five other men, including his informant, and struck out toward the northwest, through the tangled mass of rugged mountains and gloomy forests. During five weeks of severe toil the little band journeyed through vast solitudes, whose utter loneliness can with difficulty be understood by those who have not themselves dwelt and hunted in primeval mountain forests. Then, early in June, the adventurers broke through the interminable wastes of dim woodland, and stood on the threshold of the beautiful blue-grass region of Kentucky; a land of running waters, of groves and glades, of prairies, cane-brakes, and stretches of lofty forests. It was teeming with game. The

shaggy-maned herds of unwieldy buffalo--the bison as they should be called--had beaten out broad roads through the forest, and had furrowed the prairies with trails along which they had traveled for countless generations. The round-horned elk, with spreading, massive antlers, the lordliest of the deer tribe throughout the world, abounded, and like the buffalo traveled in bands not only through the woods but also across the reaches of waving grass land. The deer were extraordinarily numerous, and so were bears, while wolves and panthers were plentiful. Wherever there was a salt spring the country was fairly thronged with wild beasts of many kinds. For six months Boone and his companions enjoyed such hunting as had hardly fallen to men of their race since the Germans came out of the Hercynian forest.

In December, however, they were attacked by Indians. Boone and a companion were captured; and when they escaped they found their camp broken up, and the rest of the party scattered and gone home. About this time they were joined by Squire Boone, the brother of the great hunter, and himself a woodsman of but little less skill, together with another adventurer; the two had traveled through the immense wilderness, partly to explore it and partly with the hope of finding the original adventurers, which they finally succeeded in doing more by good luck than design. Soon afterward Boone's companion in his first short captivity was again surprized by the Indians, and this time was slain--the first of the thousands of human beings with whose life-blood Kentucky was bought. The attack was entirely unprovoked. The Indians had wantonly shed the first blood. The land belonged to no one tribe, but was hunted over by all, each feeling jealous of every other intruder; they attacked the whites, not because the whites had wronged them, but because their invariable policy was to kill any strangers on any grounds over which they themselves ever hunted, no matter what man had the best right thereto. The Kentucky hunters were promptly taught that in this no-man's land, teeming with game and lacking even a solitary human habitation, every Indian must be regarded as a foe.

The man who had accompanied Squire Boone was terrified by the presence of the Indians, and now returned to the settlements. The two brothers remained alone on their hunting-grounds throughout the winter, living in a little cabin. About the first of May Squire set off alone to the settlements to procure horses and ammunition. For three months Daniel Boone remained absolutely alone in the wilderness, without salt, sugar, or flour, and without the companionship of so much as a horse or a dog. But the solitude-loving hunter, dauntless and self-reliant, enjoyed to the full his wild, lonely life; he passed his days hunting and exploring, wandering hither and thither over the country, while at night he lay off in the canebrakes or thickets, without a fire, so as not to attract the Indians. Of the latter he saw many signs, and they sometimes came to his camp, but his sleepless wariness enabled him to avoid capture.

Late in July his brother returned, and met him according to appointment at the old camp. Other hunters also no came into the Kentucky wilderness, and Boone joined a small party of them for a short time. Such a party of hunters is always glad to have anything wherewith to break the irksome monotony of the long evenings passed round the camp fire; and a book or a greasy pack of cards was as welcome in a camp of Kentucky riflemen in 1770 as it is to a party of Rocky Mountain hunters in 1888. Boone has recorded in his own quaint phraseology an incident of his life during this summer, which shows how eagerly such a little band of frontiersmen read a book, and how real its characters became to their minds. He was encamped with five other men on Red River, and they had with them for their "amusement the history of Samuel Gulliver's travels,

wherein he gave an account of his young master, Glumdelick, careing [sic] him on a market day for a show to a town called Lulbegrud." In the party who, amid such strange surroundings, read and listened to Dean Swift's writings was a young man named Alexander Neely. One night he came into camp with two Indian scalps, taken from a Shawnese village he had found on a creek running into the river; and he announced to the circle of grim wilderness veterans that "he had been that day to Lulbegrud, and had killed two Brobdignags in their capital." To this day the creek by which the two luckless Shawnees lost their lives is known as Lulbegrud Creek.

Soon after this encounter the increasing danger from the Indians drove Boone back to the valley of the Cumberland River, and in the spring of 1771 he returned to his home on the Yadkin.

A couple of years before Boone went to Kentucky, Steiner, or Stoner, and Harrod, two hunters from Pittsburgh, who had passed through the Illinois, came down to hunt in the bend of the Cumberland, where Nashville now stands; they found vast numbers of buffalo, and killed a great many, especially around the licks, where the huge clumsy beasts had fairly destroyed most of the forest, treading down the young trees and bushes till the ground was left bare or covered with a rich growth of clover. The bottoms and the hollows between the hills were thickset with cane. Sycamore grew in the low ground, and toward the Mississippi were to be found the persimmon and cottonwood. Sometimes the forest was open and composed of huge trees; elsewhere it was of thicker, smaller growth. Everywhere game abounded, and it was nowhere very wary.

Other hunters of whom we know even the names of only a few, had been through many parts of the wilderness before Boone, and earlier still Frenchmen had built forts and smelting furnaces on the Cumberland, the Tennessee, and the head tributaries of the Kentucky. Boone is interesting as a leader and explorer; but he is still more interesting as a type. The west was neither discovered, won, nor settled by any single man. No keen-eyed statesman planned the movement, nor was it carried out by any great military leader; it was the work of a whole people, of whom each man was impelled mainly by sheer love of adventure; it was the outcome of the ceaseless strivings of all the dauntless, restless backwoods folk to win homes for their descendants and to each penetrate deeper than his neighbors into the remote forest hunting-grounds where the perilous pleasures of the chase and of war could be best enjoyed. We owe the conquest of the west to all the backwoodsmen, not to any solitary individual among them; where all alike were strong and daring there was no chance for any single man to rise to unquestioned preeminence.

Chronology of Daniel Boone's Life

1713 Boone's father, Squire, arrives in Philadelphia from England.

1720 Squire Boone and Sarah Morgan marry in the Friends' meetinghouse in Gwynedd, Pennsylvania.

1731 Boone's parents relocate to the upper Schuylkill River valley.

1734 Born in Exeter township, near Reading, on October 22.

1750 Family leaves Pennsylvania for the western country; Boone engages in his first "long hunt."

1751 Family settles in Rowan County, North Carolina, on the Yadkin River; Boone takes up hunting as his business.

1755 French and Indian War begins; Boone with Braddock's army during the disastrous defeat near Pittsburgh.

1756 Marries Rebecca Bryan on August 14; they soon settle in Rowan County.

1759 During the Cherokee War, family flees to Culpeper County, Virginia.

1760 Boone first crosses the Blue Ridge during his winter hunt.

1762 The Boones return to Rowan County.

1765 Boone explores the Florida country with an eye to moving there.

1766 Family moves to a site farther west, near present Wilkesboro, North Carolina.

1767 Reaches Kentucky and hunts along the Big Sandy River.

1768 Regulator rebellion in North Carolina

1769 With five others leaves for a long hunt in Kentucky on May 1; captured by Shawnees on December 22.

1771 Boone returns home after two years in Kentucky.

1773 Boone leads party of family and friends to Kentucky, but they are turned back at Cumberland Gap by an Indian attack that kills his eldest son, James, on October 9.

1774 Sent by Virginia authorities to warn Kentucky surveyors of pending war with Shawnees; leads defense of Clinch River settlements during Dunmore's War.

1775 For the Transylvania Company, leads party cutting the Wilderness Road to Kentucky; founds Boonesborough in the face of Shawnee attacks; brings family to Kentucky.

1776 Leads rescue of daughter Jemima and Callaway girls from Shawnees in July; copy of Declaration of Independence reaches Boonesborough in August.

1778 Boone and his men captured by Shawnees while making salt on February 9; he escapes in June; siege of Boonesborough, September 7-18; rejoins Rebecca and children, who had returned to North Carolina.

1779 Leads large party of emigrants to Kentucky in September; settles Boone's Station, north of the Kentucky River.

1780 Participates in attack on Shawnee towns in Ohio; brother Edward killed by Shawnees in October.

1781 Takes elected seat in Virginia assembly in April; captured by invading British forces in June, but soon released.

1782 One of the commanding officers at the Kentuckians' defeat by Indians at the Blue Licks, where son Israel is killed, August 19; in command of a company that attacks Shawnee towns in November.

1783 Relocates family to Limestone, on the Ohio River; takes up tavern keeping, surveying, and land speculating.

1784 The Adventures of Col. Daniel Boone by John Filson published on Boone's fiftieth birthday.

1786 Commands an attack on Shawnee towns in October.

1787 Helps negotiate prisoner exchange with Shawnees at Limestone in August; takes seat in Virginia assembly in October.

1789 With Rebecca and youngest children leaves Limestone and relocates at Point Pleasant, farther up the Ohio River.

1791 Serves once again in the Virginia assembly; wins contract to supply militia companies in western Virginia.

1792 Dispute over supply contracts leads to his abandonment of business and return to full-time hunting; with Rebecca, soon moves to a cabin near present Charleston, West Virginia.

1795 To be nearer family, relocates to a cabin on Brushy Fork in Kentucky.

1797 Son Daniel Morgan Boone scouts land in Spanish Missouri; governor invites Boones to emigrate.

1798 Kentucky assembly names county after Boone; Mason County issues warrant for his arrest for debt; leaves Brushy Fork for a cabin at the mouth of the Little Sandy River on the Ohio.

1799 Leads extended family from Kentucky to Femme Osage country in Missouri; appointed "syndic" of district by Spanish governor.

1803 Seriously injured in hunting accident; relocates with Rebecca to cabin on the farm of son Nathan; Louisiana Purchase.

1806 Appears before the Federal Land Commission, seeking confirmation of his Spanish land grant.

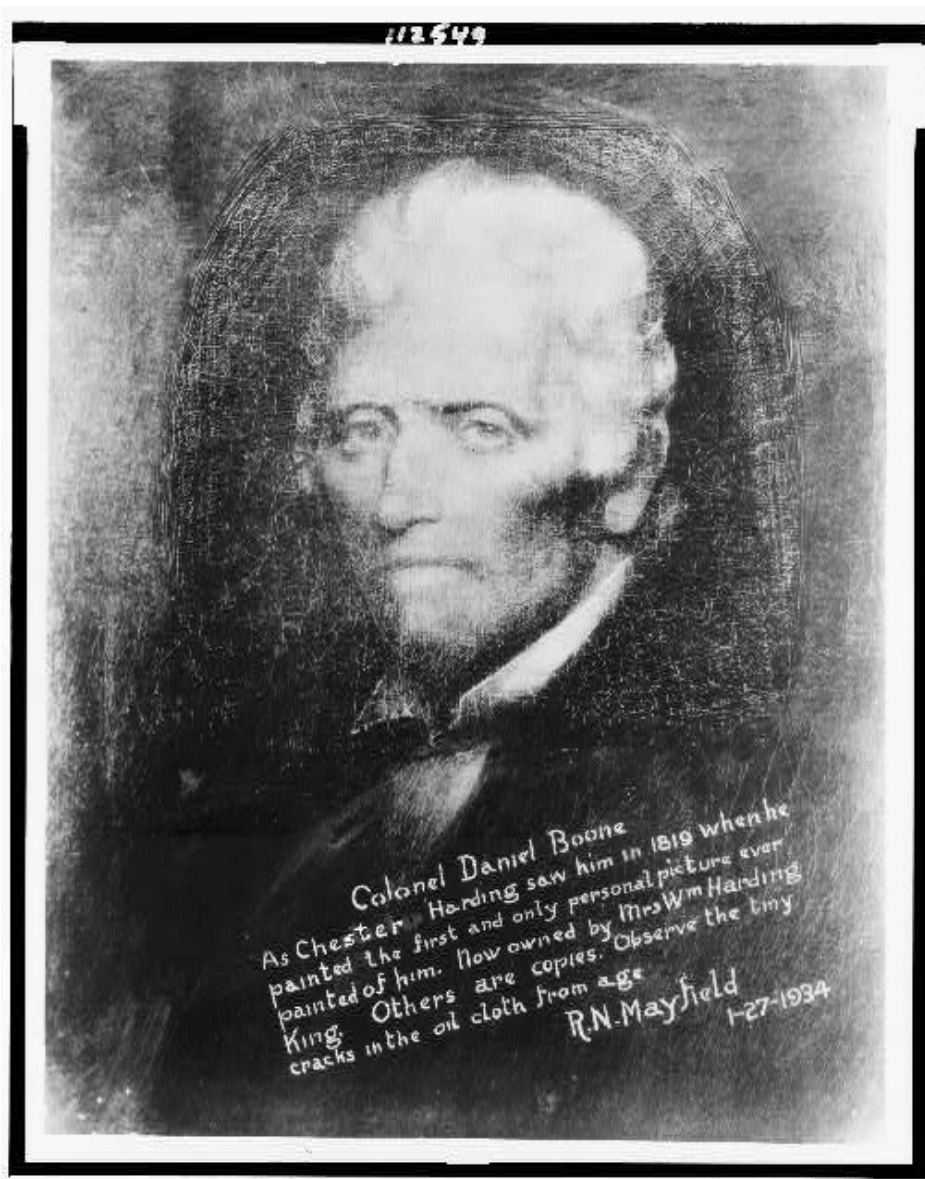
1809 Gets word of rejection of his Spanish land grant; works on petitions to Congress.

1813 Rebecca dies March 18.

1814 Congress grants Boone a tract of Missouri land.

1820 Dies on September 26; buried near Rebecca in the cemetery near Jemima's farm.

1845 A delegation from Kentucky disinters the Boone graves and reburies remains in Frankfort, Kentucky.



Declaration and Resolves of the First Continental Congress October 14, 1774

Whereas, since the close of the last war, the British parliament, claiming a power, of right to bind the people of America by statutes in all cases whatsoever, hath, in some acts, expressly imposed taxes on them, and in others, under various pretences, but in fact for the purpose of raising a revenue, hath imposed rates and duties payable in these colonies, established a board of commissioners, with unconstitutional powers, and extended the jurisdiction of courts of admiralty, not only for collecting the said duties, but for the trial of causes merely arising within the body of a county:

And whereas, in consequence of other statutes, judges, who before held only estates at will in their offices, have been made dependant on the crown alone for their salaries, and standing armies kept in times of peace: And whereas it has lately been resolved in parliament, that by force of a statute, made in the thirty-fifth year of the reign of King Henry the Eighth, colonists may be transported to England, and tried there upon accusations for treasons and misprisions, or concealments of treasons committed in the colonies, and by a late statute, such trials have been directed in cases therein mentioned:

And whereas, in the last session of parliament, three statutes were made; one entitled, "An act to discontinue, in such manner and for such time as are therein mentioned, the landing and discharging, lading, or shipping of goods, wares and merchandise, at the town, and within the harbour of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts-Bay in New England;" another entitled, "An act for the better regulating the government of the province of Massachusetts-Bay in New England;" and another entitled, "An act for the impartial administration of justice, in the cases of persons questioned for any act done by them in the execution of the law, or for the suppression of riots and tumults, in the province of the Massachusetts-Bay in New England;" and another statute was then made, "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec, etc." All which statutes are impolitic, unjust, and cruel, as well as unconstitutional, and most dangerous and destructive of American rights:

And whereas, assemblies have been frequently dissolved, contrary to the rights of the people, when they attempted to deliberate on grievances; and their dutiful, humble, loyal, and reasonable petitions to the crown for redress, have been repeatedly treated with contempt, by his Majesty's ministers of state:

The good people of the several colonies of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex on Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North- Carolina and South-Carolina, justly alarmed at these arbitrary proceedings of parliament and administration, have severally elected, constituted, and appointed deputies to meet, and sit in general Congress, in the city of Philadelphia, in order to obtain such establishment, as that their religion, laws, and liberties, may not be subverted: Whereupon the deputies so appointed being now assembled, in a full and free representation of these colonies, taking into their most serious consideration, the best means of attaining the ends aforesaid, do, in the first place, as Englishmen, their ancestors in like cases have usually done, for asserting and vindicating their rights and liberties, DECLARE,

That the inhabitants of the English colonies in North-America, by the immutable laws of nature, the principles of the English constitution, and the several charters or compacts, have the following RIGHTS:

Resolved, N.C.D. 1. That they are entitled to life, liberty and property: and they have never ceded to any foreign power whatever, a right to dispose of either without their consent.

Resolved, N.C.D. 2. That our ancestors, who first settled these colonies, were at the time of their emigration from the mother country, entitled to all the rights, liberties, and immunities of free and natural- born subjects, within the realm of England.

Resolved, N.C.D. 3. That by such emigration they by no means forfeited, surrendered, or lost any of those rights, but that they were, and their descendants now are, entitled to the exercise and enjoyment of all such of them, as their local and other circumstances enable them to exercise and enjoy.

Resolved, 4. That the foundation of English liberty, and of all free government, is a right in the people to participate in their legislative council: and as the English colonists are not represented, and from their local and other circumstances, cannot properly be represented in the British parliament, they are entitled to a free and exclusive power of legislation in their several provincial legislatures, where their right of representation can alone be preserved, in all cases of taxation and internal polity, subject only to the negative of their sovereign, in such manner as has been heretofore used and accustomed: But, from the necessity of the case, and a regard to the mutual interest of both countries, we cheerfully consent to the operation of such acts of the British parliament, as are bonfide, restrained to the regulation of our external commerce, for the purpose of securing the commercial advantages of the whole empire to the mother country, and the commercial benefits of its respective members; excluding every idea of taxation internal or external, for raising a revenue on the subjects, in America, without their consent.

Resolved, N.C.D. 5. That the respective colonies are entitled to the common law of England, and more especially to the great and inestimable privilege of being tried by their peers of the vicinage, according to the course of that law.

Resolved, N.C.D. 6. That they are entitled to the benefit of such of the English statutes, as existed at the time of their colonization; and which they have, by experience, respectively found to be applicable to their several local and other circumstances.

Resolved, N.C.D. 7. That these, his Majesty's colonies, are likewise entitled to all the immunities and privileges granted and confirmed to them by royal charters, or secured by their several codes of provincial laws.

Resolved, N.C.D. 8. That they have a right peaceably to assemble, consider of their grievances, and petition the king; and that all prosecutions, prohibitory proclamations, and commitments for the same, are illegal.

Resolved, N.C.D. 9. That the keeping a standing army in these colonies, in times of peace, without the consent of the legislature of that colony, in which such army is kept, is against law.

Resolved, N.C.D. 10. It is indispensably necessary to good government, and rendered essential by the English constitution, that the constituent branches of the legislature be independent of each other; that, therefore, the exercise of legislative power in several colonies, by a council appointed, during pleasure, by the crown, is unconstitutional, dangerous and destructive to the freedom of American legislation.

All and each of which the aforesaid deputies, in behalf of themselves, and their constituents, do claim, demand, and insist on, as their indubitable rights and liberties, which cannot be legally taken from them, altered or abridged by any power whatever, without their own consent, by their representatives in their several provincial legislature.

In the course of our inquiry, we find many infringements and violations of the foregoing rights, which, from an ardent desire, that harmony and mutual intercourse of affection and interest may be restored, we pass over for the present, and proceed to state such acts and measures as have been adopted since the last war, which demonstrate a system formed to enslave America.

Resolved, N.C.D. That the following acts of parliament are infringements and violations of the rights of the colonists; and that the repeal of them is essentially necessary, in order to restore harmony between Great Britain and the American colonies, viz.

The several acts of Geo. III. ch. 15, and ch. 34.-5 Geo. III. ch.25.-6 Geo. ch. 52.-7 Geo.III. ch. 41 and ch. 46.-8 Geo. III. ch. 22. which impose duties for the purpose of raising a revenue in America, extend the power of the admiralty courts beyond their ancient limits, deprive the American subject of trial by jury, authorize the judges certificate to indemnify the prosecutor from damages, that he might otherwise be liable to, requiring oppressive security from a claimant of ships and goods seized, before he shall be allowed to defend his property, and are subversive of American rights.

Also 12 Geo. III. ch. 24, intituled, "An act for the better securing his majesty's dockyards, magazines, ships, ammunition, and stores," which declares a new offence in America, and deprives the American subject of a constitutional trial by jury of the vicinage, by authorizing the trial of any person, charged with the committing any offence described in the said act, out of the realm, to be indicted and tried for the same in any shire or county within the realm.

Also the three acts passed in the last session of parliament, for stopping the port and blocking up the harbour of Boston, for altering the charter and government of Massachusetts-Bay, and that which is entitled, "An act for the better administration of justice, etc."

Also the act passed in the same session for establishing the Roman Catholic religion, in the province of Quebec, abolishing the equitable system of English laws, and erecting a tyranny there, to the great danger (from so total a dissimilarity of religion, law and government) of the neighboring British colonies, by the assistance of whose blood and treasure the said country was conquered from France.

Also the act passed in the same session, for the better providing suitable quarters for officers and soldiers in his majesty's service, in North-America.

Also, that the keeping a standing army in several of these colonies, in time of peace, without the consent of the legislature of that colony, in which such army is kept, is against law.

To these grievous acts and measures, Americans cannot submit, but in hopes their fellow subjects in Great Britain will, on a revision of them, restore us to that state, in which both countries found happiness and prosperity, we have for the present, only resolved to pursue the following peaceable measures:

1. To enter into a non-importation, non-consumption, and non-exportation agreement or association.
2. To prepare an address to the people of Great-Britain, and a memorial to the inhabitants of British America: and
3. To prepare a loyal address to his majesty, agreeable to resolutions already entered into.

Taken from: Journals of Congress (ed. 1800), I. pp. 26-30.

Declaration of Independence



Signing of the Declaration of Independence, painting by John Trumbull in U.S. Capitol

In Congress, July 4, 1776. The unanimous declaration of the thirteen United States of America.

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS

DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

WHEN, in the Course of human Events, it becomes necessary for one People to dissolve the Political Bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the Powers of the Earth, the separate and equal Station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's **GOD** entitle them, a decent Respect to the Opinions of Mankind requires that they should declare the Causes which impel them to the Separation.

We hold these Truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed, by their **CREATOR**, with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness.--That to secure these Rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed, that whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these Ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its Foundation on such Principles, and organizing its Powers in such Form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that Governments long established, should not be changed for light and transient Causes; and accordingly all Experience hath shewn, that Mankind are more disposed to suffer, while Evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the Forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long Train of Abuses and Usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object, evinces a Design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their Right, it is their Duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future Security. Such has been the patient Sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the Necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The History of the present King of Great-Britain is a History of repeated Injuries and Usurpations, all having in direct Object the Establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid World.

HE has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public Good.

HE has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing Importance, unless suspended in their Operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

HE has refused to pass other Laws for the Accommodation of large Districts of People, unless those People would relinquish the Right of Representation in the Legislature, a Right inestimable to them, and formidable to Tyranny only.

HE has called together Legislative Bodies at Places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the Depository of their public Records, for the sole Purpose of fatiguing them into Compliance with his Measures.

HE has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly Firmness his Invasions on the Rights of the People.

HE has refused for a long Time, after such Dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean Time, exposed to all the Dangers of Invasion from without, and Convulsions within.

HE has endeavoured to prevent the Population of these States; for that Purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their Migrations hither, and raising the Conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

HE has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers.

HE has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the Tenure of their Offices, and the Amount and Payment of their Salaries.

HE has erected a Multitude of new Offices, and sent hither Swarms of Officers to harrass our People, and eat out their Substance.

HE has kept among us, in Times of Peace, Standing Armies, without the Consent of our Legislatures.

HE has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

HE has combined with others to subject us to a Jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution, and unacknowledged by our Laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:

FOR quartering large Bodies of Armed Troops among us:

FOR protecting them, by a mock Trial, from Punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:

FOR cutting off our Trade with all Parts of the World:

FOR imposing Taxes on us without our Consent:

FOR depriving us, in many Cases, of the Benefits of Trial by Jury:

FOR transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended Offences:

FOR abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an arbitrary Government, and enlarging its Boundaries, so as to render it at once an Example and fit Instrument for introducing the same absolute Rule into these Colonies:

FOR taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:

FOR suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all Cases whatsoever.

HE has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection, and waging War against us.

HE has plundered our Seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our Towns, and destroyed the Lives of our People.

HE is, at this Time, transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to complete the Works of Death, Desolation, and Tyranny, already begun with Circumstances of Cruelty and Perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous Ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized Nation.

HE has constrained our Fellow-Citizens, taken Captive on the high Seas, to bear Arms against their Country, to become the Executioners of their Friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

HE has excited domestic Insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the Inhabitants of our Frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known Rule of Warfare, is an undistinguished Destruction, of all Ages, Sexes, and Conditions.

IN every Stage of these Oppressions we have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble Terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated Injury. A Prince, whose Character is thus marked by every Act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the Ruler of a free People.

NOR have we been wanting in Attentions to our British Brethren. We have warned them, from Time to Time, of Attempts by their Legislature to extend an unwarrantable Jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the Circumstances of our Emigration and Settlement here. We have appealed to their native Justice and Magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the Ties of our common Kindred to disavow these Usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our Connexions and Correspondence. They too have been deaf to the Voice of Justice and of Consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the Necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the Rest of Mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

WE, therefore, the Representatives of the **UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**, in **GENERAL CONGRESS** Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the Rectitude of our Intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly Publish and Declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, **FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES**; that they are absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political Connexion between them and the State of Great-Britain, is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as **FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES**, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and

Things which **INDEPENDENT STATES** may of Right do. And for the Support of this Declaration, with a firm Reliance on the Protection of **DIVINE PROVIDENCE**, we mutually pledge to each other our *Lives*, our *Fortunes*, and our *sacred Honour*.

John Hancock.

GEORGIA, *Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, Geo. Walton.*

NORTH-CAROLINA, *Wm. Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.*

SOUTH-CAROLINA, *Edward Rutledge, Thos Heyward, junr. Thomas Lynch, junr. Arthur Middleton.*

MARYLAND, *Samuel Chase, Wm. Paca, Thos. Stone, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.*

VIRGINIA, *George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Ths. Jefferson, Benja. Harrison, Thos. Nelson, jr. Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.*

PENNSYLVANIA, *Robt. Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benja. Franklin, John Morton, Geo. Clymer, Jas. Smith, Geo. Taylor, James Wilson, Geo. Ross.*

DELAWARE, *Caesar Rodney, Geo. Read.*

NEW-YORK, *Wm. Floyd, Phil. Livingston, Frank Lewis, Lewis Morris.*

NEW-JERSEY, *Richd. Stockton, Jno. Witherspoon, Fras. Hopkinson, John Hart, Abra. Clark.*

NEW-HAMPSHIRE, *Josiah Bartlett, Wm. Whipple, Matthew Thornton.*

MASSACHUSETTS-BAY, *Saml. Adams, John Adams, Robt. Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.*

RHODE-ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE, *&c. Step. Hopkins, William Ellery.*

CONNECTICUT, *Roger Sherman, Saml. Huntington, Wm. Williams, Oliver Wolcott.*

IN CONGRESS, JANUARY 18, 1777.

ORDERED,

THAT an authenticated Copy of the **DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCY**, with the Names of the MEMBERS of CONGRESS, subscribing the same, be sent to each of the **UNITED STATES**, and that they be desired to have the same put on **RECORD**.

By Order of **CONGRESS**,

JOHN HANCOCK, *President.*

BALTIMORE, in MARYLAND: Printed by MARY KATHARINE GODDARD.

Declaration Of The Causes And Necessity Of Taking Up Arms

(July 6, 1775)

A declaration by the representatives of the united colonies of North America, now met in Congress at Philadelphia, setting forth the causes and necessity of their taking up arms.

If it was possible for men, who exercise their reason to believe, that the divine Author of our existence intended a part of the human race to hold an absolute property in, and an unbounded power over others, marked out by his infinite goodness and wisdom, as the objects of a legal domination never rightfully resistible, however severe and oppressive, the inhabitants of these colonies might at least require from the parliament of Great-Britain some evidence, that this

dreadful authority over them, has been granted to that body. But a reverence for our Creator, principles of humanity, and the dictates of common sense, must convince all those who reflect upon the subject, that government was instituted to promote the welfare of mankind, and ought to be administered for the attainment of that end. The legislature of Great-Britain, however, stimulated by an inordinate passion for a power not only unjustifiable, but which they know to be peculiarly reprobated by the very constitution of that kingdom, and desparate of success in any mode of contest, where regard should be had to truth, law, or right, have at length, deserting those, attempted to effect their cruel and impolitic purpose of enslaving these colonies by violence, and have thereby rendered it necessary for us to close with their last appeal from reason to arms. Yet, however blinded that assembly may be, by their intemperate rage for unlimited domination, so to sight justice and the opinion of mankind, we esteem ourselves bound by obligations of respect to the rest of the world, to make known the justice of our cause. Our forefathers, inhabitants of the island of Great-Britain, left their native land, to seek on these shores a residence for civil and religious freedom. At the expense of their blood, at the hazard of their fortunes, without the least charge to the country from which they removed, by unceasing labour, and an unconquerable spirit, they effected settlements in the distant and inhospitable wilds of America, then filled with numerous and warlike barbarians. -- Societies or governments, vested with perfect legislatures, were formed under charters from the crown, and an harmonious intercourse was established between the colonies and the kingdom from which they derived their origin. The mutual benefits of this union became in a short time so extraordinary, as to excite astonishment. It is universally confessed, that the amazing increase of the wealth, strength, and navigation of the realm, arose from this source; and the minister, who so wisely and successfully directed the measures of Great-Britain in the late war, publicly declared, that these colonies enabled her to triumph over her enemies. --Towards the conclusion of that war, it pleased our sovereign to make a change in his counsels.

-- From that fatal movement, the affairs of the British empire began to fall into confusion, and gradually sliding from the summit of glorious prosperity, to which they had been advanced by the virtues and abilities of one man, are at length distracted by the convulsions, that now shake it to its deepest foundations.

-- The new ministry finding the brave foes of Britain, though frequently defeated, yet still contending, took up the unfortunate idea of granting them a hasty peace, and then subduing her faithful friends.

These colonies were judged to be in such a state, as to present victories without bloodshed, and all the easy emoluments of statuteable plunder. -- The uninterrupted tenor of their peaceable and respectful behaviour from the beginning of colonization, their dutiful, zealous, and useful services during the war, though so recently and amply acknowledged in the most honourable manner by his majesty, by the late king, and by parliament, could not save them from the meditated innovations. -- Parliament was influenced to adopt the pernicious project, and assuming a new power over them, have in the course of eleven years, given such decisive specimens of the spirit and consequences attending this power, as to leave no doubt concerning the effects of acquiescence under it. They have undertaken to give and grant our money without our consent, though we have ever exercised an exclusive right to dispose of our own property; statutes have been passed for extending the jurisdiction of courts of admiralty and vice-admiralty

beyond their ancient limits; for depriving us of the accustomed and inestimable privilege of trial by jury, in cases affecting both life and property; for suspending the legislature of one of the colonies; for interdicting all commerce to the capital of another; and for altering fundamentally the form of government established by charter, and secured by acts of its own legislature solemnly confirmed by the crown; for exempting the "murderers" of colonists from legal trial, and in effect, from punishment; for erecting in a neighbouring province, acquired by the joint arms of Great-Britain and America, a despotism dangerous to our very existence; and for quartering soldiers upon the colonists in time of profound peace. It has also been resolved in parliament, that colonists charged with committing certain offences, shall be transported to England to be tried. But why should we enumerate our injuries in detail? By one statute it is declared, that parliament can "of right make laws to bind us in all cases whatsoever." What is to defend us against so enormous, so unlimited a power? Not a single man of those who assume it, is chosen by us; or is subject to our control or influence; but, on the contrary, they are all of them exempt from the operation of such laws, and an American revenue, if not diverted from the ostensible purposes for which it is raised, would actually lighten their own burdens in proportion, as they increase ours. We saw the misery to which such despotism would reduce us. We for ten years incessantly and ineffectually besieged the throne as supplicants; we reasoned, we remonstrated with parliament, in the most mild and decent language.

Administration sensible that we should regard these oppressive measures as freemen ought to do, sent over fleets and armies to enforce them. The indignation of the Americans was roused, it is true; but it was the indignation of a virtuous, loyal, and affectionate people. A Congress of delegates from the United Colonies was assembled at Philadelphia, on the fifth day of last September. We resolved again to offer an humble and dutiful petition to the King, and also addressed our fellow-subjects of Great-Britain. We have pursued every temperate, every respectful measure; we have even proceeded to break off our commercial intercourse with our fellow-subjects, as the last peaceable admonition, that our attachment to no nation upon earth should supplant our attachment to liberty. -- This, we flattered ourselves, was the ultimate step of the controversy: but subsequent events have shewn, how vain was this hope of finding moderation in our enemies.

Several threatening expressions against the colonies were inserted in his majesty's speech; our petition, tho' we were told it was a decent one, and that his majesty had been pleased to receive it graciously, and to promise laying it before his parliament, was huddled into both houses among a bundle of American papers, and there neglected. The lords and commons in their address, in the month of February, said, that "a rebellion at that time actually existed within the province of Massachusetts- Bay; and that those concerned with it, had been countenanced and encouraged by unlawful combinations and engagements, entered into by his majesty's subjects in several of the other colonies; and therefore they besought his majesty, that he would take the most effectual measures to inforce due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature." -- Soon after, the commercial intercourse of whole colonies, with foreign countries, and with each other, was cut off by an act of parliament; by another several of them were intirely prohibited from the fisheries in the seas near their coasts, on which they always depended for their sustenance; and large reinforcements of ships and troops were immediately sent over to general Gage.

Fruitless were all the entreaties, arguments, and eloquence of an illustrious band of the most distinguished peers, and commoners, who nobly and strenuously asserted the justice of our cause, to stay, or even to mitigate the heedless fury with which these accumulated and unexampled outrages were hurried on. -- equally fruitless was the interference of the city of London, of Bristol, and many other respectable towns in our favor. Parliament adopted an insidious manoeuvre calculated to divide us, to establish a perpetual auction of taxations where colony should bid against colony, all of them uninformed what ransom would redeem their lives; and thus to extort from us, at the point of the bayonet, the unknown sums that should be sufficient to gratify, if possible to gratify, ministerial rapacity, with the miserable indulgence left to us of raising, in our own mode, the prescribed tribute. What terms more rigid and humiliating could have been dictated by remorseless victors to conquered enemies? in our circumstances to accept them, would be to deserve them.

Soon after the intelligence of these proceedings arrived on this continent, general Gage, who in the course of the last year had taken possession of the town of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts-Bay, and still occupied it a garrison, on the 19th day of April, sent out from that place a large detachment of his army, who made an unprovoked assault on the inhabitants of the said province, at the town of Lexington, as appears by the affidavits of a great number of persons, some of whom were officers and soldiers of that detachment, murdered eight of the inhabitants, and wounded many others. From thence the troops proceeded in warlike array to the town of Concord, where they set upon another party of the inhabitants of the same province, killing several and wounding more, until compelled to retreat by the country people suddenly assembled to repel this cruel aggression. Hostilities, thus commenced by the British troops, have been since prosecuted by them without regard to faith or reputation. -- The inhabitants of Boston being confined within that town by the general their governor, and having, in order to procure their dismissal, entered into a treaty with him, it was stipulated that the said inhabitants having deposited their arms with their own magistrate, should have liberty to depart, taking with them their other effects. They accordingly delivered up their arms, but in open violation of honour, in defiance of the obligation of treaties, which even savage nations esteemed sacred, the governor ordered the arms deposited as aforesaid, that they might be preserved for their owners, to be seized by a body of soldiers; detained the greatest part of the inhabitants in the town, and compelled the few who were permitted to retire, to leave their most valuable effects behind.

By this perfidy wives are separated from their husbands, children from their parents, the aged and the sick from their relations and friends, who wish to attend and comfort them; and those who have been used to live in plenty and even elegance, are reduced to deplorable distress.

The general, further emulating his ministerial masters, by a proclamation bearing date on the 12th day of June, after venting the grossest falsehoods and calumnies against the good people of these colonies, proceeds to "declare them all, either by name or description, to be rebels and traitors, to supercede the course of the common law, and instead thereof to publish and order the use and exercise of the law martial." -- His troops have butchered our countrymen, have wantonly burnt Charlestown, besides a considerable number of houses in other places; our ships and vessels are seized; the necessary supplies of provisions are intercepted, and he is exerting his utmost power to spread destruction and devastation around him.

We have received certain intelligence, that general Carleton, the governor of Canada, is instigating the people of that province and the Indians to fall upon us; and we have but too much reason to apprehend, that schemes have been formed to excite domestic enemies against us. In brief, a part of these colonies now feel, and all of them are sure of feeling, as far as the vengeance of administration can inflict them, the complicated calamities of fire, sword and famine. [1] We are reduced to the alternative of chusing an unconditional submission to the tyranny of irritated ministers, or resistance by force. -- The latter is our choice. -- We have counted the cost of this contest, and find nothing so dreadful as voluntary slavery. -- Honour, justice, and humanity, forbid us tamely to surrender that freedom which we received from our gallant ancestors, and which our innocent posterity have a right to receive from us. We cannot endure the infamy and guilt of resigning succeeding generations to that wretchedness which inevitably awaits them, if we basely entail hereditary bondage upon them.

Our cause is just. Our union is perfect. Our internal resources are great, and, if necessary, foreign assistance is undoubtedly attainable. -- We gratefully acknowledge, as signal instances of the Divine favour towards us, that his Providence would not permit us to be called into this severe controversy, until we were grown up to our present strength, had been previously exercised in warlike operation, and possessed of the means of defending ourselves. With hearts fortified with these animating reflections, we most solemnly, before God and the world, declare, that, exerting the utmost energy of those powers, which our beneficent Creator hath graciously bestowed upon us, the arms we have been compelled by our enemies to assume, we will, in defiance of every hazard, with unabating firmness and perseverance, employ for the preservation of our liberties; being with one mind resolved to die freemen rather than to live slaves.

Lest this declaration should disquiet the minds of our friends and fellow-subjects in any part of the empire, we assure them that we mean not to dissolve that union which has so long and so happily subsisted between us, and which we sincerely wish to see restored. -- Necessity has not yet driven us into that desperate measure, or induced us to excite any other nation to war against them. -- We have not raised armies with ambitious designs of separating from Great-Britain, and establishing independent states. We fight not for glory or for conquest. We exhibit to mankind the remarkable spectacle of a people attacked by unprovoked enemies, without any imputation or even suspicion of offence. They boast of their privileges and civilization, and yet proffer no milder conditions than servitude or death.

In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birthright, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it -- for the protection of our property, acquired solely by the honest industry of our fore-fathers and ourselves, against violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We shall lay them down when hostilities shall cease on the part of the aggressors, and all danger of their being renewed shall be removed, and not before.

With an humble confidence in the mercies of the supreme and impartial Judge and Ruler of the Universe, we most devoutly implore his divine goodness to protect us happily through this great conflict, to dispose our adversaries to reconciliation on reasonable terms, and thereby to relieve the empire from the calamities of civil war.

Notes:

[1] From this point onwards thought to be the work of Jefferson.

[2] Journal of Congress, edited 1800, I, pp 134-139 **BACKGROUND:**

The Second Continental Congress was remarkable for several things, not the least of which was selecting George Washington as the Commander In Chief of the Continental Army being created to fight the British Army assembled at Boston. You will recall that the "Boston Massacre" and events at Lexington, Concord, and Breeds Hill (next to Bunker Hill) had only recently stirred up the fighting in the northeastern colonies. Once the business of creating an army was taken care of, it was deemed necessary to inform the world of the reasons why the colonies had taken up arms. The first attempt at drafting such a declaration was by Thomas Jefferson, but was ruled far too militant. A second attempt was made by Colonel John Dickinson, known for earlier pamphlets in which he called himself "The Farmer". The final result was apparently a combination of both writers.

Strange that Dickinson should create such a document; he was under considerable pressure from both his wife and mother, both Tory sympathizers, and he was no great fan of the New England representatives to the Congress. An incident related in *_A New Age Now Begins_*, written by Page Smith, marks him as an even more unlikely choice for the writer of such a declaration:

"Dickinson once more had his way when Congress approved still another petition to the king. Dickinson was delighted when it passed and rose to express his pleasure. There was only one word to which he objected since it might possibly offend His Majesty, and that was the word 'Congress'. Whereupon Benjamin Harrison of Virginia promptly rose and, inclining his head to John Hancock, declared, 'There is but one word in the paper, Mr. President, of which I approve, and that is the word "Congress"."

In any case, above is the complete text of that document published almost exactly a year before the Declaration of Independence.

English Powers in the New World - 1713



Events Leading Up To The American Revolution



The year is 1763. The Seven Years War is over. Britain dominates the North American continent east of the Mississippi. With the French no longer a threat to her interests, Britain could now turn her attention to the Colonies. Desiring revenue from the Colonies to offset the massive expenditures for defense, the British administration began stricter enforcement of the [Navigation Acts](#) restricting colonial trade with other nations. And, fearing that New England was becoming too powerful, the King wanted to control the Colonial legislatures.

In the Colonies, the best land near the coast was taken and the settlers wanted to push to the interior. However, the [Indians](#) were still in possession of this land and were rightly distrustful of the settlers' motives.

In a [Royal Proclamation issued on October 7, 1763](#) the new territories were organized into four



areas: Quebec, East Florida, West Florida and the island of Grenada. The lands west of the Appalachians were "reserved" for the Indians. These lands weren't part of any of the Colonies, settlement was forbidden and land negotiations with the Indians were prohibited. The right to arrange surrender of Indian title was reserved for the Crown. The Indians, according to their own laws, administered this territory though non-Indian fugitives could be followed and apprehended. The Proclamation, however, failed to suffocate the appetite of the Colonies for expansion.

In 1764, the British passed the [Sugar Act](#), the first law aimed strictly at raising American money for the Crown, increasing the duties on merchandise imported into the Colonies that was not of British origin. This was followed by the [Currency Act](#). This law barred the Colonies from printing their own currency, arousing the ire of many Americans.

The Colonists, naturally, objected to these acts. At a town meeting in Massachusetts, taxation without representation was cried out against and co-operative protest throughout the Colonies was suggested. Non-importation, or declining to accept merchandise imported from Britain, became the protest of choice in the Colonies.

But on March 24, 1765, the British subsequently renewed the Colonists' fury by passing the Quartering and [Stamp Acts](#). The [Quartering Act](#) of 1765 obligated the Colonies to provide lodging and supplies for British soldiers.

New York became the focus of American resistance to the Quartering Act since, as headquarters for the British military in the Colonies, it was greatly affected by the Act. The New York Assembly refused to support the quartering of troops and a scuffle took place in which one

colonist was injured. Parliament responded by suspending the Assembly's powers, but never executed the suspension because the Assembly quickly agreed to give money for the quartering of troops.

Also established was the Stamp Act, the first direct levy on the Colonies and passed to generate funds for the British. Newspapers, almanacs, pamphlets, broadsides, legal documents, dice, and playing cards were taxed by this act. Stamps, issued by the British, were attached to the taxed items to indicate that the tax had been paid.

The Colonists responded to Stamp Act with organized protest. The non-importation efforts were increased and the Sons of Liberty, a secret group whose purpose was to frighten the agents who were to collect the Stamp tax, was formed. Their efforts were effective – all the designated agents had quit before the Stamp Act had gone into effect.

Also, nine of the thirteen Colonies, on the advice of the Massachusetts Assembly, formed the Stamp Act Congress to labor for the revocation of the Stamp Act. The Congress approved a "[Declaration of Rights and Grievances](#)". This Declaration proclaimed that the Colonists were the equal of all British citizens, objected to taxation without representation and set forth that the British Parliament could not tax the Colonies unless the Colonies had representation in Parliament.

Parliament was divided on the issue of American protest to the Stamp Act. Some believed that the Stamp Act should be enforced through the use of the military, while others praised the Colonists for opposing a tax levied by a Parliament in which they had no representation. Eventually, in 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed.

The Colonies cast aside their policy of non-importation, but the repeal of the Stamp Act didn't mean that Britain was relinquishing any authority over the Colonies. On the same day that the Stamp act was repealed, Parliament passed the Declaratory Act, proclaiming that it could pass legislation binding the Colonies.

In 1767, Parliament passed the [Townshend Acts](#) to help pay the expenses involved in governing the American Colonies. This law instituted levies on glass, lead, paint, paper, and tea. In response to these new taxes, the Colonies again decided to follow the policy of non-importation.

Also in 1767, the pamphlet [Letters from a Farmer in Pennsylvania to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies](#), initially published in a newspaper, was reproduced expansively by John Dickinson. This pamphlet stated that Parliament could not tax the Colonies, called the Townshend Acts unconstitutional and denounced the suspension of the New York Assembly as a menace to colonial freedoms.

In 1768 the Massachusetts Circular Letter, written by [Samuel Adams](#) and endorsed by the Massachusetts House of Representatives, assaulted Parliament's continued taxation of the Colonies without proper representation and called for united resistance by all the Colonies. Many of the remaining Colonies issued similar statements. In response, the British governor of Massachusetts abolished the state's legislature. British troops were brought to Boston; the [Sons](#)

of Liberty threatened armed opposition, but none was extended when the soldiers positioned themselves in Boston.

In 1769, the Virginia House of Burgesses approved resolutions denouncing the British actions against Massachusetts and proclaiming that the citizens of Virginia could be taxed only by the governor and legislature of the Colony. Its members also composed a formal letter to the King, which was concluded just prior to Virginia's Royal governor abolishing its legislature.

Then, in 1770, due to the reduced profits from colonial non-importation, Parliament revoked all of the Townshend Act levies except for the tea tax. In reply to Parliament's easing of its taxation laws, the Colonies reduced their boycott of British imported goods.

However, this apparent lessening of tension wasn't to last. A leading New York Son of Liberty issued an announcement attacking the New York Assembly for conforming to the Quartering Act. A riot erupted between citizens and soldiers, ending in serious injuries, but no deaths.

In Boston, the presence of British troops acted as a nettle to the radical politicians in that city. Then, on Monday, March 5, 1770, after a weekend of minor encounters, the hostility between the British soldiers and the Colonists came to a head.

A crowd of men and boys taunted a guard at the Boston customhouse. Slurs were exchanged between the guard and a local shopkeeper and the sentry responded by striking the merchant with his rifle, resulting in a small riot. A small unit of troops, commanded by Captain Thomas Preston, responded. The mob jeered and threatened the soldiers, but nothing happened until a club was thrown, striking Private Hugh Montgomery. Montgomery fired into the crowd and, without a command from the Captain, the other soldiers joined him. Three Colonists were killed and eight injured, two fatally. The troops were removed to islands in Boston harbor, barely avoiding a major revolt. The soldiers were tried for murder, but defended by John Adams, were convicted of only minor charges.

This event, known as the Boston Massacre, was the first forceful influence in forming a blunt anti-British sentiment in the Colonies. Most importantly, it gave the radical Colonists propaganda to use against the British. In fact, it has been intimated that Samuel Adams incited the entire affair, entirely to this end.

In 1772, the British customs schooner Gaspee grounded near Providence, Rhode Island and was attacked by several boatloads of Colonists. The Royal governor of Rhode Island extended a reward for the capture of the Colonists, scheming to ship them to Britain for trial. This only fueled the Colonists' outrage.

Also in 1772, a "Committee of Correspondence" was created during a Boston town meeting called by Samuel Adams. Similar committees were soon initiated all through the Colonies.

In 1773, Parliament passed the Tea Act, decreasing the tax on imported British tea and in effect, giving British merchants an inequitable edge in selling their tea in the Colonies. On May 10, Parliament sanctioned the East India Tea Co to ship half a million pounds of tea to the Colonies.

Parliament was planning to rescue the bungling company from bankruptcy by not imposing the normal duties and tariffs on the tea. Therefore, the firm could undersell any other tea obtainable in the Colonies, including smuggled tea.

On November 27, when British tea ships arrived in Boston harbor, many citizens wanted the tea sent back to England. On December 16, a group of Colonists, sparsely disguised as Indians, sneaked onto the ships and tossed 342 chests of tea into Boston Harbor. Britain responded to this act, known as the [Boston Tea Party](#), by passing the [Intolerable or Coercive Acts](#) in 1774.

These acts included the [Boston Port Bill](#) (June 1), Administration of Justice Act (May 20), [Massachusetts Government Act](#) (May 20) and [Quebec Act](#) (May 20). The [Quartering Act](#) was also broadened to include occupied buildings.

The Boston Port Bill put the port of Boston off limits to all Colonists until the damages from the Boston Tea Party were paid. The Administration of Justice Act established that British officials could not be tried in the Colonies, but rather would be sent to Britain and tried there. This basically gave British administrators free reign as no justice would be served while they were still in the Colonies. The Massachusetts Government Act gave the British governor of Massachusetts control of town meetings and placed the election of most governmental offices under control Royal control, basically doing away with the Massachusetts charter of government.

The Quebec Act was used as a mechanism to reaffirm the Crown's control within the Proclamation lands. It expanded the boundaries of Quebec south to the Ohio River near present day Pittsburgh, down the Ohio to the Mississippi and north to Rupert's Land, effectively cutting the Colonies of Connecticut, Massachusetts and Virginia off from the west. This blocking of Colonial expansion was one of the complaints set forth by the Colonists in the [Declaration of Independence](#) two years later.

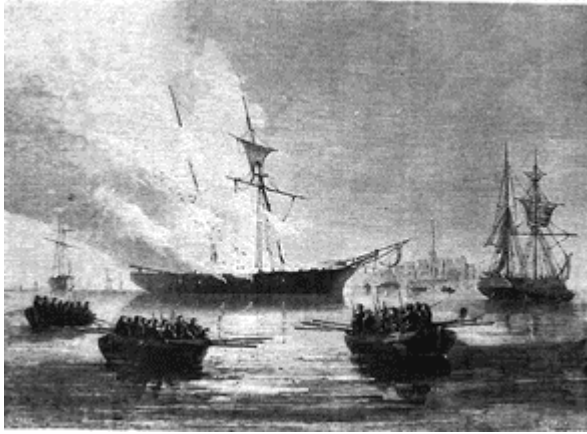
Massachusetts proposed a return to non-importation as protest of the Intolerable Acts. But certain Colonies favored a congress of all the Colonies to consider unified protest. With the exception of Georgia, the Colonies selected delegates to attend the first [Continental Congress](#) in Philadelphia on September 5.

Boston was fortified and ammunition belonging to Massachusetts was seized by British troops. No fighting occurred, though American militiamen were ready to resist. Groups of Minute Men, militia who were to be prepared on a minutes notice were organized and a Provincial Congress and Committee of Safety were formed by Massachusetts to decide when they would be called into action.

In 1775, Parliament passed the [New England Restraining Act](#). This prohibited the New England Colonies from trading with any country other than Britain. It was also decided to use force to impose compliance with recent Acts.

On April 18th, the Boston Committee of Safety discovered a British plan to send troops to Concord to seize ammunition. [Paul Revere](#) and William Dawes were sent to relay the warning

and alert the Minute Men. On the 19th, the British troops came upon the Minute Men at Lexington. During the encounter, a shot – “the shot heard ‘round the world” – was fired and the [American Revolution](#) had begun.



British customs schooner *Gaspee*



Federalists and Jeffersonians

To secure passage of the [Constitution](#), the Framers resorted to wholesale compromise. But by deliberately avoiding divisive details that might frustrate agreement, they only postponed the formidable task of fashioning the workaday policies and procedures of the new federal structure. Their task, then, did not conclude with the ratification of the Constitution, and many of the architects of that document would remain to lead the nation as it came to grips with the complex issues of representative government. In so doing, they passed laws and established precedents, many of which endure to this day.

Among those signers of the Constitution and others who stepped forward to lead the new nation were numerous veterans of the Revolution. In fact, in the debates that surrounded the creation and implementation of the new government, the wartime experiences of this large group of men created a special bond and a commonality of purpose. Although often masked by the overblown partisan rhetoric of the era, this element of a shared personal experience undoubtedly contributed to their record of accomplishment in a special time of national testing. Eventually the Revolution's aging citizen-soldiers would turn over leadership to a new generation of political leaders—but not before they had produced the first political parties, formulated the basic domestic policies that increased the size and economic strength of the country, and made the United States a full-fledged member of the family of nations. Carefully adhering to the letter and spirit of the Constitution, they also created an effective military force to protect the frontiers, meet domestic disturbances, and wage general war, all while adhering strictly to the cherished principle of civilian supremacy.

The First Congress under the new Constitution convened in New York City on 4 March 1789 with only eight senators and thirteen representatives in attendance. The lower chamber finally achieved a quorum on 1 April and began its work by electing Frederick A.C. Muhlenberg of Pennsylvania as the first Speaker of the House. Five days later the Senate followed suit, choosing New Hampshire's John Langdon, a signer, as its first President Pro Tempore. As soon as these formalities were completed, Congress convened the joint session specified in Section 1, Article II, of the Constitution to open and count the ballots of the Electoral College, which had voted on 4 February. To no ones surprise, the College had unanimously chosen George Washington as the first President of the United States. John Adams was elected Vice President. Robert R. Livingston, New York's state chancellor, administered the oath of office to the former general on the balcony of Federal Hall (located at the corner of Broad and Wall Streets) on 30 April 1789.

Washington's enormous personal popularity and prestige had made him the obvious choice for President in an era of strong political controversy. His wealth of administrative and political experience, gained in large measure during his years as Commander in Chief of the Continental Army, qualified him as no other to handle the complex duties of an office that combined the European roles of head of state and head of government. Above all, and to the immense good luck of the new nation, he possessed the common sense to judge accurately the mood of his fellow citizens and the temperament to avoid overly ambitious schemes. He retained a clear vision of the nation's future—one based on liberty and justice for all citizens, strength through union, and economic prosperity through commercial expansion and westward migration.

Washington shared the difficult task of creating a new government with the First Congress (1789-91). Among the 29 senators and 66 representatives who served in that body, 59, including 17 signers of the Constitution, had seen active military service during the Revolution. These veterans provided the new government with a substantial pool of common experience, a decisive factor when Congress passed the implementing legislation that launched the new government.

Its first task was to establish the structure of the other two branches. The Constitution gave Congress the authority to create departments within the executive branch to assist the President in carrying out his responsibilities and to organize a system of federal courts. Accordingly, it created a Department of Foreign Affairs on 27 July 1789, a War Department on 7 August, and a Treasury on 2 September. The office of Postmaster General followed on 22 September. Two days later it passed the Federal Judiciary Act, which established the position of Attorney General and organized a federal judiciary with three circuit and thirteen district courts below the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court, consisting of Chief Justice John Jay and five other justices, opened its first session on 2 February 1790.

This spate of legislation was quickly passed, and by 1790 the center of political initiative had shifted to the executive branch. Washington relied on a Cabinet composed of the heads of the departments to help develop an agenda for both domestic issues and foreign policy. Naturally enough, he turned to Revolutionary veterans to fill his Cabinet and many of the positions in the new federal civil service. With the exception of Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson, every member of the Cabinet had served in the Continental Army—Attorney General Edmund Randolph, Secretary of War Henry Knox, Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton, and Postmaster General Samuel Osgood. Washington used these men like a council of war. During

meetings he encouraged them to speak their minds and discuss issues freely. The President's quiet demeanor led his fellow citizens, and most historians ever since, to focus on the roles of his subordinates, rather than on his decisive voice, in the events of his administration. True, Washington always sought consensus before embarking on a policy, but he always felt free to disregard his Cabinet's advice. In fact, Washington proved singularly successful in imposing his personality, first on the Continental Army and later on the office of President. Many of the traditions and customs of both the Army and the Cabinet draw directly on the precedents he set.

Washington turned first to the national security and the economy. He believed that by pursuing a program based on safeguarding the nation's boundaries he could encourage prosperity and cement the bonds of union. He also believed that international affairs had to be subordinated to nation building, which required supporting and protecting the expansion of American trade to new markets. Specifically, he looked to the nation's frontiers, where he worked for a withdrawal of British forces from their bases on American soil, for peace with the Indians, and for the opening of western rivers, especially the Mississippi, to American commerce. He tended to agree with Hamilton on these issues, believing that the Treasury Secretary's programs to broaden the economy and strengthen the national government were essential for national growth. His administration's two major international agreements, the Treaty of London (Jay's Treaty) in 1794 and the Treaty of San Lorenzo (Pinckney's Treaty) in 1795, attempted, among other goals, to neutralize British and Spanish influence in the trans-Appalachian west. A measure of his success in these areas was the fact that during his term of office he presided over the admission of three new states to the union—Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, and Tennessee in 1796.

His Cabinet figured prominently in the development of these policies. But given the brilliance and aggressive personalities of Jefferson and Hamilton, it was not surprising that the two disagreed over the proper course of action to pursue in both domestic and foreign arenas. Hamilton, concerned with developing the material resources necessary for the advancement of prosperity and the influence of the government both internally and diplomatically, proposed a far-reaching economic policy to render the nation self-sufficient. He tended to favor Great Britain in foreign affairs. Jefferson, more attuned to the old fears of concentrated power and to the ideal of an agrarian society of yeoman farmers, was more cautious about enhancing the powers of the federal government. He also sympathized with the French, who were in the early years of their own revolution, triggered in part by the debt engendered during the recent war. Each man attracted supporters. Given the era's depth of political passion, these national-level disagreements naturally became grafted onto local issues, providing the nucleus of political parties.

Washington sought to preserve a consensus throughout his eight years in office, but his treaties with Britain and Spain became issues of contention between the nascent parties, as did his attempt to keep America neutral in the resurgent conflict between France and Britain, a policy that initially appeared to favor the latter. No longer able to accept these policies, Jefferson left the Cabinet in 1793. His followers, led in Congress by James Madison and James Monroe, and known as Democratic-Republicans (or, more commonly, as Jeffersonians) gathered round him. Supporters of the administration, ranging in viewpoint from Hamilton's outspoken followers to moderates like John Adams, who succeeded Washington as President in 1797, became known as Federalists.

The Founding Fathers, who viewed any internal division as a threat to the republic, had left the Constitution mute on the subject of political parties. The significant factor behind the emergence of the parties, however, was not their obvious disagreements over policies and programs, but rather their mutual, steadfast support of the Constitution and the principles of government it enshrined. The peaceful transfer of political power from the Federalists to the Democratic-Republicans in 1801 marked an important step in the nation's political evolution.

In defeating Adams in the election of 1800, Jefferson profited from a division in the Federalist party between the followers of Adams and Hamilton. The Virginian and his running mate, Aaron Burr, a former Continental lieutenant colonel, each garnered an equal number of votes in the Electoral College, throwing the election for the first time into the House of Representatives. Ironically, Jefferson would owe his victory to Hamilton, who advised his followers to vote for his old rival. The bitterness engendered by this election led directly to the adoption of the Twelfth Amendment, which in effect bestowed constitutional recognition on political parties in the American system of government. More significantly, however, this election underscored the widespread acceptance of the new Constitution and the union it had created. Despite the unprecedented partisan rivalry, compromise remained essential to the operation of government, and parties, then as now, were actually broad-based coalitions. Even important state leaders such as South Carolina's Charles Pinckney could shift back and forth between the parties according to specific issues. During his inauguration that year, the first held in the new capital on the banks of the Potomac, Jefferson said, "We are all Republicans, we are all Federalists. " In this declaration, he accurately reflected how widely most of the five million Americans agreed on basic goals and forecast how readily he and the new leadership could adjust, rather than rescind, their predecessors' policies.

Under Jefferson and Madison, who became President in 1809, American foreign and domestic policy continued to pursue with only minor adjustments the course set by Washington. As could be expected given the relative power of nations, American diplomacy still had to react to events in Europe, where the Napoleonic Wars were the dominant fact of life. Washington had been able to avoid entanglement. Adams had become embroiled in limited hostilities with France for a time, but he also had sought diplomatic rather than military solutions to outstanding differences. Jefferson and Madison in turn attempted to place primary reliance on diplomacy. To back up their efforts, however, they relied more on economic leverage than on the military preparedness favored by the Federalists, drawing particularly on the boycott tactics of the decade before the Revolutionary War for a precedent. The logical extension of this policy came during the period of the Embargo Act (22 December 1807-1 March 1809) when American commerce with both France and Britain was halted to eliminate friction and preserve neutrality. Federalists, especially in New England and other regions heavily dependent upon foreign trade, complained bitterly that their interests were being ruined by the government.

Jefferson's domestic policy also retained the essence of many Federalist initiatives, to include Hamilton's economic program. In particular he continued Washington's focus on western expansion and development, underscored by the admission of Ohio to statehood in 1802 and by his greatest triumph, the Louisiana Purchase. As soon as he learned of the transfer of the Louisiana territories from Spain to France, Jefferson instructed Monroe and Robert R. Livingston to try to purchase the area around New Orleans. Westerners depended upon the Mississippi River

to move their produce to market and were anxious to secure unfettered use of the river's sole port. To the Americans' surprise, Napoleon eventually offered them the entire region, and in April 1803 the territories were transferred to the United States for the sum of \$15 million. The purchase proved immediately popular, but the irony of the situation was not overlooked. Here was Jefferson, the leader of those dedicated to a strict interpretation of presidential powers under the Constitution, abrogating to himself alone the nationalistic decision to seize the unique opportunity of doubling the size of the nation. Continuing in the spirit of Washington's nation-building policy, Jefferson immediately sent out a series of military expeditions-the most famous being led by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark-to explore the vast region. In 1812 Louisiana became the first state admitted to the union from the former French region.

One of the most critical issues facing the first generation of federal leaders was the formulation of a national military policy. Washington's administration and Congress set important precedents in this area as they filled in the outline of military forces sketched by the Constitution. Working together, they determined the size and role of the Regular Army and then resolved the relationship between the states and the national government in dealing with the militia. These decisions had to be made in the context of foreign and domestic policy objectives. They also had to be based on the realities of increasing partisan political activity, since the Constitution explicitly gave the final say to the people, speaking through their elected representatives in Congress, in appropriating the funds to pay for troops, guns, and ships.

When Washington took office he inherited a situation verging on open warfare in the west. Along with the Congress, he quickly came under intense pressure from interest groups to provide the settlers with better protection. The delicate issue of the role of the military thus received its first airing within that highly charged specific context. Josiah Harmar's small regiment had been created by the Continental Congress in 1784 to serve as a frontier constabulary, but the westward movement had accelerated with the establishment of the Northwest Territory in 1787 and the organization in 1790 of the Territory South of the Ohio River, or Southwest Territory, under Governor William Blount. Indian tribes, encouraged by British garrisons and traders, began sporadic attacks, and as early as 1788 the Army began taking casualties.

The President hoped to avoid war and set in motion a series of interim measures even before the new War Department was organized. He ordered Harmar's men further west and asked Henry Knox and Arthur St. Clair to begin gathering information in case operations had to be mounted. In the meantime the creation of the War Department on 7 August 1789 provided for an orderly transfer of responsibility to the new government. Secretary of War Knox exercised oversight for Indian diplomacy in addition to his other duties. The following month Congress imposed on the officers and men of Harmar's regiment the requirement to take an oath to "support the constitution of the United States." Hidden as a rider in this law was authorization empowering the President to mobilize frontier militia under federal pay and control if the situation warranted. Conditions continued to worsen as Washington pursued a policy of trying to negotiate a settlement while at the same time preparing for possible fighting.

To placate settlers in the Kentucky region, Washington successfully persuaded Congress in early 1790 to provide a modest (four company) increase in the size of the Army. In June he ordered Harmar into the field. Washington and Knox envisioned a raid deep into the Indian heartland by

a small, hard-hitting party to demonstrate the federal government's power, followed by a negotiated treaty. Unfortunately, the slow-moving Harmar did not start until late fall, burned a few Indian villages, and then lost most of his rear guard during the withdrawal. Knox and Washington ordered St. Clair, who replaced Harmar as the commander of the Army, to try again the next year. In the interim, the administration persuaded Congress to raise a second regular regiment and to authorize several thousand Provincial-style short-term levies. St. Clair not only repeated all of Harmar's errors, he also violated one of the cardinal rules of frontier warfare by ignoring adequate security and reconnaissance. At dawn on 4 November 1791 about 1,000 Indians overran his camp. More than 600 soldiers and militiamen died in the ensuing rout.

Although St. Clair's defeat marked the second major setback in less than two years, Washington and Knox decided that their basic policy of combining diplomacy with regular troops constituted the correct approach to the western problem, and they redoubled efforts to raise a proper force to carry it out. Congress eventually conducted a full investigation into the Army's conduct of the 1791 campaign, establishing thereby an important precedent for congressional oversight of the executive branch, one not specifically authorized by the Constitution. But it also continued to support the administration's military policy. In January 1792, Washington requested that the military budget be tripled to a million dollars a year to support a 5,000-man Army. When neither Gerry, the most outspoken foe of a large military, nor Madison, the leading Jeffersonian in Congress, opposed the request, a bill to that effect became law in March. Revolutionary War hero "Mad" Anthony Wayne resigned his seat in the House of Representatives to replace St. Clair, with a commission as major general.

The Second Congress also passed the first comprehensive militia law. Washington and other nationalists ended the Revolutionary War convinced that militia forces needed to be highly trained and capable of close coordination with the regulars on the battlefield. Their proposals for a peace establishment in 1783 had advanced the notion of a select militia force to achieve this goal, backed up by the general militia. In succeeding years both Steuben and Knox published pamphlets refining this idea, which included paying this "advanced corps" for their days of extra training. Many others believed that the highly motivated militias of the 1770s had been the key to success in the Revolution, and they were highly suspicious of any reforms that might weaken the close ties to local government inherent in the old colonial militia system.

Washington had been unable to push a federal militia bill through Congress in either 1789 or 1790. In February 1792, while debate over the expanded Regular Army continued, Congress finally began detailed consideration of two bills which, known collectively as the Militia Act of 1792, passed in early May. This legislation rejected separating militiamen into two distinct classes.

The reformers had clearly failed to convince a majority that the current situation warranted either the expense or the political risk of such tight federal control. Instead, the Militia Act compromised, allowing the President to mobilize the citizen-soldiers when necessary and to set national, but non-binding, standards for organization and training. This arrangement, identical to the one discussed during the writing of the Constitution's militia clause, was accepted because it still left the individual states with major control over their militia. The reformers might lament the fact that the efficiency of the citizen-soldiers would continue to depend ultimately on local

rather than national initiatives, but they could read progress in the general acceptance of the notion of a national standard and in the new law's provision for the organization of volunteer groups who purchased their own uniforms and underwent extra military training to become elite "flank" companies in the militia regiments. Everyone understood that under normal circumstances only these men would be mobilized. Despite some minor modifications, this law would remain in force until the creation of the modern National Guard in 1903.

The first test of the new militia act came on the frontier. Wayne, like Harmar and St. Clair, was a veteran who had served in Washington's main army and in Nathanael Greene's Southern Army during the Revolution. Unlike his predecessors, however, he remembered the important lessons about the need for adequate training, proper organization and logistics, and blending regulars and militia into a combat team that made use of their separate skills. He worked closely with Knox to adapt those ideas to the task of wilderness fighting. The regulars were regrouped into the Legion of the United States, a special combined-arms arrangement, based on European ideas, that already had been used in the later stages of the Revolution. After two years of careful preparation, the Legion, reinforced by nearly 3,000 frontier militiamen, penetrated into the heart of Indian territory in the Ohio Valley. On 20 August 1794, at Fallen Timbers, Wayne's hard work paid off. His regular infantry used their bayonets to drive the Indians into the open where the mounted frontiersmen rode them down. The battle and resulting destruction of neighboring villages and crops broke the tribes' resistance. On 3 August 1795 in the Treaty of Greenville a dozen tribes ceded their claims to disputed lands and moved farther west. At about the same time, Jay's Treaty brought British agreement to withdraw from all forts within the boundaries of the United States.

These treaties eliminated much of the Army's preoccupation with the old Northwest Territory, freeing the troops for service in the Southwest Territory, where settlement was beginning to accelerate. This frontier was noted for the spirit and independence of the settlers in Kentucky and Tennessee. Controlling the area had been a challenging assignment for Governor William Blount, a signer of the Constitution, and would prove equally troublesome for the Army officers assigned to duty in the region.

Southwesterners had a reputation for independent military action. This tradition had proved beneficial during the Revolution, particularly at King's Mountain and during George Rogers Clark's epic struggles, but it would pose serious difficulties for both Federalist and Jeffersonian officials. Free access to the river systems feeding into the Mississippi, as Washington had foreseen during the 1780s, remained essential to the region's economic prosperity, and westerners were tempted to take direct action against Spanish-controlled Louisiana. English agents encouraged such actions because of the Napoleonic Wars, believing that any action harmful to Spain, France's ally, could only benefit England. In fact, national leaders of both parties regarded the southwest as an area that might try to break away from the union and sought to preclude such a disaster, even to the point of expelling Blount from the Senate—to which he had been elected when Tennessee became a state in 1796—when they suspected that he might have been involved with British agents in such a plot. Others, notably General James Wilkinson, who had succeeded Wayne as commanding general, and Aaron Burr, were also later charged with plotting with foreign agents to separate the region from the United States. The Army played an important role in defusing the situation. Garrisons of regulars steadfastly preserved law and

order and guaranteed that any attempt to create an independent republic in the southwest never progressed beyond the realm of dreams. With adequate military protection, the frontier remained calm for a generation.

The military had faced a different and more difficult mission in the summer of 1794 when farmers in western Pennsylvania, who bitterly resented Hamilton's 1791 excise taxes on liquor since it was manufactured from their only cash crop, rebelled. The new government's response to the so-called Whiskey Rebellion stood in sharp contrast to the Continental Congress' reaction to the rioting led by Daniel Shays. When Washington learned that Governor Thomas Mifflin had refused to use state militia against the rioters because he feared the political consequence, the President exercised his powers under the Constitution and the 1792 Militia Act. In August 1794 he called out a force of some 15,000 militiamen from nearby states under Governor Henry Lee of Virginia, an ex-Continental. The overwhelming display of strength ended the "revolt" without serious incident. This success, coupled with Wayne's victory at Fallen Timbers, greatly enhanced the prestige of the central government. Washington and most other leaders accepted the use of force in each of these cases only as a last resort; a small element of the Federalist party, however, drew a different lesson. Led by Hamilton, they pressed for a larger Regular Army as a means of expanding the power of the national government, an aim central to their political thinking.

International circumstances seemed to support their scheme. The Federalists had originally justified the need for a peacetime army to cope with Indian harassment on the frontier. Raids by North Africa's Barbary States on American shipping and the growing threat of peripheral entanglement in the war in Europe provided the rationale for an expansion of this military force in 1794. After some debate, Congress created a modest six-frigate Navy, approved a plan for federally funded harbor defenses at selected ports, and increased the size of the Army by forming a Corps of Artillerists and Engineers. The latter would provide small regular garrisons for the new fortifications, which could easily be reinforced in an emergency by the militia from the surrounding area. This political compromise, acceptable to both parties, reflected the lesson learned in the Revolution that effective defense required full-time troops that only the national government could train and support, but also relied, for reasons of cost, on the abilities of the militia to turn out in mass. A month after approving the coast defense program, Congress authorized the establishment of federal arsenal and armory facilities at Springfield, Massachusetts, and Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, for government production of arms and equipment.

With tensions on both the frontier and high seas defused during the winter of 1795-96, the Jeffersonians pressured Washington's administration to cut military expenses as a way of reducing taxes. They cited the successful use of federalized militia, rather than regulars, in the Whiskey Rebellion to strengthen their arguments. The resulting legislation, passed in May 1796, reflected a broad bipartisan consensus on defense issues. Although cuts were made in spending, establishing a precedent of congressional review of line items in a defense budget, the Army and Navy were accepted as permanent institutions, not just temporary expedients to meet specific crises. The Army, reduced in size, used the ensuing years of peace to consolidate its internal organization and sense of identity. James McHenry, the third consecutive Continental veteran to serve as Secretary of War, introduced a variety of administrative reforms to improve Army

efficiency. He issued the first comprehensive peacetime Army Regulations in 1798 and took actions to reinforce the concept of civilian control over the Army's officer corps.

Rising tensions between France and the United States in 1797 once more favored Hamilton's plans for military expansion. Adams dispatched three diplomats, Gerry, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, and John Marshall (the latter two, Continental veterans), to Paris to try to resolve differences, but in what has come to be known as the XYZ Affair, their French counterparts demanded bribes as a condition for holding meetings, an affront that triggered popular outrage across the United States. The Federalists believed that the best way to avoid open warfare would be to demonstrate that the country was prepared to fight, and as membership in the volunteer militia surged, the Adams administration introduced a modest request for additional regular forces.

The more extreme wing of the Federalist party, spearheaded by Hamilton, had much more ambitious goals. It pushed a series of bills through Congress between May 1798 and March 1799 that created, on paper at least, an elaborate military array: an expanded force of regulars, a 10,000-man Provisional Army, and an even larger "Eventual Army." Hamilton and his followers persuaded Washington to lend his prestige and popularity to the cause. Commissioned a lieutenant general, the retired President became commander of this "Grand Army," while other Revolutionary veterans (including Charles Cotesworth Pinckney) filled the remaining senior positions. Hamilton himself became the Inspector General and assumed the burden of day-to-day administration. Reality lagged far behind these grandiose plans, and less than 4,000 men actually joined an Army that never saw action in this "Quasi-War." On the other hand, naval vessels successfully fought in the Caribbean and Atlantic, and Congress established a separate Navy Department on 30 April 1798 under ex-Continental Benjamin Stoddert to manage the rapid growth of the fleet.

The size of the Army during the Quasi-War soon became a sensitive political issue. The Jeffersonians were convinced that France was not about to fight in North America, and in the same sense used by the colonists in the decade before the Revolution, they came to consider the underutilized regulars a "standing army." They feared that Hamilton and his allies planned to use it to crush domestic opposition. At each step of the expansion process they raised this issue. While Federalist spokesmen in Congress such as Connecticut's Uriah Tracy, a Revolutionary militiaman, stressed the notion of preparing for war with a well-trained regular force and then negotiating from strength, Jeffersonian military experts like Thomas Sumter, Daniel Morgan, and William Shepard, also veterans of the Revolution, claimed that the militia provided an adequate force for the purpose. President Adams sided with the Jeffersonians against the extremists in his own party. He had always preferred diplomacy, and when he resolved the outstanding issues with France, he quickly persuaded Congress to trim the military back to peacetime levels. Federalist leaders, aware that they lacked support for an extensive defense establishment, led the planning for demobilization in the hope that in doing so they could preserve a minimal regular force. Three Revolutionary veterans in Congress, John Marshall, Samuel Smith, and Theodore Sedgewick, representing, respectively, the moderate Federalists, the Jeffersonians, and the extreme Federalists, worked out a series of compromises that led to reductions in the Army in May 1800 and in the Navy early the following year.

Jefferson's administration took office determined to reduce federal expenses, especially military ones, but with no intention of dismantling the remaining Regular Army. Although he and his service Secretaries, Revolutionary veterans Henry Dearborn (Army) and Robert Smith (Navy), placed great faith in the prowess of the militia to defend the nation from invasion, they pragmatically accepted the need for a limited force of full-time soldiers and sailors. Beginning in 1802 they used the annual appropriations process to tailor the armed forces to more limited defensive roles. Their reorganization of the Army in 1802, for example, called for drastic cuts, but actually eliminated few enlisted men. Instead, units and the staff were manipulated to force out most of the more partisan Federalist senior officers, who were replaced with Jeffersonians or moderate Federalists.

Jefferson also seized upon a reform originally proposed by the Federalists but transformed it to meet his own needs. Since the Revolution, the Army had suffered from a lack of native-born engineers and technical specialists. Proposals to establish a European-style military academy to train such individuals had failed in Congress, although it did authorize training for a group of cadets in the Corps of Artillerists and Engineers during the Quasi-War period. The Federalists had hoped to expand this nucleus into separate courses of formal instruction for artillery, engineer, infantry, cavalry, and naval officers. Jefferson recognized that many Federalists enjoyed a competitive edge when they applied for commissions because, generally, they came from families that could afford good educations. To obtain equal opportunity for others, he altered the Federalist proposal and won congressional approval for the establishment of a military academy at West Point where cadets would receive a basic civilian and military education; their technical, branch-related training would occur after graduation.

Jeffersonian hopes of further naval reductions were shelved when the Barbary States resumed raids on American shipping. Washington and Adams both had chosen to pay tribute to halt these piratical acts, but Jefferson, believing that fundamental issues of justice and honor were at stake, refused to follow suit. He also believed direct action in this instance would be more cost-effective than bribery. With Congress in recess, he dispatched a small Navy squadron to Tripoli on his own authority. Even his Cabinet questioned the legality of such an action, but Jefferson justified it, and provided a new interpretation of the Constitution in so doing by claiming that as Commander in Chief he could respond to aggression without prior congressional approval. In fact, when Congress reconvened in November 1801, it approved the naval expedition. Operations dragged on until 1805 when bombardment, close blockade, and an internal revolt finally forced the Pasha of Tripoli to sue for peace. Similar aggressive tactics were also employed by both Jefferson and Madison to neutralize the remaining Barbary States.

These operations combined with political pressure from commercial interests to force Jefferson to retain a larger blue-water Navy than members of his party would have liked. The latter argued that the large frigates and ships of the line favored by the Federalists could provoke trouble by appearing to Europeans to be a threat against their colonies in the Caribbean and in Latin America. On the other hand, they pointed out, a combination of fortifications and small boats mounting one or more heavy cannon had effectively protected most of the coastline during the Revolution. Jefferson came in time to agree that reverting to this purely defensive system could guarantee American interests in a cost-effective way and avoid the risk of antagonizing the Europeans. But in June 1807 a major international incident in American territorial waters caused

a *volte face*. The British frigate *Leopard* fired on the *United States Navy's Chesapeake* just off the Virginia coast when the American vessel refused to submit to being searched. An indignant population called for a declaration of war, but the administration remained committed to diplomatic measures. At the same time, the Jeffersonians were pragmatic enough to realize that stronger defenses would add leverage, and in 1808 and 1809 they persuaded Congress to fund a new round of coastal fortifications and once again to expand the Regular Army to man the new forts and to garrison the Louisiana Territory more effectively.

When Jefferson's party first came to power, its military and foreign policies, reminiscent of the pre-Revolutionary days, appeared strongly at odds with those of the Federalists. It preached the importance of the militia as the bulwark of freedom, the dangers of standing armies, the sufficiency of economic persuasion in international relations, and the need to reduce government expenses and taxes. But once in power, the Jeffersonians developed pragmatic policies not all that different from Federalist precedents. This similarity actually should have come as no surprise, since many of the Jeffersonians had served in the Revolution alongside their Federalist counterparts and had absorbed the same lessons. In retrospect, the basic defense program initiated under Washington and Adams survived and prospered under Jefferson and Madison because both sides saw it as a natural evolution from two centuries of experience that met the needs of the new nation. Passionate political speeches aside, the difference between the two parties came to be more a matter of emphasis than a fundamental division over principles.

The military policies fashioned by the first generation of federal leaders had their final test when the country went to war against Britain in 1812. Americans called the War of 1812 a "Second War of Independence," and, indeed, the war did reaffirm the victory of 1783. But in a larger sense, the War of 1812 was really one small phase of the last of the eighteenth century's global struggles. Once again the British considered fighting in North America less important than the struggle against Napoleon in Europe. In many ways, the conduct of the war was conditioned by and mirrored the Revolution, particularly the phase after 1778. The Madison administration divided military responsibilities for the war along traditional lines. The regulars, like Washington's continentals, formed the main battle forces, first to carry the attack to Canada and thereafter to defend against the main British Army. The militia retained its customary local functions, reinforcing the coast defense forts and Navy gunboats and supporting the regulars in major engagements.

Between 1812 and 1815 the American military system, created by the Soldier-Statesmen of the Revolutionary generation and in part still commanded by veterans of the War for Independence, was tested again. If the war did not noticeably enhance the international reputation of America's military forces, it nevertheless proved them sufficient to the task of stalemating a powerful enemy. In a number of key engagements, the nation watched able young generals, whose careers would continue well into the nation's coming of age, assume the mantle of leadership from the aging veterans of the Revolution. The youthful Andrew Jackson's victory at New Orleans, for example, mirrored that of Samuel Smith of Revolutionary War renown in the successful repulse of the British before Baltimore just months before. Both proved once again that regulars and militia could be effectively combined in combat, just as they had been at Cowpens, when they were employed in a team effort that did not require either to carry out tasks alien to its own capabilities. Their achievements in this "second War for Independence" demonstrated that the

Founding Fathers, ever suspicious of standing armies in the European sense, had created a workable alternative for the new nation.

The contribution of the Soldier-Statesmen to the foundation of the republic is often dominated by a discussion of numbers. As might be expected, former soldiers, who had developed strong leadership and organizational skills during the war, gravitated to similar positions in the peacetime government. As a result, Revolutionary veterans clearly dominated government in the early years of the new republic.¹ A majority of the men who signed the Constitution were veterans. A similar ratio of veterans to nonveterans existed in the First Congress. Successive Congresses would continue to include a significant number of veterans down through the end of the Thirteenth Congress in 1815, and in fact veterans would control the leadership in both houses of Congress long after their total numbers dwindled to a minority. Veterans also dominated the executive branch of the national government well into the nineteenth century. Two, Washington and Monroe, served as President, and their colleagues in arms constituted a majority in every presidential Cabinet through 1816, thirty-five years after the battle of Yorktown. They also held office in great numbers at every level of the civil service, from senior diplomats serving in delicate international negotiations to customs officials, postmasters, and those unheralded workers who managed the day-to-day functions of the commonweal. While the number of veterans in the federal judiciary was considerably less imposing, a former Continental Army captain, John Marshall of Virginia, presided as Chief Justice for thirty-four years and did as much to shape the future of the nation as any figure of his time. Veterans also held a host of positions in state and local government where, allied with their comrades in the federal system, they would exercise a major influence on the direction of government for many generations.

More important than sheer numbers was the common sense of purpose of this group of leaders. Most wanted to institute a powerful federal republic, yet one embodying a system of checks and balances that would prevent any single element of government from overriding the common good. They also wanted to create a military establishment that was always subordinate to the elected civilian leaders. If they sometimes seemed to pay excessive attention to the size and roles of that establishment, it should be remembered that the Founding Fathers had clear precedents—both colonial and European—for regarding the Army as a potential source of mischief. The system they devised—a carefully circumscribed regular military force supplemented by a well-regulated militia—has remained in force for two hundred years. The success of this system owes much to the first President and Commander in Chief. Washington's wise military advice, clearly articulated in his "Sentiments on a Peace Establishment" and his "Farewell Address," has been a guidepost for the American military establishment. Above all, he demanded that the American soldier is first and foremost a citizen, with all the duties and rights that others enjoy, not someone outside the mainstream of society.

As rationalists, the Founding Fathers had a profound respect for the appeal of personal civic duty and responsibility. In the early days of the new republic, they reinforced the subordination of the military establishment to the civilian government in an individual way. In 1789 they called on every officer, noncommissioned officer, and private soldier "who are, or shall be, in the service of the United States" to take an oath, which with only minor modification in wording has remained an integral part of the life of every serviceman and woman. In a special way they

become partners of the Founding Fathers when, at the beginning of their military careers, each repeats the familiar words:

I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same.

In taking this oath, they not only underscore the nation's continuing dedication to the Constitution, but reflect the central place of that document in the unfolding history of the republic.

Winning of Independence

1777-1783

First Fruits of the French Alliance

While the Continental Army was undergoing its ordeal and transformation at Valley Forge, Howe dallied in Philadelphia, forfeiting whatever remaining chance he had to win a decisive victory before the effects of the French alliance were felt. He had had his fill of the American war and the king accepted his resignation from command, appointing General Clinton as his successor. As Washington prepared to sally forth from Valley Forge, the British Army and the Philadelphia Tories said goodbye to their old commander in one of the most lavish celebrations ever held in America, the *Mischianza*, a veritable Belshazzar's feast. The handwriting on the wall appeared in the form of orders, already in Clinton's hands, to evacuate the American capital. With the French in the war, England had to look to the safety of the long ocean supply line to America and to the protection of its possessions in other parts of the world. Clinton's orders were to detach 5,000 men to the West Indies and 3,000 to Florida, and to return the rest of his army to New York by sea.

As Clinton prepared to depart Philadelphia, Washington had high hopes that the war might be won in 1778 by a co-operative effort between his army and the French Fleet. The Comte d'Estaing with a French naval squadron of eleven ships of the line and transports carrying 4,000 troops left France in May to sail for the American coast. D'Estaing's fleet was considerably more powerful than any Admiral Howe could immediately concentrate in American waters. For a brief period in 1778 the strategic initiative passed from British hands, and Washington hoped to make full use of it.

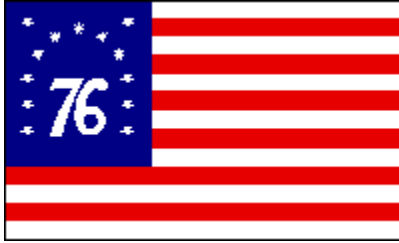
Clinton had already decided, before he learned of the threat from d'Estaing, to move his army overland to New York prior to making any detachments, largely because he could find no place for 3,000 horses on the transports. On June 18, 1778, he set out with about 10,000 men. Washington, who by that time had gathered about 12,000, immediately occupied Philadelphia and then took up the pursuit of Clinton, undecided as to whether he should risk an attack on the British column while it was on the march. His Council of War was divided, though none of his generals advised a "general action." The boldest, Brig. Gen. Anthony Wayne, and the young

major general, the Marquis de Lafayette, urged a "partial attack" to strike at a portion of the British Army while it was strung out on the road; the most cautious, General Lee, who had been exchanged and had rejoined the army at Valley Forge, advised only guerrilla action to harass the British columns. On June 26 Washington decided to take a bold approach, though he issued no orders indicating an intention to bring on a "general action." He sent forward an advance guard composed of almost half his army to strike at the British rear when Clinton moved out of Monmouth Court House on the morning of June 27. Lee, the cautious, claimed the command from Lafayette, the bold, when he learned the detachment would be so large.

In the early morning, Lee advanced over rough ground that had not been reconnoitered and made contact with the British rear, but Clinton reacted quickly and maneuvered to envelop the American right flank. Lee, feeling that his force was in an untenable position, began a retreat that became quite confused. Washington rode up amidst the confusion and, exceedingly irate to find the advance guard in retreat, exchanged harsh words with Lee. He then assumed direction of what had to be a defense against a British counterattack. The battle that followed, involving the bulk of both armies, lasted until nightfall on a hot, sultry day with both sides holding their own. For the first time the Americans fought well with the bayonet as well as with the musket and rifle, and their battlefield behavior generally reflected the Valley Forge training. Nevertheless, Washington failed to strike a telling blow at the British Army, for Clinton slipped away in the night and in a few days completed the retreat to New York. Lee demanded and got a court-martial at which he was judged, perhaps unjustly, guilty of disobedience of orders, poor conduct of the retreat, and disrespect for the Commander in Chief. As a consequence he retired from the Army, though the controversy over his actions at Monmouth was to go on for years.

Washington, meanwhile, sought his victory in co-operation with the French Fleet. D'Estaing arrived off the coast on July 8 and the two commanders at first agreed on a combined land and sea attack on New York, but d'Estaing feared he would be unable to get his deep-draft ships across the bar that extended from Staten Island to Sandy Hook, in order to get at Howe's inferior fleet. They then decided to transfer the attack to the other and weaker British stronghold at Newport, Rhode Island—a city standing on an island with difficult approaches. A plan was agreed on whereby the French Fleet would force the passage on the west side of the island and an American force under General Sullivan would cross over and mount an assault from the east. The whole scheme soon went awry. The French Fleet arrived off Newport on July 29 and successfully forced the passage; Sullivan began crossing on the east on August 8 and d'Estaing began to disembark his troops. Unfortunately at this juncture Admiral Howe appeared with a reinforced British Fleet, forcing d'Estaing to re-embark his troops and put Out to sea to meet Howe. As the two fleets maneuvered for advantage, a great gale scattered both on August 12. The British returned to New York to refit, and the French Fleet to Boston, whence d'Estaing decided he must move on to tasks he considered more pressing in the West Indies. Sullivan was left to extricate his forces from an untenable position as best he could, and the first experiment in Franco-American co-operation came to a disappointing end with recriminations on both sides.

The fiasco at Newport ended any hopes for an early victory over the British as a result of the French alliance. By the next year, as the French were forced to devote their major attention to the West Indies, the British regained the initiative on the mainland, and the war entered a new phase.



Flags of The American Revolution



First flag at Independence Hall

The early days of the American Revolution led to the use of many flags as the colonists struggled with the aims of the revolt, whether rights within the British Empire or outright independence. Early designs tended to be modifications of British flags until the colonials took the path of independence in 1776. From that point on, the flags of the United States took their own distinct path. [History of the American Flag.](#)

British Red Ensign



An ensign used by British naval and merchant ships, the Red Ensign is the British flag initially favored by the colonists, and all designs of American flags descended from this banner

Grand Union Flag



1775-1777

First used by George Washington on January 1, 1776, this modification of the British Red Ensign became in effect the first national flag of the United States.

Don't Tread On Me



Flag

Rattlesnake flags were very popular with the colonists, particularly the more militant ones. This variation of the "Don't Tread on Me" theme was used by Rhode Island naval figure Esek Hopkins.

Betsy Ross Flag



1777

This is the flag design that legend says was created by Betsy Ross for George Washington. Although most modern historians doubt the story, it has become a vital part of American History

Stars and Stripes



One of the original 13 star flags, the "Stars and Stripes" was probably the most commonly used variant.

Bennington Flag



1777

This unique flag was carried into battle by Vermont troops at the Battle of Bennington in 1777.

American Stripes



The American Stripes flag was flown on American Merchant Ships during the Revolutionary era.

General Washington's



Headquarters Flag

This unique flag was flown at the headquarters of General Washington during most of the Revolutionary War.

Serapis Flag



1779

This flag was flown over the *Bonhomme Richard*, the ship commanded by Captain John Paul Jones, during his epic duel in the North Sea with the British frigate the *Serapis*.

Guilford Flag



1781

This flag was flown by Colonial troops at the Battle of Guilford Courthouse in North Carolina in 1781.

Star Spangled Banner



1795-1818

After the addition of Vermont and Kentucky to the Union in the early 1790s, the official flag of the United States became the 15 star, 15 stripe flag. It was used until 1818. This was the flag whose presence on the flagpole of Fort McHenry in Baltimore, Maryland inspired Francis Scott Key to write the poem "The Star Spangled Banner." The poem was later put to music and in 1931 became our national anthem.

George Washington

1732-1799

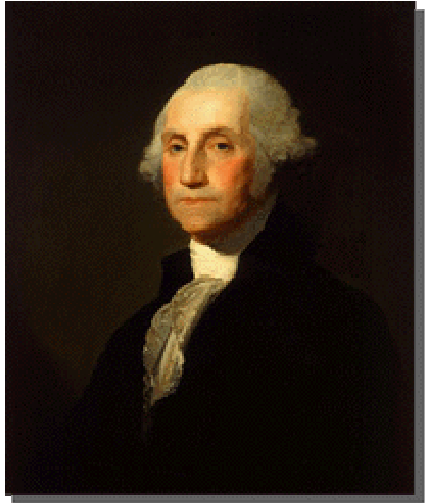


George Washington was commander in chief of the Continental army during the American Revolution and first president of the United States (1789-97)

Early Life and Career

Born in Westmoreland County, Va., on Feb. 22, 1732, George Washington was the eldest son of Augustine Washington and his second wife, Mary Ball Washington, who were prosperous Virginia gentry of English descent. George spent his early years on the family estate on Pope's

Creek along the Potomac River. His early education included the study of such subjects as mathematics, surveying, the classics, and "rules of civility." His father died in 1743, and soon thereafter George went to live with his half brother Lawrence at Mount Vernon, Lawrence's plantation on the Potomac. Lawrence, who became something of a substitute father for his brother, had married into the Fairfax family, prominent and influential Virginians who helped launch George's career. An early ambition to go to sea had been effectively discouraged by George's mother; instead, he turned to surveying, securing (1748) an appointment to survey Lord Fairfax's lands in the Shenandoah Valley. He helped lay out the Virginia town of Belhaven (now Alexandria) in 1749 and was appointed surveyor for Culpeper County. George accompanied his



brother to Barbados in an effort to cure Lawrence of tuberculosis, but Lawrence died in 1752, soon after the brothers returned. George ultimately inherited the Mount Vernon estate.

By 1753 the growing rivalry between the British and French over control of the Ohio Valley, soon to erupt into the [French and Indian War](#) (1754-63), created new opportunities for the ambitious young Washington. He first gained public notice when, as adjutant of one of Virginia's four military districts, he was dispatched (October 1753) by Gov. Robert Dinwiddie on a fruitless mission to warn the French commander at Fort Le Boeuf against further encroachment on territory claimed by Britain. Washington's diary account of the dangers and difficulties of his journey, published at Williamsburg on his

return, may have helped win him his ensuing promotion to lieutenant colonel. Although only 22 years of age and lacking experience, he learned quickly, meeting the problems of recruitment, supply, and desertions with a combination of brashness and native ability that earned him the respect of his superiors.



French and Indian War

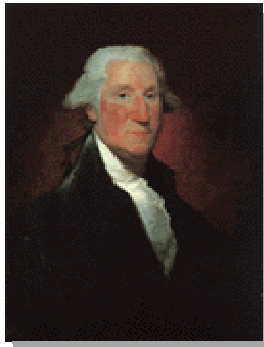
In April 1754, on his way to establish a post at the Forks of the Ohio (the current site of Pittsburgh), Washington learned that the French had already erected a fort there. Warned that the French were advancing, he quickly threw up fortifications at Great Meadows, Pa., aptly naming the entrenchment Fort Necessity, and marched to intercept advancing French troops. In the resulting skirmish the French commander the sieur de Jumonville was killed and most of his men were captured. Washington pulled his small force back into Fort Necessity where he was overwhelmed (July 3) by the French in an all-day battle fought in a drenching rain. Surrounded by enemy troops, with his food supply almost exhausted and his dampened ammunition useless, Washington capitulated. Under the terms of the

surrender signed that day, he was permitted to march his troops back to Williamsburg.



Discouraged by his defeat and angered by discrimination between British and colonial officers in rank and pay, he resigned his commission near the end of 1754. The next year, however, he volunteered to join [British General Edward Braddock's](#) expedition against the French. When Braddock was ambushed by the French and their Indian allies on the Monongahela River, Washington, although seriously ill, tried to rally the Virginia troops. Whatever public criticism attended the debacle, Washington's own military reputation was enhanced, and in 1755, at the age of 23, he was promoted to colonel and appointed commander in chief of the Virginia militia, with responsibility for defending the frontier. In 1758 he took an active part in Gen. John Forbes's successful campaign against [Fort Duquesne](#). From his correspondence during these years, Washington can be seen evolving from a brash, vain, and opinionated young officer, impatient with restraints and given to writing admonitory letters to his superiors, to a mature soldier with a grasp of administration and a firm understanding of how to deal effectively with civil authority.

Virginia Politician



Assured that the Virginia frontier was safe from French attack, Washington left the army in 1758 and returned to Mount Vernon, directing his attention toward restoring his neglected estate. He erected new buildings, refurnished the house, and experimented with new crops. With the support of an ever-growing circle of influential friends, he entered politics, serving (1759-74) in Virginia's House of Burgesses. In January 1759 he married [Martha Dandridge Custis](#), (Martha Washington, the first First Lady of the United States) a wealthy and attractive young widow with two small children. It was to be a happy and satisfying marriage. After 1769, Washington became a leader in Virginia's opposition to Great Britain's colonial policies. At first he hoped for reconciliation with Britain, although some British policies had touched him personally. Discrimination against colonial military officers had rankled deeply, and British land policies and restrictions on western expansion after 1763 had seriously hindered his plans for western land speculation. In addition, he shared the usual planter's dilemma in being continually in debt to his London agents. As a delegate (1774-75) to the [First](#) and [Second Continental Congress](#), Washington did not participate actively in the deliberations, but his presence was undoubtedly a stabilizing influence. In June 1775 he was Congress's unanimous choice as commander in chief of the Continental forces.

American Revolution

Washington took command of the troops surrounding British-occupied Boston on July 3, devoting the next few months to training the undisciplined 14,000-man army and trying to secure urgently needed powder and other supplies. Early in March 1776, using cannon brought down from Ticonderoga by [Henry Knox](#), Washington occupied Dorchester Heights, effectively commanding the city and forcing the British to evacuate on March 17. He then moved to defend

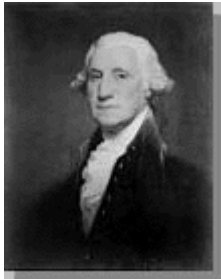
New York City against the combined land and sea forces of [Sir William Howe](#). In New York he committed a military blunder by occupying an untenable position in Brooklyn, although he saved his army by skillfully retreating from Manhattan into Westchester County and through New Jersey into Pennsylvania. In the last months of 1776, desperately short of men and supplies, Washington almost despaired. He had lost New York City to the British; enlistment was almost up for a number of the troops, and others were deserting in droves; civilian morale was falling rapidly; and Congress, faced with the possibility of a British attack on Philadelphia, had withdrawn from the city.

Colonial morale was briefly revived by the capture of [Trenton, N.J.](#), a brilliantly conceived attack in which Washington crossed the Delaware River on Christmas night 1776 and surprised the predominantly Hessian garrison. Advancing to [Princeton, N.J.](#), he routed the British there on Jan. 3, 1777, but in September and October 1777 he suffered serious reverses in Pennsylvania--at [Brandywine](#) and [Germantown](#). The major success of that year--the defeat (October 1777) of the British at [Saratoga, N.Y.](#)--had belonged not to Washington but to [Benedict Arnold](#) and [Horatio Gates](#). The contrast between Washington's record and Gates's brilliant victory was one factor that led to the so-called Conway Cabal--an intrigue by some members of Congress and army officers to replace Washington with a more successful commander, probably Gates. Washington acted quickly, and the plan eventually collapsed due to lack of public support as well as to Washington's overall superiority to his rivals. After holding his bedraggled and dispirited army together during the difficult winter at [Valley Forge](#), Washington learned that France had recognized American independence. With the aid of the Prussian Baron von Steuben and the French [Marquis de LaFayette](#), he concentrated on turning the army into a viable fighting force, and by spring he was ready to take the field again. In June 1778 he attacked the British near [Monmouth Courthouse, N.J.](#), on their withdrawal from Philadelphia to New York. Although American general [Charles Lee's](#) lack of enterprise ruined Washington's plan to strike a major blow at [Sir Henry Clinton's](#) army at Monmouth, the commander in chief's quick action on the field prevented an American defeat.

In 1780 the main theater of the war shifted to the south. Although the campaigns in Virginia and the Carolinas were conducted by other generals, including [Nathanael Greene](#) and [Daniel Morgan](#), Washington was still responsible for the overall direction of the war. After the arrival of the French army in 1780 he concentrated on coordinating allied efforts and in 1781 launched, in cooperation with the [comte de Rochambeau](#) and the comte d'Estaing, the brilliantly planned and executed [Yorktown Campaign](#) against British Army Leader [Lord Charles Cornwallis](#), securing (Oct. 19, 1781) the American victory.

Washington had grown enormously in stature during the war. A man of unquestioned integrity, he began by accepting the advice of more experienced officers such as [Horatio Gates](#) and [Charles Lee](#), but he quickly learned to trust his own judgment. He sometimes railed at Congress for its failure to supply troops and for the bungling fiscal measures that frustrated his efforts to secure adequate materiel. Gradually, however, he developed what was perhaps his greatest strength in a society suspicious of the military--his ability to deal effectively with civil authority. Whatever his private opinions, his relations with Congress and with the state governments were exemplary--despite the fact that his wartime powers sometimes amounted to dictatorial authority. On the battlefield Washington relied on a policy of trial and error, eventually becoming a master

of improvisation. Often accused of being overly cautious, he could be bold when success seemed possible. He learned to use the short-term militia skillfully and to combine green troops with veterans to produce an efficient fighting force.



After the war Washington returned to Mount Vernon, which had declined in his absence. Although he became president of the Society of the Cincinnati, an organization of former Revolutionary War officers, he avoided involvement in Virginia politics. Preferring to concentrate on restoring [Mount Vernon](#), he added a greenhouse, a mill, an icehouse, and new land to the estate. He experimented with crop rotation, bred hunting dogs and horses, investigated the development of Potomac River navigation, undertook various commercial ventures, and traveled (1784) west to examine his land holdings near the Ohio River. His diary notes a steady stream of

visitors, native and foreign; Mount Vernon, like its owner, had already become a national institution.



In May 1787, Washington headed the Virginia delegation to the [Constitutional Convention](#) in Philadelphia and was unanimously elected presiding officer. His presence lent prestige to the proceedings, and although he made few direct contributions, he generally supported the advocates of a strong central government. After the new [Constitution](#) was submitted to the states for ratification and became legally operative, he was unanimously elected president (1789).

The Presidency

Taking office (Apr. 30, 1789) in New York City, Washington acted carefully and deliberately, aware of the need to build an executive structure that could accommodate future presidents.

Hoping to prevent sectionalism from dividing the new nation, he toured the New England states (1789) and the South (1791). An able administrator, he nevertheless failed to heal the widening breach between factions led by Secretary of State [Thomas Jefferson](#) and Secretary of the Treasury [Alexander Hamilton](#). Because he supported many of Hamilton's controversial fiscal policies--the assumption of state debts, the Bank of the United States, and the excise tax--Washington became the target of attacks by Jeffersonian Democratic-Republicans. [More about his Presidency](#)

Washington was reelected president in 1792, and the following year the most divisive crisis arising out of the personal and political conflicts within his cabinet occurred--over the issue of American neutrality during the war between England and France. Washington, whose policy of neutrality angered the pro-French Jeffersonians, was horrified by the excesses of the French Revolution and enraged by the tactics of Edmond Genet, the French minister in the United States, which amounted to foreign interference in American politics. Further, with an eye toward developing closer commercial ties with the British, the president agreed with the Hamiltonians on the need for peace with Great Britain. His acceptance of the [1794 Jay's Treaty](#), which settled



outstanding differences between the United States and Britain but which Democratic-Republicans viewed as an abject surrender to British demands, revived vituperation against the president, as did his vigorous upholding of the excise law during the [Whiskey Rebellion](#) in western Pennsylvania.

Retirement and Assessment

By March 1797, when Washington left office, the country's financial system was well established; the Indian threat east of the Mississippi had been largely eliminated; and Jay's Treaty and Pinckney's Treaty (1795) with Spain had enlarged U.S. territory and removed serious diplomatic difficulties. In spite of the animosities and conflicting opinions between Democratic-Republicans and members of the Hamiltonian Federalist party, the two groups were at least united in acceptance of the new federal government. Washington refused to run for a third term and, after a masterly [Farewell Address](#) in which he warned the United States against permanent alliances abroad, he went home to Mount Vernon. He was succeeded by his vice-president, Federalist [John Adams](#).

Although Washington reluctantly accepted command of the army in 1798 when war with France seemed imminent, he did not assume an active role. He preferred to spend his last years in happy retirement at Mount Vernon. In mid-December, Washington contracted what was probably quinsy or acute laryngitis; he declined rapidly and died at his estate on Dec. 14, 1799.

Even during his lifetime, Washington loomed large in the national imagination. His role as a symbol of American virtue was enhanced after his death by Mason L. Weems, in an edition of whose *Life and Memorable Actions of George Washington* (c.1800) first appeared such legends as the story about the cherry tree. Later biographers of note included Washington Irving (5 vols., 1855-59) and Woodrow Wilson (1896). Washington's own works have been published in various editions, including *The Diaries of George Washington*, edited by Donald Jackson and Dorothy Twohig (6 vols., 1976-79), and *The Writings of George Washington, 1745-1799*, edited by John C. Fitzpatrick (39 vols., 1931-44).

[George Washington was the first recipient of the prestigious Congressional Gold Medal on May 25, 1776](#)



George Washington's uniform, 1770s-80s

The uniform coat, waistcoat, and pair of knee breeches came to the Smithsonian in 1883 from the Patent Office. (The ruffled shirt and boots are reproductions.) Although these items were all worn by Washington, they were not all worn together. The general wore the waistcoat and breeches during the Revolutionary War but did not wear the uniform coat until about 1789, after he had resigned from the Continental Army to become the nation's commander-in-chief.

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

Greene's Southern Campaign

It was the frontier militia assembling "when they were about to be attacked in their own homes" who struck the blow that actually marked the turning point in the south. Late in 1780, with Clinton's reluctant consent, Cornwallis set out on the invasion of North Carolina. He sent Maj. Patrick Ferguson, who had successfully organized the Tories in the upcountry of South Carolina, to move north simultaneously with his "American Volunteers," spread the Tory gospel in the North Carolina back country, and join the main army at Charlotte with a maximum number of recruits. Ferguson's advance northward alarmed the "ova-mountain men" in western North Carolina, southwest Virginia, and what is now east Tennessee. A picked force of mounted militia riflemen gathered on the Catawba River in western North Carolina, set out to find Ferguson, and brought him to bay at King's Mountain near the border of the two Carolinas on October 7. In a battle of patriot against Tory (Ferguson was the only British soldier present), the patriots' triumph was complete. Ferguson himself was killed and few of his command escaped death or capture. Some got the same "quarter" Tarleton had given Buford's men at the Waxhaws.

King's Mountain was as fatal to Cornwallis' plans as Bennington had been to those of Burgoyne. The North Carolina Tories, cowed by the fate of their compatriots, gave him lime support. The British commander on October 1780, began a wretched retreat in the rain back to Winnsboro, South Carolina, with militia harassing his progress. Clinton was forced to divert an expedition of 2,500 men sent to establish a base in Virginia to reinforce Cornwallis.

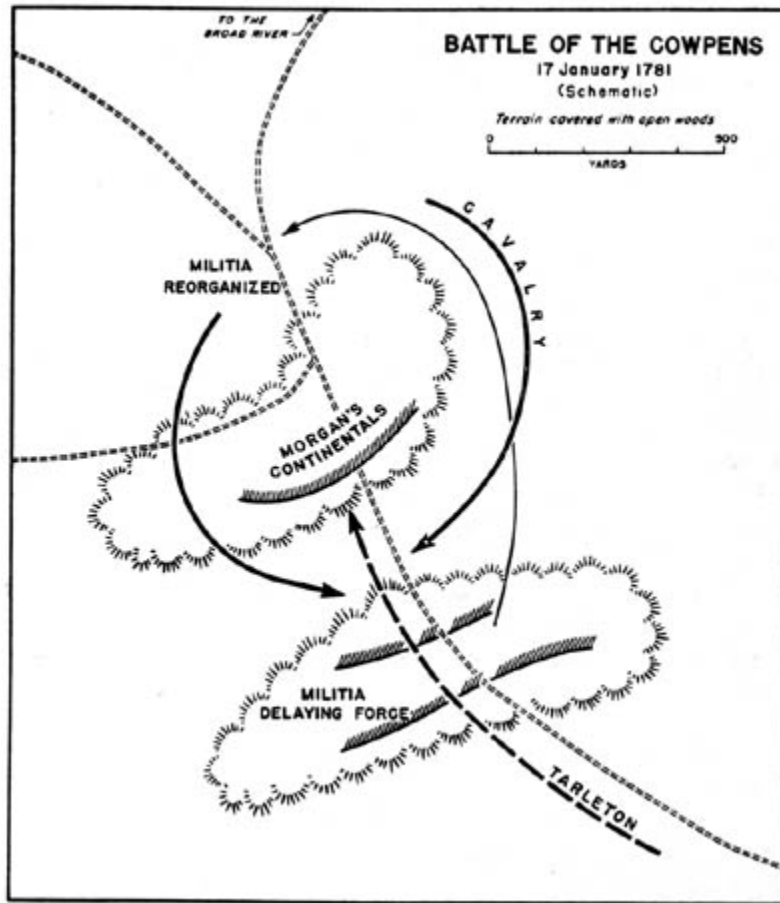
The frontier militia had turned the tide, but having done so, they returned to their homes. To keep it moving against the British was the task of the new commander, General Greene. When Greene arrived at Charlotte, North Carolina, early in December 1780, he found a command that consisted of 1,500 men fit for duty, only 949 of them Continentals. The army lacked clothing and provisions and had little systematic means of procuring them. Greene decided that he must not engage Cornwallis' army in battle until he had built up his strength, that he must instead pursue delaying tactics to wear down his stronger opponent. The first thing he did was to take the unorthodox step of dividing his army in the face of a superior force, moving part under his personal command to Cheraw Hill, and sending the rest under Brig. Gen. Daniel Morgan west across the Catawba over 100 miles away. It was an intentional violation of the principle of mass. Greene wrote:

I am well satisfied with the movement It makes the most of my inferior force, for it compels my adversary to divide his, and holds him in doubt as to his own line of conduct. He cannot leave Morgan behind him to come at me, or his posts at Ninety-Six and Augusta would be exposed. And he cannot chase Morgan far, or prosecute his views upon Virginia, while I am here with the whole country open before me. I am as near to Charleston as he is, and as near Hillsborough as I was at Charlotte; so that I am in no danger of being cut off from my reinforcements.

Left unsaid was the fact that divided forces could live off the land much easier than one large force and constitute two rallying points for local militia instead of one. Greene was, in effect, sacrificing mass to enhance maneuver.

Cornwallis, an aggressive commander, had determined to gamble everything on a renewed invasion of North Carolina. Ignoring Clinton's warnings, he depleted his Charleston base by bringing almost all his supplies forward. In the face of Greene's dispositions, Cornwallis divided his army into not two but three parts. He sent a holding force to Camden to contain Greene, directed Tarleton with a fast-moving contingent of 1,100 infantry and cavalry to find and crush Morgan, and with the remainder of his army moved cautiously up into North Carolina to cut off any of Morgan's force that escaped Tarleton.

Tarleton caught up with Morgan on January 17, 1781, west of King's Mountain at a place called the Cowpens, an open, sparsely forested area six miles from the Broad River. (*Map 11*) Morgan chose this site to make his stand less by design than necessity, for he had intended to get across the Broad. Nevertheless, on ground seemingly better suited to the action of Regulars, he achieved a little tactical masterpiece, making the most effective use of his heterogeneous force, numerically equal to that of Tarleton but composed of three-fourths militia. Selecting a hill as the center of his position, he placed his Continental infantry on it, deliberately leaving his flanks open. Well out in front of the main line he posted militia riflemen in two lines, instructing the first line to fire two volleys and then fall back on the second, the combined line to fire until the British pressed them, then to fall back to the rear of the Continentals and re-form as a reserve. Behind the hill he placed Lt. Col. William Washington's cavalry detachment, ready to charge the attacking enemy at the critical moment. Every man in the ranks was informed of the plan of battle and the part he was expected to play in it.



Map

On finding Morgan, Tarleton ordered an immediate attack. His men moved forward in regular formation, were momentarily checked by the militia rifles, but, taking the retreat of the first two lines to be the beginning of a rout, rushed headlong into the steady fire of the Continentals on the hill. When the British were well advanced, the American cavalry struck them on the right flank and the militia, having re-formed, charged out from behind the hill to hit the British left. Caught in a clever double envelopment, the British surrendered after suffering heavy losses. Tarleton managed to escape with only a small force of cavalry he had held in reserve. It was on a small scale, and with certain significant differences, a repetition of the classic double envelopment of the Romans by a Carthaginian army under Hannibal at Cannae in 216 B.C., an event of which Morgan, no reader of books, probably had not the foggiest notion.

Having struck his fatal blow against Tarleton, Morgan still had to move fast to escape Cornwallis. Covering 100 miles and crossing two rivers in five days, he rejoined Greene early in February. Cornwallis by now was too heavily committed to the campaign in North Carolina to withdraw. Hoping to match the swift movement of the Americans, he destroyed all his superfluous supplies, baggage, and wagons and set forth in pursuit of Greene's army. The American general retreated, through North Carolina, up into southern Virginia, then back into North Carolina again, keeping just far enough in front of his adversary to avoid battle with Cornwallis' superior force. Finally on March 15, 1781, at Guilford Court House in North

Carolina, on ground he had himself chosen, Greene halted and gave battle. By this time he had collected 1,500 Continentals and 3,000 militia to the 1,900 Regulars the British could muster. The British held the field after a hard-fought battle, but suffered casualties of about one-fourth of the force engaged. It was, like Bunker Hill, a Pyrrhic victory. His ranks depleted and his supplies exhausted, Cornwallis withdrew to Wilmington on the coast, and then decided to move northward to join the British forces General Clinton had sent to Virginia.

Greene, his army in better condition than six months earlier, pushed quickly into South Carolina to reduce the British posts in the interior. He fought two battles—at Hobkirk's Hill on April 25, and at Eutaw Springs on September 8--losing both but with approximately the same results as at Guilford Court House. One by one the British interior posts fell to Greene's army, or to militia and partisans. By October 1781 the British had been forced to withdraw to their port strongholds along the coast—Charleston and Savannah. Greene had lost battles, but won a campaign. In so doing, he paved the way for the greater victory to follow at Yorktown.

History of the American Flag



Betsy Ross showing the United States flag to George Washington and others

According to popular legend, the first American flag was made by Betsy Ross, a Philadelphia seamstress who was acquainted with [George Washington](#), leader of the [Continental Army](#), and other influential Philadelphians. In May 1776, so the story goes, General Washington and two representatives from the [Continental Congress](#) visited Ross at her upholstery shop and showed her a rough design of the flag. Although Washington initially favored using a star with six points, Ross advocated for a five-pointed star, which could be cut with just one quick snip of the scissors, and the gentlemen were won over.

Unfortunately, historians have never been able to verify this charming version of events, although it is known that Ross made flags for the navy of Pennsylvania. The story of Washington's visit to the flagmaker became popular about the time of the country's first centennial, after William Canby, a grandson of Ross, told about her role in shaping U.S. history in a speech given at the Philadelphia Historical Society in March 1870.

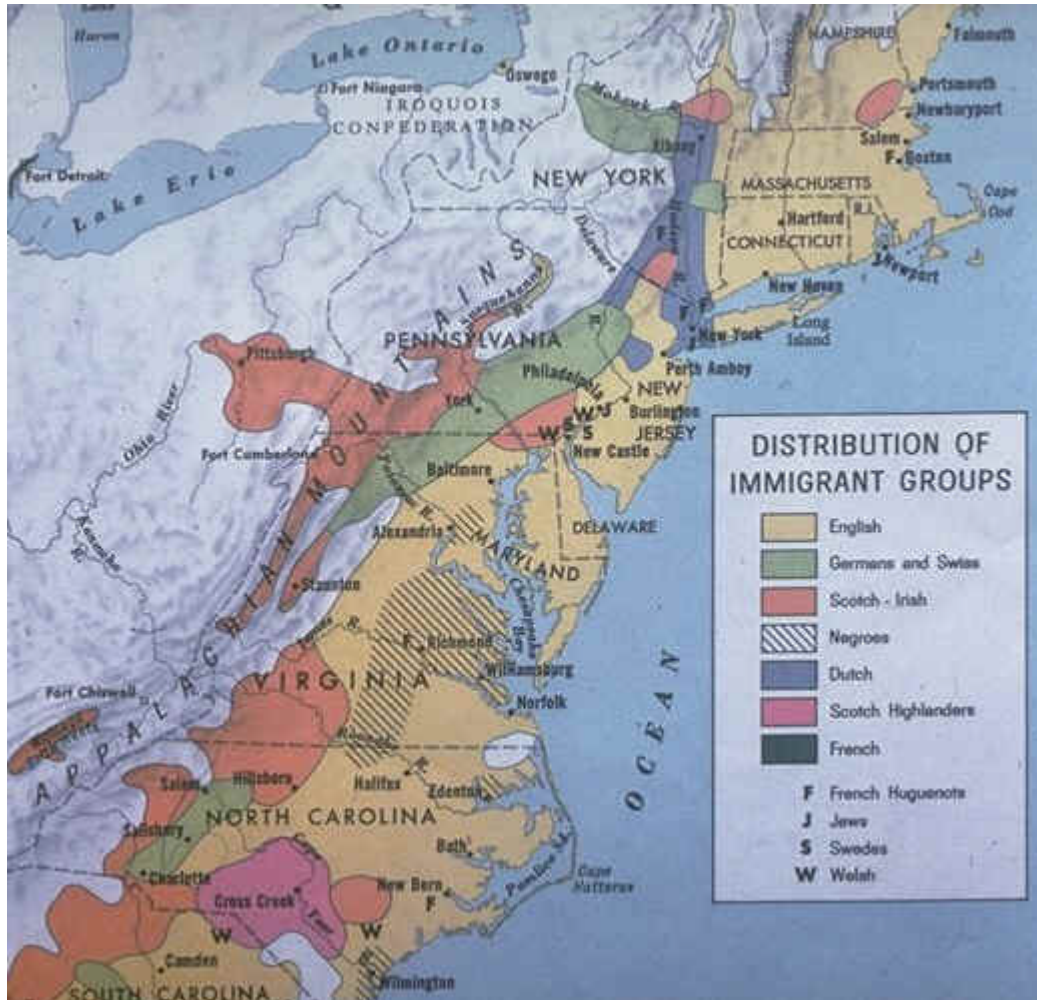
What is known is that the first unofficial national flag, called the Grand Union Flag or the Continental Colours, was raised at the behest of General Washington near his headquarters outside Boston, Mass., on Jan. 1, 1776. The flag had 13 alternating red and white horizontal stripes and the British Union Flag (a predecessor of the Union Jack) in the canton. Another early flag had a rattlesnake on a background of 13 red and white stripes with the motto "Don't Tread on Me."

The first official national flag, also known as the Stars and Stripes, or Old Glory, was approved by the Continental Congress on June 14, 1777. The blue canton contained 13 stars, representing the original 13 colonies, but the layout varied. Although nobody knows for sure who designed the flag, it may have been Continental Congress member Francis Hopkinson.

After Vermont and Kentucky were admitted to the Union in 1791 and 1792, respectively, two more stars and two more stripes were added in 1795. This 15-star, 15-stripe flag was the "star-spangled banner" that inspired lawyer Francis Scott Key to write the poem that later became the U.S. national anthem.

In 1818, after five more states had gained admittance, Congress passed legislation fixing the number of stripes at 13 and requiring that the number of stars equal the number of states. The last new star, bringing the total to 50, was added on July 4, 1960, after Hawaii became a state.

Immigrants to the Colonies 1770



Versailles became a captain in the French cavalry at age 16.



Insane King George III

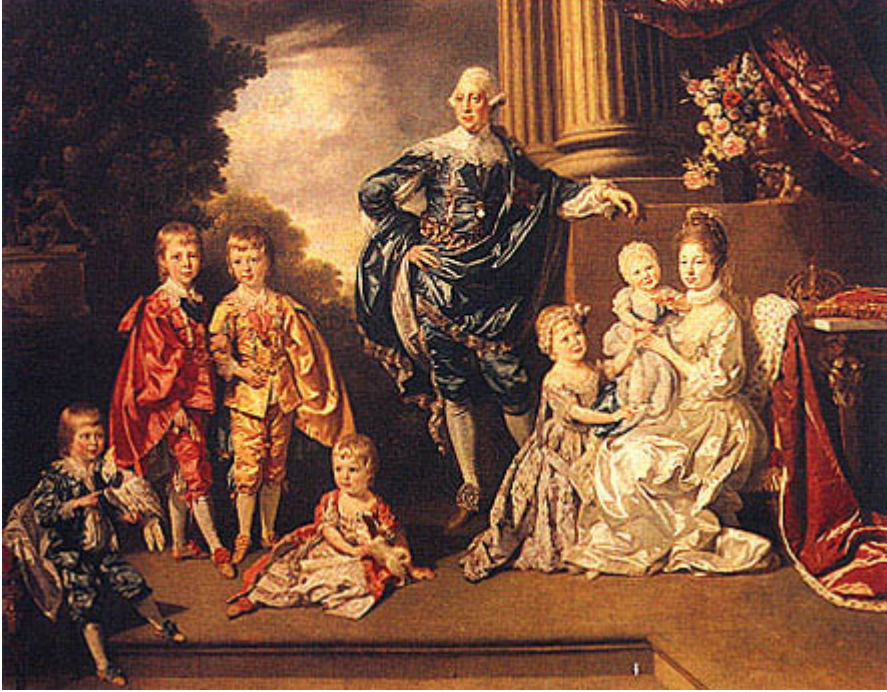
King George III (known as the king who lost America), was born in 1738. King George III's father, the Prince of Wales died when he was young. When George III was 22, in 1760, his grandfather, George II, died. On September 8th, 1761 he married Princess Charlotte Sophia from Mecklenburg-Strelitz, in Germany and on September 22nd, 1761, George III became the King of England. George himself was of partial German ancestry. George and Charlotte had 15 children, one of whom, George IV would be the next king.

King George III sat upon the throne of England from 1760-1820. It was on his watch that the American colonies were lost. King George III, after the French and Indian War, had large debts to pay, and thought he could extract the necessary money from the colonies. King George was incensed when the insolent American colonists objected to the taxes being levied, particularly the Stamp Act. When the Stamp Act was repealed, King George flew into a rage. King George thought the colonists should be dealt with harshly for their disobedience and insolence. Using his profound influence, he pushed through the Townshend Acts, in 1766, taxing many commodity items including tea resulting in the infamous Boston Tea Party. King George was eventually humbled as the American colonies successfully became the United States Of America. Other colonies began to rebel after America's success and King George remained embroiled in one conflict or another for many years.

George III inherited more than just the throne. He also had the royal hereditary disease porphyria which had afflicted Mary Queen of Scots. She passed it to her son, King James I of England. Porphyria is caused by the insufficient production of hemoglobin. The symptoms are photosensitivity, strong abdominal pain, port wine colored urine and paralysis in the arms and legs. The interruption of nerve impulses to the brain causes the development of psychiatric symptoms. Finally, epileptic convulsions occur and the patient sinks into a coma. George III's first attack occurred in 1765, four years after his marriage to Queen Charlotte. From 1811 to the time of his death in 1820 he became progressively insane and blind. He spent his time in isolation, and was often kept in straight jackets and behind bars in his private apartments at Windsor Castle.



King George III died in 1820, at the age of 82, and his son, George IV, succeeded him. Other members of the far-flung royal family who suffered from this hereditary disease were Queen Anne of Great Britain; Frederic the Great of Germany; George IV of Great Britain--son of George III; and George IV's daughter, Princess Charlotte, who died of the disease at childbirth.



Portrait of George III, Queen Charlotte and their six eldest children. When George III was pronounced insane in 1810, Queen Charlotte was given custody - they had been married for nearly 50 years

Intolerable Acts

The Intolerable Acts was the name Americans gave to a series of British-imposed restrictions that came in the wake of the Boston Tea Party.

Parliament Passes Coercive Acts

Colonists unhappy with "Intolerable" acts

Monday October 17, 1774

On December 16, of last year (1773 AD) about 150 Boston patriots boarded a few English ships that were docked in Boston port carrying tea for the East India Company. Disguised as Indians they proceeded to dump 342 chests of tea into the harbor. They took this action out of frustration due to the tax on tea that was placed on them by the Tea Act of 1773.

Prime Minister Lord North was reported to be "deeply angered" by this action. North's associates regarded the colonial act of violence as "flaunting of constituted authority". Lord North continued by asking Parliament to discipline and control the colonies more firmly.

Parliament has placed four "coercive acts" on Boston, Massachusetts and the other colonies. Lord North introduced the first measure, the Boston Port Bill last March 18, and it has been signed by [King George III](#). This act has closed the port of Boston until England is repaid for the tea.

On May 20, The Massachusetts Bay Regulating Act was passed. North's ministry wants to redress what they feel are "defects" in the administration of Massachusetts Bay. With royal approval no town meetings are to be held in the colony, to retain the liberty-minded.

Lord North wants to try to secure fair trials for British subjects and wants to try preventing rioting among the colonies. North proposed the Impartial Administration of Justice Act on April 15. This act permits the governor to move trials to other colonies, or to England. He is also being permitted to call upon the British army for aid to put an end to civil disturbances. In the view of most colonists this Act quite absurd and will just cause more problems.

The fourth act applies to all of the colonies. This act passed on June 2 is the Quartering Act. This Act requires colonists to house royal troops because barracks are unavailable or unsuitable. Colonist cannot refuse Royal soldiers quarter when called upon.

Many colonists have said these acts to be "intolerable."

Local Colonist Speaks Out Against Parliament

My name is Jonas McKenzie and I write opinions for this publication, the North American Review. I know I am not alone when I say that the Coercive Acts passed by Parliament are outrageous and unfair. We, the colonists should not have to live under such tyranny. The Parliament has gone too far with these intolerable Acts. The Boston Port Act has shut down our port preventing us from shipping anything in or out of the colony. The Massachusetts Government Act has forbidden us from town meetings and revoked our colony's charter. The Quartering Act has forced us to house British troops against our own will, making us provide them with food and drink for free. The Administration of Justice Act removed British jurisdiction of Massachusetts courts. These acts are unlawful and require a boycott of all things British by subjects under the Empire's colonial rule in North America.

Adams: All For Independence

Local colonist Samuel Adams, born in Boston on September 27, 1722, raised here is now helping with our fight against Great Britain. Adams was educated at Harvard College. He left college in 1740. In 1756, he was elected tax collector of Boston, he held that position for eight years. Adams is a very outspoken man. In 1765, he drafted the instructions to Boston representatives in the General Court. That same year he was elected to the lower house of General Court. The following year he was elected clerk by the lower house, which he held until 1774. He has gradually assumed leadership of our movement to advocate independence from Great Britain. Adams has become a large influence on aspects of our struggle against British rule. He has also promoted the formation of the Sons Of Liberty and has sponsored the Committee of Correspondence, groups which until now have remained secret due to their illegal nature.

Adams has led the fight against the [Townshend Act](#). He headed the demonstration that led to the [Boston Massacre](#), and he directed the attack on unlawful tea importation, now being dubbed "[the Boston Tea Party](#)." So we feel certain that Adams will continue in the fight against these "intolerable" Acts that have been put forth by Parliament.

Adams has contributed to the Gazette many lucid and forceful articles, which have inveighed against reconciliation with Great Britain. We feel that Massachusetts is in good hands.

The American Revolution: First Phase



Bunker Hill, June 17, 1775

The American Revolution came about, fundamentally, because by 1763 the English-speaking communities on the far side of the Atlantic had matured to an extent that their interests and goals were distinct from those of the ruling classes in the mother country. British statesmen failed to understand or adjust to the situation. Ironically enough, British victory in the Seven Years' War set the stage for the revolt, for it freed the colonists from the need for British protection against a French threat on their frontiers and gave free play to the forces working for separation.

In 1763 the British Government, reasonably from its point of view, moved to tighten the system of imperial control and to force the colonists to contribute to imperial defense, proposing to station 10,000 soldiers along the American frontiers and to have the Americans pay part of the bill. This imperial defense plan touched off the long controversy about Parliament's right to tax that started with the [Stamp and Sugar Acts](#) and ended in December 1773, when a group of Bostonians unceremoniously dumped a cargo of British tea into the city harbor in protest against the latest reminder of the British effort to tax. In this 10-year controversy the several British ministries failed to act either firmly enough to enforce British regulations or wisely enough to develop a more viable form of imperial union, which the colonial leaders, at least until 1776, insisted that they sought. In response to the [Boston Tea Party](#), the king and his ministers blindly

pushed through Parliament a series of measures collectively known in America as the [Intolerable Acts](#), closing the port of Boston, placing Massachusetts under the military rule of [Maj. Gen. Sir Thomas Gage](#), and otherwise infringing on what the colonists deemed to be their rights and interests.

Since 1763 the colonial leaders, in holding that only their own popular assemblies, not the British Parliament, had a right to levy taxes on Americans, had raised the specter of an arbitrary British Government collecting taxes in America to support red-coated Regulars who might be used not to protect the frontiers but to suppress American liberties. Placing Massachusetts under military rule gave that specter some substance and led directly to armed revolt.

Little Known Facts about the American Revolutionary War



Painting by Jean Leffel, based upon illustrations of H. A. Ogden and Lt. Charles M. Lefferts.

What follows are a few little known facts about the American Revolutionary War era. Most Americans think they know all about the Revolution simply because they are Americans. In fact, the real story -- not the one in most textbooks -- is crammed with little known facts. Information

has been drawn from multiple sources for this report. The main source being information compiled by Mr. Thomas Fleming, a noted historian.

◆ **The Americans of 1776 had the highest standard of living and the lowest taxes in the Western World!**

Farmers, lawyers and business owners in the Colonies were thriving, with some plantation owners and merchants making the equivalent of \$500,000 a year. Times were good for many others too. The British wanted a slice of the cash flow and tried to tax the Colonists. They resisted violently, convinced that their prosperity *and* their liberty were at stake. Virginia's Patrick Henry summed up their stance with his cry: "Give me liberty or give me death!"

◆ **There were two Boston tea parties!**

Everyone knows how 50 or 60 "Sons of Liberty," disguised as Mohawks, protested the 3 cents per pound British tax on tea by dumping chests of the popular drink into Boston Harbor on December 16, 1773. Fewer know that the improper Bostonians repeated the performance on March 7, 1774. The two tea parties cost the British around \$3 million in modern money.

◆ **Benjamin Franklin wrote the first Declaration of Independence!**

In 1775, Franklin, disgusted with the arrogance of the British and appalled by the bloodshed at Lexington and Concord, wrote a Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson was enthusiastic. But, he noted, many other delegates to the Continental Congress were "revolted at it." It would take another year of bitter conflict to persuade the Congress to vote for the Declaration of Independence written by Jefferson -- with some astute editorial suggestions by Franklin.

◆ **John Adams defended the British Soldiers after the Boston Massacre!**

Captain Thomas Preston led some British Soldiers to aid another British Soldier who was having things thrown at him and was also hit several times with a board. After their arrival, the people continued to pelt the soldiers and finally shots were fired and the infamous "Boston Massacre" was over. Captain Thomas Preston and eight soldiers were charged with murder. Future President John Adams took up the defense of the soldiers. He, along with Joshua Quincy, was able to get all but two acquitted by a local jury. Those two were found guilty of manslaughter, but claimed benefit of clergy. This means that they were allowed to make penance instead of being executed. To insure that they never could use benefit of clergy again they were both branded on the thumbs.

◆ **History's first submarine attack took place in New York Harbor in 1776!**

The Connecticut inventor David Bushnell called his submarine the *Turtle* because it resembled two large tortoise shells of equal size joined together. The watertight hull was made of 6-inch-thick oak timbers coated with tar. On September 6, 1776, the *Turtle* targeted the *HMS Eagle*, flagship of the British fleet. The submarine was supposed to secure a cask of gunpowder

to the hull of the *Eagle* and sneak away before it exploded. Unfortunately, the *Turtle* got entangled with the *Eagle's* rudder bar, lost ballast and surfaced before the gunpowder could be planted.

◆ **Benedict Arnold was the best general in the Continental Army!**

"Without Benedict Arnold in the first three years of the war," says the historian George Neumann, "we would probably have lost the Revolution." In 1775, the future traitor came within a whisker of conquering Canada. In 1776, he built a fleet and fought a bigger British fleet to a standstill on Lake Champlain. At Saratoga in 1777, his brilliant battlefield leadership forced the British army to surrender. The victory persuaded the French to join the war on the American side. Ironically, Arnold switched sides in 1780 partly because he disapproved of the French alliance.

◆ **By 1779, as many as one in seven Americans in Washington's army was black!**

At first Washington was hesitant about enlisting blacks. But when he heard they had fought well at Bunker Hill, he changed his mind. The all-black First Rhode Island Regiment -- composed of 33 freedmen and 92 slaves who were promised freedom if they served until the end of the war -- distinguished itself in the Battle of Newport. Later, they were all but wiped out in a British attack.

◆ **There were women in the Continental Army, even a few who saw combat!**

Probably the best known is Mary Ludwig Hays, nicknamed "Molly Pitcher." She replaced her wounded husband at his cannon during the Battle of Monmouth in 1778. Another wife of an artilleryman, Margaret Corbin, was badly wounded serving in her husband's gun crew at the Battle of Harlem Heights in 1776. Thousands of other women served in Washington's army as cooks and nurses.

◆ **George Washington was the best spymaster in American History!**

He ran dozens of espionage rings in British-held New York and Philadelphia, and the man who supposedly could not tell a lie was a genius at disinformation. He constantly befuddled the British by leaking, through double agents, inflated reports on the strength of his army.

◆ **By 1779, there were more Americans fighting with the British than with Washington!**

There were no less than 21 regiments (estimated to total 6,500 to 8,000 men) of loyalists in the British army. Washington reported a field army of 3,468. About a third of Americans opposed the Revolution.

◆ **At Yorktown, the victory that won the war, Frenchman outnumbered Americans almost three to one!**

Washington had 11,000 men engaged in the battle, while the French had at least 29,000 soldiers and sailors. The 37 French ships-of-the-line played a crucial role in trapping the 8,700 strong British army and winning the engagement.

◆ **King George almost abdicated the throne when the British lost!**

After Yorktown, George III vowed to keep fighting. When parliament demurred, the King wrote a letter of abdication -- then withdrew it. He tried to console himself with the thought that Washington would become a dictator and make the Americans long for royal rule. When he was told that Washington planned to resign his commission, the monarch gasped: "If he does that, sir, he will be the greatest man in the world."

Martyrs and Heroes

Martyrs and Heroes

[Nathan Hale](#) is probably the best known but least successful American agent in the War of Independence. He embarked on his espionage mission into British-held New York as a volunteer, impelled by a strong sense of patriotism and duty. Before leaving on the mission he reportedly told a fellow officer: "I am not influenced by the expectation of promotion or pecuniary award; I wish to be useful, and every kind of service necessary to the public good becomes honorable by being necessary. If the exigencies of my country demand a peculiar service, its claims to perform that service are imperious."

But dedication was not enough. Captain Hale had no training experience, no contacts in New York, no channels of communication, and no cover story to explain his absence from camp--only his Yale diploma supported his contention that he was a "Dutch schoolmaster." He was captured while trying to slip out of New York, was convicted as a spy and went to the gallows on September 22, 1776. Witnesses to the execution reported the dying words that gained him immortality (a paraphrase of a line from Joseph Addison's play *Cato*: "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country.")

The same day Nathan Hale was executed in New York, British authorities there arrested another Patriot and charged him with being a spy. [Haym Salomon](#) was a recent Jewish immigrant who worked as a stay-behind agent after Washington evacuated New York City in September 1776. Solomon was arrested in a round-up of suspected Patriot sympathizers and was confined to Sugar House Prison. He spoke several European languages and was soon released to the custody of General von Heister, commander of Hessian mercenaries, who needed someone who could serve as a German-language interpreter in the Hessian commissary department. While in German custody, Salomon induced a number of the German troops to resign or desert.

Eventually paroled, Salomon did not flee to Philadelphia as had many of his New York business associates. He continued to serve as an undercover agent, and used his personal finances to assist American patriots held prisoner in New York. He was arrested again in August of 1778, accused this time of being an accomplice in a plot to burn the British fleet and to destroy His Majesty's, warehouses in the city. Salomon was condemned to death for sabotage, but bribed his guard

while awaiting execution and escaped to Philadelphia. There he came into the open in the role for which he is best known, as an important financier of the Revolution. It is said that when Salomon died in bankruptcy in 1785, at forty-five years of age, the government owed him more than \$700,000 in unpaid loans.

Less than a year after Nathan Hale was executed, another American agent went to the gallows in New York. On June 13, 1777, General Washington wrote the President of Congress: "You will observe by the New York paper, the execution of Abm. [Abraham] Patten. His family deserves the generous Notice of Congress. He conducted himself with great fidelity to our Cause rendering Services and has fallen a Sacrifice in promoting her interest. Perhaps a public act of generosity, considering the character he was in, might not be so eligible as a private donation."

"Most accurate and explicit intelligence" resulted from the work of Abraham Woodhull on Long Island and Robert Townsend in British-occupied New York City. Their operation, known as the Culper Ring from the operational names used by Woodhull (Culper, Sr.) and Townsend (Culper, Jr.), effectively used such intelligence tradecraft as codes, ciphers and secret ink for communications; a series of couriers and whaleboats to transmit reporting; at least one secret safe house, and numerous sources. The network was particularly effective in picking up valuable information from careless conversation wherever the British and their sympathizers gathered.

One female member of the Culper Ring, known only by her codename "355," was arrested shortly after Benedict Arnold's defection in 1780 and evidently died in captivity. Details of her background are unknown, but 355 (the number meant "lady" in the Culper code) may have come from a prominent Tory family with access to British commanders and probably reported on their activities and personalities. She was one of several females around the debonaire Major Andre, who enjoyed the company of young, attractive, and intelligent women. Abraham Woodhull, 355's recruiter, praised her espionage work, saying that she was "one who hath been ever serviceable to this correspondence." Arnold questioned all of Andre's associates after his execution in October 1780 and grew suspicious when the pregnant 355 refused to identify her paramour. She was incarcerated on the squalid prison ship Jersey, moored in the East River. There she gave birth to a son and then died without disclosing that she had a common-law husband-Robert Townsend, after whom the child was named.

One controversial American agent in New York was the King's Printer, James Rivington. His coffee house, a favorite gathering place for the British, was a principal source of information for Culper, Jr. (Townsend), who was a silent partner in the endeavor. George Washington Parke Custis suggests that Rivington's motive for aiding the patriot cause was purely monetary. Custis notes that Rivington, nevertheless, "proved faithful to his bargain, and often would provide intelligence of great importance gleaned in convivial moments at Sir William's or Sir Henry's table, be in the American camp before the convivialists had slept off the effects of their wine. The King's printer would probably have been the last man suspected, for during the whole of his connection with the secret service his Royal Gazette piled abuse of every sort upon the cause of the American general and the cause of America." Rivington's greatest espionage achievement was acquiring the Royal Navy's signal book in 1781. That intelligence helped the French fleet repel a British flotilla trying to relieve General Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Hercules Mulligan ran a clothing shop that was also frequented by British officers in occupied New York. The Irish immigrant was a genial host, and animated conversation typified a visit to his emporium. Since Mulligan was also a Patriot agent, General Washington had full use of the intelligence he gathered. Mulligan was the first to alert Washington to two British plans to capture the American Commander-in-Chief and to a planned incursion into Pennsylvania. Besides being an American agent, Mulligan also was a British counterintelligence failure. Before he went underground as an agent, he had been an active member of the Sons of Liberty and the New York Committees of Correspondence and Observation, local Patriot intelligence groups. Mulligan had participated in acts of rebellion and his name had appeared on Patriot broadsides distributed in New York as late as 1776. But every time he fell under suspicion, the popular Irishman used his gift of "blarney" to talk his way out of it. The British evidently never learned that Alexander Hamilton, Washington's aide-de-camp, had lived in the Mulligan home while attending King's College, and had recruited Mulligan and possibly Mulligan's brother, a banker and merchant who handled British accounts, for espionage.

Another American agent in New York was Lieutenant Lewis J. Costigin, who walked the streets freely in his Continental Army uniform as he collected intelligence. Costigin had originally been sent to New York as a prisoner, and was eventually paroled under oath not to attempt escape or communicate intelligence. In September 1778 he was designated for prisoner exchange and freed of his parole oath. But he did not leave New York, and until January 1779 he roamed the city in his American uniform, gathering intelligence on British commanders, troop deployments, shipping, and logistics while giving the impression of still being a paroled prisoner.

On May 15, 1780, General Washington instructed General Heath to send intelligence agents into Canada. He asked that they be those "upon whose firmness and fidelity we may safely rely," and that they collect "exact" information about Halifax in support of a French requirement for information on the British defense works there. Washington suggested that qualified draftsmen be sent. James Bowdoin, who was later to become the first president of the American Academy of Arts and Science, fulfilled the intelligence mission, providing detailed plans of Halifax harbor, including specific military works and even water depths.

In August 1782, General Washington created the Military Badge of Merit, to be issued "whenever any singularly meritorious action is performed... not only instances of unusual gallantry, but also of extraordinary fidelity and essential service in any way." Through the award, said Washington, "the road to glory in a Patriot army and a free country is thus open to all." The following June, the honor was bestowed on Sergeant Daniel Bissell, who had "deserted" from the Continental Army, infiltrated New York, posed as a Tory, and joined Benedict Arnold's "American Legion." For over a year, Bissell gathered information on British fortifications, making a detailed study of British methods of operation, before escaping to American lines.

Dominique L'Ecluse, a Canadian who served as an intelligence agent for General Schuyler, had been detected and imprisoned and had all his property confiscated. After being informed by General Washington of the agent's plight, the Continental Congress on October 23, 1778, granted \$600 to pay L'Ecluse's debts and \$60, plus one ration a day "during the pleasure of Congress," as compensation for his contribution to the American cause.

Family legend contributes the colorful but uncorroborated story of Lydia Darragh and her listening post for eavesdropping on the British. Officers of the British force occupying Philadelphia chose to use a large upstairs room in the Darragh house for conferences. When they did, Mrs. Darragh would slip into an adjoining closet and take notes on the enemy's military plans. Her husband, William, would transcribe the intelligence in a form of shorthand on tiny slips of paper that Lydia would then position on a button mold before covering it with fabric. The message-bearing buttons were then sewn onto the coat of her fourteen-year-old son, John, who would then be sent to visit his elder brother, Lieutenant Charles Darragh, of the American forces outside the city. Charles would snip off the buttons and transcribe the shorthand notes into readable form for presentation to his officers. Lydia Darragh is said to have concealed other intelligence in a sewing-needle packet which she carried in her purse when she passed through British lines. Some espionage historians have questioned the credibility of the best-known story of Darragh's espionage-that she supposedly overheard British commanders planning a surprise night attack against Washington's army at Whitemarsh, Pennsylvania, on the 4th and 5th of December 1777. The cover story she purportedly used to leave Philadelphia-she was filling a flour sack at a nearby mill outside the British lines because there was a flour shortage in the city-is implausible because there was no shortage, and a lone woman would not have been allowed to roam around at night, least of all in the area between the armies.

Many other heroic Patriots gathered the intelligence that helped win the War of Independence. Their intelligence duties required many of them to pose as one of the enemy, incurring the hatred of family members and friends-some even having their property seized or burned, and their families driven from their homes. Some were captured by American forces and narrowly escaped execution on charges of high treason or being British spies. Many of them gave their lives in helping establish America's freedom.

Sons of Liberty



A secret organizations formed in the American colonies in protest against the [Stamp Act](#) (1765). They took their name from a phrase used by Isaac Barré in a speech against the Stamp Act in Parliament, and were organized by merchants, businessmen, lawyers, journalists, and others who would be most affected by the Stamp Act. The leaders included John Lamb and Alexander McDougall in New York, and [Samuel Adams](#) and James Otis in New England. The societies kept in touch with each other through committees of correspondence, supported the nonimportation agreement, forced the resignation of stamp distributors, and incited destruction of stamped paper and violence against British officials. They participated in calling the

[Continental Congress](#) of 1774. In the Civil War, the [Knights of the Golden Circle](#) adopted (1864) the name Sons of Liberty.

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

Nadir of the American Cause

In the summer of 1780 the American cause seemed to be at as low an ebb as it had been after the New York campaign in 1776 or after the defeats at [Ticonderoga](#) and [Brandywine](#) in 1777. Defeat in the south was not the only discouraging aspect of patriot affairs. In the north a creeping paralysis had set in as the patriotic enthusiasm of the early war years waned. The [Continental currency](#) had virtually depreciated out of existence, and Congress was impotent to pay the soldiers or purchase supplies. At Morristown, New Jersey, in the winter of 1779-80 the army suffered worse hardships than at [Valley Forge](#). Congress could do little but attempt to shift its responsibilities onto the states, giving each the task of providing clothing for its own troops and furnishing certain quotas of specific supplies for the entire Army. The system of "specific supplies" worked not at all. Not only were the states laggard in furnishing supplies, but when they did it was seldom at the time or place they were needed. This breakdown in the supply system was more than even [General Greene](#), as Quartermaster General, could cope with, and in early 1780, under heavy criticism in Congress, he resigned his position.

Under such difficulties, Washington had to struggle to hold even a small Army together. Recruiting of Continentals, difficult to begin with, became almost impossible when the troops could neither be paid nor supplied adequately and had to suffer such winters as those at Morristown. Enlistments and drafts from the militia in 1780 produced not quite half as many men for one year's service as had enlisted in 1775 for three years or the duration. While recruiting lagged, morale among those men who had enlisted for the longer terms naturally fell. Mutinies in 1780 and 1781 were suppressed only by measures of great severity.

Germain could write confidently to Clinton: "so very contemptible is the rebel force now . . . that no resistance . . . is to be apprehended that can materially obstruct . . . the speedy suppression of the rebellion . . . the American levies in the King's service are more in number than the whole of the enlisted troops in the service of the Congress." The French were unhappy. In the summer of 1780 they occupied the vacated British base at Newport, moving in a naval squadron and 4,000 troops under the command of [Lieutenant General the Comte de Rochambeau](#). Rochambeau immediately warned his government: "Send us troops, ships and money, but do not count on these people nor on their resources, they have neither money nor credit, their forces exist only momentarily, and when they are about to be attacked in their own homes they assemble . . . to defend themselves." Another French commander thought only one highly placed American traitor was needed to decide the campaign.

Clinton had, in fact, already found his "highly placed traitor" in [Benedict Arnold](#), the hero of the march to Quebec, the naval battle on the lakes, Stanwix, and Saratoga. "Money is this man's

God," one of his enemies had said of Arnold earlier, and evidently he was correct. Lucrative rewards promised by the British led to [Arnold's treason](#), though he evidently resented the slights Congress had dealt him, and he justified his act by claiming that the Americans were now fighting for the interests of Catholic France and not their own. Arnold wangled an appointment as commander at West Point and then entered into a plot to deliver this key post to the British. Washington discovered the plot on September 21, 1780, just in time to foil it, though Arnold himself escaped to become a British brigadier.

Arnold's treason in September 1780 marked the nadir of the patriot cause. In the closing months of 1780, the Americans somehow put together the ingredients for a final and decisive burst of energy in 1781. Congress persuaded Robert Morris, a wealthy Philadelphia merchant, to accept a post as Superintendent of Finance, and Col. Timothy Pickering, an able administrator, to replace Greene as Quartermaster General. Greene, as Washington's choice, was then named to succeed Gates in command of the Southern Army. General Lincoln, exchanged after [Charleston](#), was appointed Secretary at War and the old board was abolished. Morris took over many of the functions previously performed by unwieldy committees. Working closely with Pickering, he abandoned the old paper money entirely and introduced a new policy of supplying the army by private contracts, using his personal credit as eventual guarantee for payment in gold or silver. It was an expedient but, for a time at least, it worked.

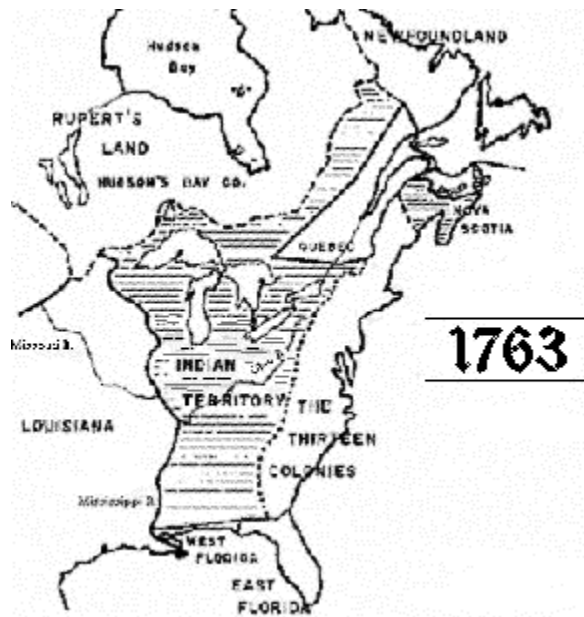
The Royal Proclamation - October 7, 1763

A model for the establishment of Treaties



In his Proclamation of 1763, King George III of England introduced the bounty land warrant system (land patenting process) as a method of paying soldiers of the French & Indian War. Several hundred patents authorized by the French & Indian War Warrants are filed with the Kentucky Land Office. Although treaties between the Indians and the colonial officials were reached prior to the *Royal Proclamation of 1763*, the latter served as a model for the establishment of such arrangements.

When an agreement is reached between two nations, it is signed and sealed, giving rise to a contractual obligation to fulfill it. Early treaties between [Indian Nations](#) and colonial governors were usually resolutions of "peace and friendship." From approximately the nineteenth century, these arrangements typically involved an Indian tribe ceding land to the Crown and, in return, the Crown promising the Indians reserves of land as well as special rights in areas such as hunting and fishing.



In the *Proclamation of 1763*, King George III of England declared a British system of governing in the areas that had been surrendered by France, and pronounced that the [Indians](#) and their lands would be treated with respect. In practice, the British Crown negotiated with the Indians and arrived at mutually agreeable treaties.

This notion of acquisition of Indian land by consent was not new to North America, and so for existing British colonies the *Proclamation of 1763* merely confirmed an established practice. In the territories formerly held by the French, however, much was to change. Prior to 1763, the French maintained that once they discovered and occupied a region, they became absolute sovereigns. According to this approach, the Indians had no title or other rights and hence no position from which to negotiate. French officials left the responsibility of any dealings with the Indians with the Catholic Church, whose role was, through religious instruction, to assimilate them into the European culture. The *Proclamation of 1763* clearly marked a new beginning for these Indians, but also established the foundation for future Indian/government relations. Canadian jurisprudence on the *Proclamation* has held that the principle of treaty negotiations extends not only to the old and new British colonies referred to in the document itself, but to present-day Canada as a whole. In this way it remains a very significant and useful instrument in Indian affairs.

The British promise to reach a consensus peacefully rested on the belief that Indians held rights in North America. Contained within these was the right to land. Any regions found to be essential to the Indians' way of life were not to be disturbed. Indian land could be settled only after a formal agreement between Indian leaders and the government had been reached. By negotiating treaties like this, the Crown ensured stability in these territories. After many years of war with Indian tribes that sided with the French, the British realized that if they wished to settle North America, peace with the Indians was essential. The *Proclamation of 1763* was the Crown's first expression of good faith.

It appeared that the *Proclamation of 1763* had nothing but the most noble intentions. In fact there were some flaws in it at the time, and other ones that have developed recently. For example, it declared that the Crown was best suited to alienate Indian lands. This meant that all leases and sales of Indian lands would be forever conducted through the Crown as an intermediary. Responsibility and control thus lay with the governing officials and the Indians, conveying a hierarchical relationship rather than an equal partnership. This inequality was also evident in the *Proclamation's* implicit preference for written treaties. Unlike the Europeans, who had recognized written agreements for several centuries, North American Indians believed in an oral tradition. Indians formed treaties among themselves by conducting ceremonies marked by the exchange of "wampum" or traditional beadwork. The actual treaty was oral and would be passed on through the generations in this way. In the agreements between the Indians and government officials, attempts were made to combine the two traditions, but over time it became apparent that the written word held greater legal weight than the oral tradition.

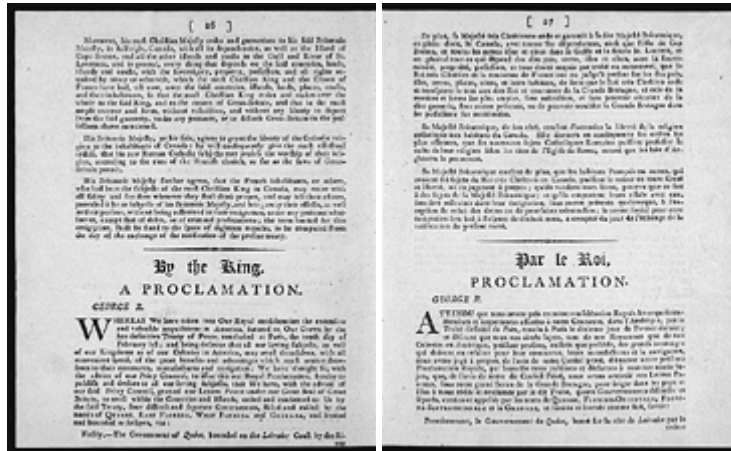
Another weakness in the *Proclamation of 1763* lies in the nature of the document. Unlike other pronouncements of its stature, it does not have Constitutional status. The *Constitutional Act of 1982* contains a schedule of all our constitutional documents, and no materials prior to Confederation in 1867 are included. There is, however, reference to the *Proclamation of 1763* in section 25.a of the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. It states that the rights and freedoms recognized by the *Proclamation* fall under the *Charter's* protection. Given these conflicting interpretations, the strength of the *Proclamation* remains unclear.

Treaties created as a consequence of the *Proclamation* are also in a rather nebulous position. In effect, Indian treaties are only as strong as the respect accorded to them by the various provincial or federal governments in power. This is because treaties are only equal to any other piece of legislation and can be overridden by new enactments. Indeed, laws have been passed that limit the extent of the rights originally granted to certain treaty Indians. This is of particular concern in light of section 25 of the *Charter*, which states that it will grant protection only to "existing" native rights or freedoms. Modifications to the treaties by way of legislation could mean that former Indian rights would be forever extinguished.

Despite its curious status *vis-à-vis* our Constitution and some of its other deficiencies, the *Proclamation of 1763* is still considered a very important document for understanding Indian/government relations and for interpreting the treaties that were born from and guided by it. Its enormous value to our documentary history is also supported by the fact that it has been referred to as the "Indian Bill of Rights" or equivalent to the "Magna Carta" for Indian affairs.

In the face of these positive qualities, it is curious to report that the National Archives holds no surviving originals. There are several transcribed copies of both the October 7, 1763, document proclaimed by the King in England and the one later pronounced by the Superintendent of Indian Affairs, Sir William Johnson, in North America on December 24, 1763; the National Archives also has a negative photostat of this latter document. For its part, the Canadian Institute for Historical Microreproductions (CIHM) has determined that there are five known originals. One is held by the Society of Antiquarians in England, another by the Privy Council Library in London, England, a third by the Massachusetts Archives in Boston (CIHM has obtained a microfilmed copy of this one), a fourth by Brown University in Providence, Rhode Island, and

the last by McGill University in Montreal in the Lande Room. Individuals interested in conducting research on the *Royal Proclamation of 1763* can also consult numerous published versions of the document and contact the National Archives to read correspondence of various people associated with this historical event.



BY THE KING. A PROCLAMATION GEORGE R.

Whereas We have taken into Our Royal Consideration the extensive and valuable Acquisitions in America, secured to our Crown by the late [Definitive Treaty of Peace](#), concluded at Paris. the 10th Day of February last; and being desirous that all Our loving Subjects, as well of our Kingdom as of our Colonies in America, may avail themselves with all convenient Speed, of the great Benefits and Advantages which must accrue therefrom to their Commerce, Manufactures, and Navigation, We have thought fit, with the Advice of our Privy Council. to issue this our Royal Proclamation, hereby to publish and declare to all our loving Subjects, that we have, with the Advice of our Said Privy Council, granted our Letters Patent, under our Great Seal of Great Britain, to erect, within the Countries and Islands ceded and confirmed to Us by the said Treaty, Four distinct and separate Governments, styled and called by the names of Quebec, East Florida, West Florida and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

First--The Government of Quebec bounded on the Labrador Coast by the River St. John, and from thence by a Line drawn from the Head of that River through the Lake St. John, to the South end of the Lake Nipissim; from whence the said Line, crossing the River St. Lawrence, and the Lake Champlain, in 45. Degrees of North Latitude, passes along the High Lands which divide the Rivers that empty themselves into the said River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Sea; and also along the North Coast of the Baye des Chaleurs, and the Coast of the Gulph of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosieres, and from thence crossing the Mouth of the River St. Lawrence by the West End of the Island of Anticosti, terminates at the aforesaid River of St. John.

Secondly--The Government of East Florida. bounded to the Westward by the Gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola River; to the Northward by a Line drawn from that part of the said River where the Chatahouchee and Flint Rivers meet, to the source of St. Mary's River. and by the course of the said River to the Atlantic Ocean; and to the Eastward and Southward by the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulph of Florida, including all Islands within Six Leagues of the Sea Coast.

Thirdly--The Government of West Florida. bounded to the Southward by the Gulph of Mexico. including all Islands within Six Leagues of the Coast. from the River Apalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; to the Westward by the said Lake, the Lake Maurepas, and the River Mississippi; to the Northward by a Line drawn due East from that part of the River Mississippi which lies in 31 Degrees North Latitude. to the River Apalachicola or Chatahouchee; and to the Eastward by the said River.

Fourthly--The Government of Grenada, comprehending the Island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the Islands of Dominico, St. Vincent's and Tobago. And to the end that the open and free Fishery of our Subjects may be extended to and carried on upon the Coast of Labrador, and the adjacent Islands. We have thought fit. with the advice of our said Privy Council to put all that Coast, from the River St. John's to Hudson's Streights, together with the Islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller Islands lying upon the said Coast, under the care and Inspection of our Governor of Newfoundland.

We have also, with the advice of our Privy Council. thought fit to annex the Islands of St. John's and Cape Breton, or Isle Royale, with the lesser Islands adjacent thereto, to our Government of Nova Scotia.

We have also, with the advice of our Privy Council aforesaid, annexed to our Province of Georgia all the Lands lying between the Rivers Alatomaha and St. Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the speedy settling of our said new Governments, that our loving Subjects should be informed of our Paternal care, for the security of the Liberties and Properties of those who are and shall become Inhabitants thereof, We have thought fit to publish and declare, by this Our Proclamation, that We have, in the Letters Patent under our Great Seal of Great Britain, by which the said Governments are constituted. given express Power and Direction to our Governors of our Said Colonies respectively, that so soon as the state and circumstances of the said Colonies will admit thereof, they shall, with the Advice and Consent of the Members of our Council, summon and call General Assemblies within the said Governments respectively, in such Manner and Form as is used and directed in those Colonies and Provinces in America which are under our immediate Government: And We have also given Power to the said Governors, with the consent of our Said Councils, and the Representatives of

We have also thought fit, with the advice of our Privy Council as aforesaid, to give unto the Governors and Councils of our said Three new Colonies, upon the Continent full Power and Authority to settle and agree with the Inhabitants of our said new Colonies or with any other Persons who shall resort thereto, for such Lands. Tenements and Hereditaments, as are now or hereafter shall be in our Power to dispose of; and them to grant to any such Person or Persons

upon such Terms, and under such moderate Quit-Rents, Services and Acknowledgments, as have been appointed and settled in our other Colonies, and under such other Conditions as shall appear to us to be necessary and expedient for the Advantage of the Grantees, and the Improvement and settlement of our said Colonies.

And Whereas, We are desirous, upon all occasions, to testify our Royal Sense and Approbation of the Conduct and bravery of the Officers and Soldiers of our Armies, and to reward the same, We do hereby command and empower our Governors of our said Three new Colonies, and all other our Governors of our several Provinces on the Continent of North America, to grant without Fee or Reward, to such reduced Officers as have served in North America during the late War, and to such Private Soldiers as have been or shall be disbanded in America, and are actually residing there, and shall personally apply for the same, the following Quantities of Lands, subject, at the Expiration of Ten Years, to the same Quit-Rents as other Lands are subject to in the Province within which they are granted, as also subject to the same Conditions of Cultivation and Improvement; viz.

To every Person having the Rank of a Field Officer--5,000 Acres.

To every Captain--3,000 Acres.

To every Subaltern or Staff Officer,--2,000 Acres.

To every Non-Commission Officer,--200 Acres .

To every Private Man--50 Acres.

We do likewise authorize and require the Governors and Commanders in Chief of all our said Colonies upon the Continent of North America to grant the like Quantities of Land, and upon the same conditions, to such reduced Officers of our Navy of like Rank as served on board our Ships of War in North America at the times of the Reduction of Louisbourg and Quebec in the late War, and who shall personally apply to our respective Governors for such Grants.

And whereas it is just and reasonable, and essential to our Interest, and the Security of our Colonies, that the several Nations or Tribes of Indians with whom We are connected, and who live under our Protection, should not be molested or disturbed in the Possession of such Parts of Our Dominions and Territories as, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us, are reserved to them. or any of them, as their Hunting Grounds.--We do therefore, with the Advice of our Privy Council, declare it to be our Royal Will and Pleasure. that no Governor or Commander in Chief in any of our Colonies of Quebec, East Florida. or West Florida, do presume, upon any Pretence whatever, to grant Warrants of Survey, or pass any Patents for Lands beyond the Bounds of their respective Governments. as described in their Commissions: as also that no Governor or Commander in Chief in any of our other Colonies or Plantations in America do presume for the present, and until our further Pleasure be known, to grant Warrants of Survey, or pa

And We do further declare it to be Our Royal Will and Pleasure, for the present as aforesaid, to reserve under our Sovereignty, Protection, and Dominion, for the use of the said Indians, all the

Lands and Territories not included within the Limits of Our said Three new Governments, or within the Limits of the Territory granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, as also all the Lands and Territories lying to the Westward of the Sources of the Rivers which fall into the Sea from the West and North West as aforesaid.

And We do hereby strictly forbid, on Pain of our Displeasure, all our loving Subjects from making any Purchases or Settlements whatever, or taking Possession of any of the Lands above reserved. without our especial leave and Licence for that Purpose first obtained.

And. We do further strictly enjoin and require all Persons whatever who have either wilfully or inadvertently seated themselves upon any Lands within the Countries above described. or upon any other Lands which, not having been ceded to or purchased by Us, are still reserved to the said Indians as aforesaid, forthwith to remove themselves from such Settlements.

And whereas great Frauds and Abuses have been committed in purchasing Lands of the Indians, to the great Prejudice of our Interests. and to the great Dissatisfaction of the said Indians: In order, therefore, to prevent such Irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our Justice and determined Resolution to remove all reasonable Cause of Discontent, We do. with the Advice of our Privy Council strictly enjoin and require. that no private Person do presume to make any purchase from the said Indians of any Lands reserved to the said Indians, within those parts of our Colonies where, We have thought proper to allow Settlement: but that. if at any Time any of the Said Indians should be inclined to dispose of the said Lands, the same shall be Purchased only for Us, in our Name, at some public Meeting or Assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that Purpose by the Governor or Commander in Chief of our Colony respectively within which they shall lie: and in case they shall

And we do hereby authorize, enjoin, and require the Governors and Commanders in Chief of all our Colonies respectively, as well those under Our immediate Government as those under the Government and Direction of Proprietaries, to grant such Licences without Fee or Reward, taking especial Care to insert therein a Condition, that such Licence shall be void, and the Security forfeited in case the Person to whom the same is granted shall refuse or neglect to observe such Regulations as We shall think proper to prescribe as aforesaid.

And we do further expressly conjoin and require all Officers whatever, as well Military as those Employed in the Management and Direction of Indian Affairs, within the Territories reserved as aforesaid for the use of the said Indians, to seize and apprehend all Persons whatever. who standing charged with Treason. Misprisions of Treason. Murders, or other Felonies or Misdemeanors. shall fly from Justice and take Refuge in the said Territory. and to send them under a proper guard to the Colony where the Crime was committed of which they, stand accused. in order to take their Trial for the same.

Given at our Court at St. James's the 7th Day of October 1763. in the Third Year of our Reign.

GOD SAVE THE KING

Revolutionary War Battles Index



Prelude to War - Bunker Hill



Before Congress met again the situation had changed. On the morning of April 19, 1775, shots had been exchanged by colonials and British soldiers, men had been killed, and a revolution had begun. On the very day (May 10, 1775) that the [Second Continental Congress](#) met, [Ethan Allen](#) and his Green Mountain Boys, together with a force under [Benedict Arnold](#), took Fort Ticonderoga from the British, and two days later Seth Warner captured Crown Point. Boston was under British siege, and before that siege was climaxed by the costly British victory usually called the battle of [Bunker Hill](#) (June 17, 1775) the Congress had chosen (June 15, 1775) [George Washington](#) as commander in chief of the [Continental Armed Forces](#).

<u>"The Battle of Lexington and Concord"</u>	April 19, 1775
<u>"The Capture of Fort Ticonderoga"</u>	May 11, 1775
<u>"The Battle of Breed's Hill"</u>	June 16, 1775
<u>"The Battle of Bunker Hill"</u>	June 17, 1775
<u>"The Battle of Long Island"</u>	June 28, 1775
<u>"The Battle of Great Bridge"</u>	December 9, 1775
<u>"The Battle of Quebec"</u>	December 31, 1775
<u>"The Siege of Boston"</u>	July 1775 – March 1776
<u>"Battle of Moore's Creek Bridge"</u>	February 27, 1776
<u>"The Battle for New York"</u>	July-August 1776
<u>"The Battle of Valcour Bay"</u>	October 11, 1776
<u>"Washington's Retreat through New Jersey"</u>	1776
<u>"The Battle of Trenton"</u>	December 26, 1776
<u>"The Battle of Princeton"</u>	January 3, 1777
<u>"The Battle of Brandywine"</u>	September 10, 1777
<u>"The Battle of Oriskany"</u>	August 6, 1777
<u>"The Battle of Bennington"</u>	August 16, 1777
<u>"The Battle of Saratoga"</u>	September 19, 1777
<u>"The Battle of Germantown"</u>	September 22, 1777
<u>"The Burgoyne Surrender"</u>	October 16th 1777
<u>"Valley Forge"</u>	The Winter of 1777-1778
<u>"The Battle of Monmouth"</u>	June 28, 1778
<u>"The Battle of Vincennes"</u>	February 23, 1779
<u>"The Battle of Stony Point"</u>	July 15, 1779
<u>"The Battle of Savannah"</u>	July 22, 1779
<u>"Bonne Homme Richard vs. Serapis"</u>	September 23, 1779
<u>"The Siege of Charleston"</u>	1779-1780
<u>"The Battle of Camden"</u>	August 16, 1780
<u>"The Treason of Benedict Arnold"</u>	September 21, 1780
<u>"The Battle of King's Mountain"</u>	October 7, 1780
<u>"The Battle of Cowpens"</u>	January 17, 1781

"The Battle of Guilford Court House"

March 15, 1781

"The Battle of Eutaw Springs"

September 8, 1781

"The Battle of Yorktown"

October 6-19, 1781

"Southern Campaign"

1778-1781



Revolutionary War Battles

"The Battle of Breed's Hill" June 16, 1775

A Brief History

After retreating from Lexington in April, 1775, the British Army occupied Boston for several months. Realizing the need to strengthen their position in the face of increasing anti-British sentiment in and around Boston, plans were developed to seize and fortify nearby Dorchester Heights and Charlestown peninsulas. The peninsulas offered a commanding view of the seaport and harbor, and were important to preserving the security of Boston. The Americans caught word of the British plan, and decided to get to the Charlestown peninsula first, fortify it, and present sufficient threat to cause the British to leave Boston. On 16 June, 1775, under the leadership of Colonels Putnam, and Prescott, the Patriots stole out onto the Charlestown Peninsula with instructions to establish defensive positions on Bunker's Hill. For reasons that are unclear, they constructed a redoubt on nearby Breed's Hill. The next morning, the British were astonished to see the rebel fortifications upon the hill and set out to reclaim the peninsula.



General Howe served as the commander of the British main assault force and led two costly and ineffective charges against the Patriot's fortifications without inflicting significant casualties on his opponents. After obtaining 400 reinforcements which included sorely needed ammunition for his artillery, Howe ordered a bayonet charge to seize Breed's Hill. In this third attempt, the British were finally able to breach the breastworks of the American redoubt and the Patriots were forced to retreat back to the mainland.

This battle, though victorious, proved costly for the British. Of the 2400 British soldiers in Howe's command, the 1054 casualties accounted for nearly forty percent of their ranks. The American casualties were 441, including 30 captured, with most being inflicted during the retreat. The battle served to prove to the American people that the British Army was not invincible. It became a symbol of national pride and a rally point of resistance against British rule.

Revolutionary War Battles

“The Battle of Lexington and Concord” April 19, 1775



On April 19, 1775, British General Thomas Gage dispatched 700 British troops commanded by Lt. Col. Francis Smith to Concord, Massachusetts, 16 miles northwest of Boston, to seize munitions that the Patriots had been stockpiling. Word of the British departure from Boston was quickly spread by Paul Revere in his famous ride, and by the time the British reached the village green at Lexington, through which they had to pass, they found 70 Minutemen waiting for them under the command of Capt. John Parker . When ordered by the British to disperse, “The Shot Heard ‘Round the World” was fired and the American Revolution was begun. The British then fired upon the Minutemen, killing 8 and wounding 10. The British suffered 1 wounded.

The British continued the 6 miles to Concord and the Americans retreated to the North Bridge just outside the town. While the main body of soldiers accomplished their mission of seizing the gunpowder, a small contingent of British troops skirmished again with the colonists, now numbering several hundred. 3 British soldiers and 2 Americans were killed in this battle. As they

returned to Boston, the British were under constant assault from Massachusetts militiamen, who inflicted 273 casualties.



The Midnight Ride of Paul Revere

The opening engagements of the American Revolution, April 19, 1775. After the passage (1774) of the Intolerable Acts by the British Parliament, unrest in the colonies increased. The British commander at Boston, Gen. Thomas Gage, sought to avoid armed rebellion by sending a column of royal infantry from Boston to capture colonial military stores at Concord. News of his plan was dispatched to the countryside by Paul Revere, William Dawes, and Samuel Prescott. As the advance column under Major John Pitcairn reached Lexington, they came upon a group of militia (the minutemen). After a brief exchange of shots in which several Americans were killed, the colonials withdrew, and the British continued to Concord. Here they destroyed some military supplies, fought another engagement, and began a harried withdrawal to Boston, which cost them over 200 casualties.

Revolutionary War Battles

"The Battle of Monmouth" June 28, 1778



**Molly Pitcher
at the Battle
of Monmouth**

**A Brief
History:**



As British General Clinton prepared to evacuate Philadelphia there was strong sentiment in the Continental Army command that a cooperative effort between their army and the newly allied French naval fleet might result in winning the war. A French naval squadron consisting of 11 war ships along with transports carrying 4000 French troops sailed from France in May of 1778 and headed to America. The fleet, commanded by Comte d'Estaing, was far superior than any Admiral Howe (British) could immediately concentrate in American waters. This represented a stronghold on strategic initiative in favor of the Americans, which General Washington hoped to capitalize on.

Clinton received orders from England to detach 8000 of his roughly 10,000 man force to the West Indies and Florida and evacuate the rest of his men from Philadelphia to New York by sea. Instead, Clinton decided to move the entire army to NY before making any detachments and to move them overland. His decision was largely based on the fact that he didn't have the transports to move his 3000 horses over sea. Clinton set out from Philadelphia with his 10,000 men, to include Tories from the region, on 18 June 1778. Washington and his growing army of 12,000 men immediately occupied Philadelphia and began pursuit of Clinton towards NY.

Washington was still undecided as to whether he should risk an attack on the British column while it was on the march. He held a meeting of his command staff, the Council of War, and attempted to find some resolve in that matter. The council, however, was quite divided on the issue. The only unifying theme was that none of Washington's generals advised in favor of a general action. [Brig Gen Anthony Wayne](#), the boldest of the staff, and [Maj Gen Marquis de Lafayette](#), the youngest of the staff, urged for a partial attack on the British column while it was strung out on the road. Gen Lee, who had been captured and exchanged and had rejoined the army at [Valley Forge](#), was the most cautious. He advised only guerilla action to harass the British column. On 26, June 1778, Washington sided with a more bold approach but did not go so far as issuing orders for a general action. He sent almost one-half of his army as an advance force to strike at the rear of the British when Clinton made the eminent move out of Monmouth Courthouse, which occurred on 28, June 1778.

Early in the morning on 28 June, Lee advanced upon unreconnoitered ground and made contact with the British rear guard at Monmouth Courthouse. Clinton reacted quickly and maneuvered to envelop the American right flank. Lee felt that he was then faced by a superior force and fell into a retreat that seems to have been quite confused. Washington was quite irate at the retreat and spoke harshly at Lee. Washington then assumed a defensive position to repel a possible British counter-attack.

The ensuing battle, involving the bulk of both armies, was fought on that hot, sultry day and continued until nightfall with both sides holding their original positions.



"Washington Rebuking Lee at Monmouth" by John Ward Dunmore
(currently in possession of the Sons of the Revolution)

Revolutionary War Battles

"The Battle of Saratoga" September 19, 1777

A Brief History

Historians consider the Battle of Saratoga to be the major turning point of the American Revolution. This battle proved to the world that the fledgling American army was an effective fighting force capable of defeating the highly trained British forces in a major confrontation. As a result of this successful battle, the European powers, particularly the French, took interest in the cause of the Americans and began to support them.

In the British Campaign of 1777, Major General Burgoyne planned a concentric advance of three columns to meet in Albany, New York. He led the main column, which moved southward along the Hudson River. A second column under General Barry St. Leger served as a diversionary attack, moving eastward from Canada along the Mohawk River. [General Howe](#) was expected to direct the third element of the attack. According to the plan, General Henry Clinton, under the direction of Howe, would move northward along the Hudson River and link up with Burgoyne in Albany. Through this campaign, the British hoped to isolate and destroy the Continental forces of New England.

Initially, the British plan appeared to be working, with British victories at Ticonderoga and Hubbardton. Burgoyne's army continually pushed back the Americans southward along the Hudson River with only minor casualties. The [Battle of Bennington](#) marked the first significant American victory, when General John Stark led the American militia to victory against a British resupply expedition.

In an attempt to slow the British advance, the American General [Philip Schuyler](#) detached 1000 men under the command of [Major General Benedict Arnold](#). This force moved west to thwart St. Leger's eastward advance along the Mohawk River. Arnold returned with his detachment after repelling St. Leger in time serve in the Battle of Saratoga.

At the Battle of Freeman's Farm, the new commander of the Northern Department of the American army, [General Horatio Gates](#), lost an indecisive battle. During this First Battle of Saratoga, fought 19 September 1777, the American forces lost ground to the British forces under General Burgoyne. Disagreements in tactics and personalities led to a heated argument between Generals Gates and Arnold. General Gates relieved Arnold of command as a result. The Battle of Bemis Heights was the second battle of Saratoga, taking place October 7th when Burgoyne desperately attacked rebel defenses with his tired, demoralized army. At Bemis Heights, Gate's defensive tactics insured a tactical victory for the [Patriots](#). However, Arnold saw an opportunity



The Surrender of Gen. Burgoyne at Saratoga, New York, 1777
Painting © The Frick Collection, New York

John Trumbull painted this portrait of the surrender of General Burgoyne at the Battle of Saratoga. In the painting, General Burgoyne surrenders his sword to General Gates, commander of the American forces at Saratoga.

to seize the offensive while Burgoyne was vulnerable and led a counterattack. This bold move so badly wounded the British forces that [Burgoyne surrendered](#) days later at Saratoga.

On September 19, 1777 the Royal army advanced upon the American camp in three separate columns within the present day towns of Stillwater and Saratoga. Two of them headed through the heavy forests covering the region; the third, composed of German troops, marched down the river road.

American scouts detected Burgoyne's army in motion and notified Gates, who ordered [Col. Daniel Morgan's](#) corps of Virginia riflemen to track the British march. About 12:30 p.m., some of Morgan's men brushed with the advance guard of Burgoyne's center column in a clearing known as the Freeman Farm, about a mile north of the American camp. The general battle that followed swayed back and forth over the farm for more than three hours. Then, as the British lines began to waver in the face of the deadly fire of the numerically superior Americans, German reinforcements arrived from the river road. Hurling them against the American right, Burgoyne steadied the wavering British line and gradually forced the Americans to withdraw. Except for this timely arrival and the near exhaustion of the Americans' ammunition, Burgoyne might have been defeated that day. Though he held the immediate field of battle, Burgoyne had been stopped about a mile north of the American line and his army roughly treated.

Shaken by his "victory," the British commander ordered his troops to entrench in the vicinity of the Freeman Farm and await support from Clinton, who was supposedly preparing to move north toward Albany from New York City. For nearly three weeks he waited but Clinton did not come. By now Burgoyne's situation was critical. Faced by a growing American army without hope of help from the south, and with supplies rapidly diminishing, the British army became weaker with each passing day. Burgoyne had to choose between advancing or retreating. He decided to risk a second engagement, and on October 7 ordered a reconnaissance-in-force to test the American left flank. Ably led and supported by eight cannon, a force of 1,500 men moved out of the British camp. After marching southwesterly about three-quarters of a mile, the troops deployed in a clearing on the Barber Farm. Most of the British front faced an open field, but both flanks rested in woods, thus exposing them to surprise attack.

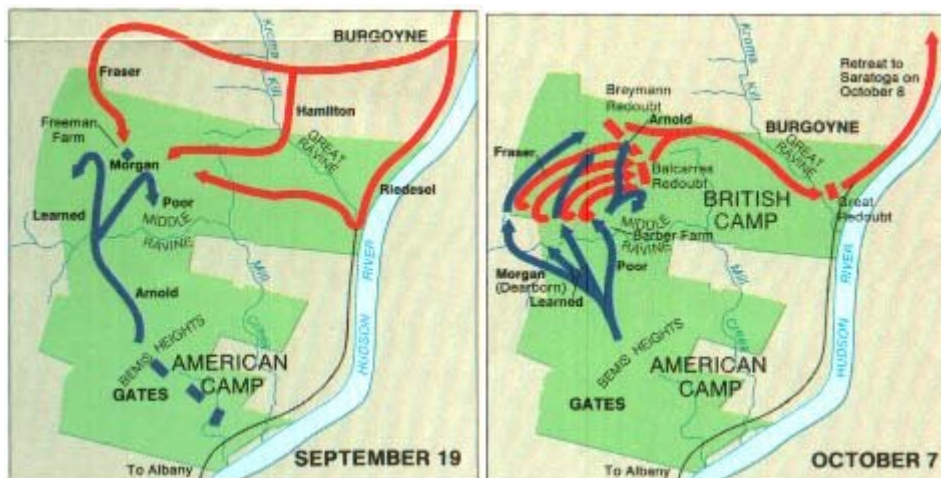
By now the Americans knew that Burgoyne's army was again on the move and at about 3 p.m. attacked in three columns under Colonel Morgan, Gen. Ebenezer Learned, and Gen. Enoch Poor. Repeatedly the British line was broken, then rallied, and both flanks were severely punished and driven back. Gen. Simon Fraser, who commanded the British right, was mortally wounded as he rode among his men to encourage them to make a stand and cover the developing withdrawal. Before the enemy's flanks could be rallied, [Gen. Benedict Arnold](#) -who had been relieved of command after a quarrel with Gates- rode onto the field and led Learned's brigade against the German troops holding the British center.

Under tremendous pressure from all sides, the Germans joined a general withdrawal into the fortifications on the Freeman Farm. Within an hour after the opening clash, Burgoyne lost eight cannon and more than 400 officers and men. Flushed with success, the Americans believed that

victory was near. Arnold led one column in a series of savage attacks on the Balcarres Redoubt, a powerful British fieldwork on the Freeman Farm. After failing repeatedly to carry this position, Arnold wheeled his horse and, dashing through the crossfire of both armies, spurred northwest to the Breymann Redoubt. Arriving just as American troops began to assault the fortification, he joined in the final surge that overwhelmed the German soldiers defending the work. Upon entering the redoubt, he was wounded in the leg. Had he died there, posterity would have known few names brighter than that of Benedict Arnold.

Darkness ended the day's fighting and saved Burgoyne's army from immediate disaster. That night the British commander left his campfires burning and withdrew his troops behind the Great Redoubt, which protected the high ground and river flats at the northeast corner of the battlefield. The next night, October 8, after burying General Fraser in the redoubt, the British began their retreat northward. They had suffered 1,000 casualties in the fighting of the past three weeks; American losses numbered less than 500.

After a miserable march in mud and rain, Burgoyne's troops took refuge in a fortified camp on the heights of Saratoga. There an American force that had grown to nearly 20,000 men surrounded the exhausted British army. Faced with such overwhelming numbers, Burgoyne surrendered on October 17, 1777. By the terms of the Convention of Saratoga, Burgoyne's depleted army, some 6,000 men, marched out of its camp "with the Honors of War" and stacked its weapons along the west bank of the Hudson River. Thus was gained one of the most decisive victories in American and world history.



American and British Forces at the two Battles of Saratoga.



The route of defeat of British General John Burgoyne and his troops.

Revolutionary War Battles



Continental Army uniform coat worn by Brigadier-General Peter Gansevoort Jr., an American officer in the Revolutionary War, during his command of Fort Stanwix, New York, in 1777.

Revolutionary War Battles



The Continental Army

The Continental Army had no money, and had bad soldiers (few soldiers). The [Continental Congress](#) raised eight companies of soldiers, each numbering 120 men. These companies were made up entirely of cripples, invalids, blind men, and men missing arms and legs. But, they were fighting on their own land, for their own land, and for freedom. And, they had a great leader. They got supplies by stealing them from the British. (Fort Ticonderoga)

[George Washington](#) lamented that the Continental Army had "very little discipline, order or government" at the beginning of the Revolutionary War. As the war progressed, his soldiers learned European military drill, and combined it with their determination and frontier know-how to defeat the redcoats, one of the world's best-trained and best-equipped armies.



Continental Army soldier shown loading a rifle.

The rifle took a long time to load, compared to the musket. By the time a soldier forced his rifle ball down the barrel, the enemy could get him with a bayonet. Their rifles had no bayonet, a necessity for fighting at close range, or in damp weather when wet flints and gunpowder made firearms useless. Because of these disadvantages, the musket remained the primary weapon used during the Revolutionary War.

England had good soldiers and lots of money. But, they didn't care, and England was fighting several other wars at the same time. (There was a Palm tree fort in Charleston. The English stopped several times when they got close to ending it, crossing the Delaware to attack drunk Hessians.)

Revolutionary War

Timeline

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

[1763-1775 - Heading Towards War](#)

1775

- April 18 - Paul Revere's ride.
- April 19 - Battle of Concord and Lexington.
- April 23 - King George III declares the colonies to be in rebellion.
- April - Siege of Boston begins.

- May 10 - Second Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia.

- June 15 - George Washington named Commander in Chief.
- June 16-17 - Battle of Bunker Hill.

- July 3 - Washington assumes duties as Commander in Chief.
- July 5 - Americans capture Fort Ticonderoga.
- July 6 - Congress issues a "Declaration of the Causes and Necessity of Taking Up Arms".

- September - General Benedict Arnold sets off with an American force to capture Quebec.

- November 28 - Continental Congress authorizes creation of US Navy.

- December 31 - Americans attack Quebec.

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

1776

- February 27 - Battle of Moore's Creek Bridge.

- March 26 - British evacuate Boston.

- July 4 - Declaration of Independence.

- October 11-12 - Battle of Valcour Bay.
- October 27-28- Battle of White Plains.

- November 16 - British capture Fort Washington; General Washington retreats through New Jersey.

- December 26 - Battle of Trenton.

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

1777

- January 3 - [Battle of Princeton](#).
- March 12 - The [Continental Congress](#) returns to Philadelphia from Baltimore .
- April 27 - Battle of Ridgefield, CT. British beaten by Americans commanded by Benedict Arnold.
- June 14 - America has a flag. Congress gives *Ranger* to [John Paul Jones](#) with the mission to raid the English coast.
- June 17 - British troops under General John Burgoyne sail down Lake Champlain from Canada, planning to cut New England off from the other colonies by linking with General Howe who was to come north from New York City.
- July 6 - British recapture Fort Ticonderoga.
- July 23 - General Howe sails for Chesapeake Bay to capture Philadelphia, instead of attempting to link with General Burgoyne.
- July 27 - Congress names 19 year old French aristocrat [Marquis de Lafayette](#) a Major General in the Continental Army after he volunteers to serve without pay.
- August 1 - General Burgoyne reaches the Hudson River.
- August 16 - [Battle of Bennington](#).
- August 25 - Gen. Howe disembarks his troops at Chesapeake Bay.
- August 27 - Battle of Long Island.
- September 9-11 - [Battle of Brandywine](#). Continental Congress leaves Philadelphia for Lancaster, PA.
- September 19 - first [Battle of Saratoga](#).
- September 26 - General Howe occupies Philadelphia. Continental Congress moves to York, PA.
- October 4 - [Battle of Germantown](#).
- October 7 - Second Battle of Saratoga.
- October 13 - British surrender at Saratoga.
- November - [Articles of Confederation](#) ratified.
- Winter 1777-1778 - [Valley Forge](#).

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

1778

- January 7 - Treaty of Amity and Commerce with France.

- February 6 - Treaty of Alliance with France.
- February 23 - Prussian Baron von Steuben joins Americans at Valley Forge and begins drilling and training the troops.
- March 16 - British Parliament creates a Peace Commission to negotiate with the Colonies. The Commission sails to Philadelphia and offers to meet all of the American demands other than independence. Continental Congress declines the offer.
- May 8 - General Howe is replaced by General Henry Clinton as commander of all British forces in the Colonies.
- May 30 - 300 Iroquois Indians burn Cobleskill, New York at the prompting of the British.
- June 18 - General Clinton, fearing a French blockade, withdraws from Philadelphia and marches for New York City. Americans re-occupy Philadelphia.
- June 19 - Washington moves from Valley Forge to intercept Clinton.
- June 27-28 - Battle of Monmouth. After a standoff, General Clinton continues towards New York.
- July 2 - Continental Congress returns to Philadelphia.
- July 3 - Massacre at Wyoming Valley, PA; Washington establishes West Point, NY as his headquarters.
- July 10 - France declares war on Britain.
- August 8 - French naval and American land forces attempt an unsuccessful siege of Newport, RI. The French fleet returns to Boston for repairs.
- September 14 - Benjamin Franklin named American representative to France.
- November 11 - American settlers massacred by Loyalists and Indians at Cherry Valley, NY.
- December 29 - British capture Savannah, GA.

1775 1776 1777 1778 1779
1780 1781 1782 1783
 1779

- January 29 - British capture Augusta, GA.
- April - American troops attack Chickamauga Indian villages in Tennessee in retaliation for raids on settlers.
- May 10 - British burn Portsmouth and Norfolk, VA.
- June 1 - Clinton moves up Hudson towards West Point.

- **June 16 - Spain declares war on Britain, but does not ally with Americans.**
- **July 5-11 - Connecticut coastal towns raided by Loyalists. Fairfield and Norwalk burned, along with ships in the harbor at New Haven.**
- **July 10 - Naval ships from Massachusetts attacking the Loyalist bulwark of Castine, Maine are destroyed by British Navy.**
- **July 15 - Americans capture Stony Point.**
- **August 14 - Continental Congress approves a peace plan specifying independence, complete withdrawal of British forces from Colonies and freedom of navigation on the Mississippi River as conditions.**
- **August 29 - American forces defeat the combined Indian and Loyalist forces at Elmira, New York. Following the victory, American troops head northwest and destroy nearly 40 Cayuga and Seneca Indian villages in retaliation for the campaign of terror against American settlers.**
- **September 3 - October 28 -American forces suffer a major defeat while attacking the British at Savannah, Georgia.**
- **September 23 - Bonne Homme Richard vs Serapis. John Paul Jones replies "I have not yet begun to fight" when asked to surrender by the British captain. Jones then captures the British ship before his own sinks.**
- **September 27 - Congress appoints John Adams to negotiate with England for peace.**
- **October 17 - Washington goes into winter quarters at Morristown, New Jersey.**
- **December 26 - General Clinton sails for Charleston from New York with 8000 men.**

1775 1776 1777 1778 1779
1780 1781 1782 1783

1780

- **April 8 - British warships enter Charleston Harbor. Washington sends reinforcements.**
- **May 6 - Fort Moultrie captured by the British.**
- **May 12 - British capture Charleston. With losses of 5400 men , 4 ships and a military arsenal, this is the worst American defeat of the Revolutionary War.**
- **May 25 - In Morristown, New Jersey two Continental regiments conduct an armed march through the camp, demanding immediate payment of overdue salary and full rations. Rebellion is ended by troops from Pennsylvania. Two leaders of the protest are hanged.**

- **June 11 - Massachusetts endorses a new constitution asserting "all men are born free and equal," including blacks.**
- **June 14 - Congress appoints General Horatio Gates to command of the Southern Army.**
- **June 23 - British defeated by American forces at the Battle of Springfield, New Jersey.**
- **June 28 - Battle of Monmouth.**
- **July 11 - Count de Rochambeau arrives in Newport, Rhode Island with 6000 French soldiers. A British blockade will keep them there for almost a year.**
- **August 3 - Benedict Arnold named commander of West Point.**
- **August 16 - Battle of Camden.**
- **August 18 - Battle of Fishing Creek, SC. An American defeat opens the door to North Carolina for the British.**
- **September 23 - A British major in civilian clothing, carrying plans indicating Benedict Arnold intends to turn traitor and surrender West Point, is captured near Tarrytown, New York.**
- **September 25 - Benedict Arnold flees West Point to the British ship Vulture on the Hudson. He is later named a brigadier general in the British.**
- **October 7 - Battle of King's Mountain. Cornwallis abandons his invasion of North Carolina.**
- **October 14 - Battle of Shallow Ford. General Gates is replaced by Nathanael Greene as commander of the Southern Army.**

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

1781

- **January 3 - Troops from Pennsylvania set up camp near Princeton, NJ and choose their own representatives to negotiate with state officials back in Pennsylvania. The crisis is eventually resolved through negotiations, but over half of the mutineers abandon the army.**
- **January 17 - Battle of Cowpens. General Daniel Morgan defeats General Tarleton in an American victory.**
- **January 20 - Mutiny among American troops at Pompton, New Jersey. The rebellion is put down seven days later by a 600-man force sent by Washington. Two of the leaders are hanged**
- **March 15 - Battle of Guilford Courthouse. General Cornwallis suffers heavy losses, abandons plans to conquer the Carolinas and retreats to Wilmington, then begins a**

campaign to conquer Virginia

- **April 25 - Battle of Hobkirk's Hill.**
- **May 21 - Washington and French General Rochambeau meet in Connecticut for a war council. Rochambeau reluctantly agrees to Washington's plan for a joint French naval and American ground attack on New York.**
- **June 4 - Thomas Jefferson narrowly escapes capture by the British at Charlottesville, Virginia.**
- **June 10 - Americans troops under Marquis de Lafayette, General Anthony Wayne and Baron von Steuben begin to form a combined force in Virginia to oppose British forces under Benedict Arnold and General Cornwallis.**
- **June 11 - Congress appoints Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson and John Jay to a peace commission to supplement John Adams as the sole negotiator with the British.**
- **July 20 - Slaves rebel in Williamsburg, Virginia.**
- **August 1 - Cornwallis and his 10,000 soldiers arrive at Yorktown, Virginia after several months of chasing General Greene's army with little success. He then establishes a base to communicate by sea with General Clinton's forces in New York.**
- **August 14 - Washington abandons the planned attack on New York in favor of Yorktown after receiving word from French Admiral Count de Grasse indicating his entire 29-ship French fleet with 3000 soldiers is now heading for the Chesapeake Bay near General Cornwallis. Washington also coordinates with General Rochambeau to rush their best troops south to Virginia to destroy the British position in Yorktown.**
- **August 30 - Count de Grasse's fleet arrives off Yorktown, Virginia. De Grasse then lands troops near Yorktown, linking with Lafayette's American troops to cut Cornwallis off from any retreat by land.**
- **September 1 - The troops of Washington and Rochambeau arrive at Philadelphia.**
- **September 5-8 - Off Yorktown, a major naval battle between the French fleet of de Grasse and the outnumbered British fleet of Admiral Thomas Graves results in a victory for de Grasse. The British fleet retreats to New York for reinforcements, leaving the French fleet in control of the Chesapeake. The French fleet establishes a blockade, cutting Cornwallis off from any retreat by sea. French naval reinforcements then arrive from Newport.**
- **September 6 - Troops under Benedict Arnold loot and burn the port of New London, Connecticut.**
- **September 8 - Battle of Eutaw Springs.**
- **September 14-24 - De Grasse sends his ships up the Chesapeake Bay to transport the armies of Washington and Rochambeau to Yorktown.**

- **September 28 - Washington, with a combined Allied army of 17,000 men, begins the siege of Yorktown. French cannons bombard Cornwallis and his 9000 men day and night while the Allied lines slowly advance and encircle them. British supplies run dangerously low.**
- **October 17 - As Yorktown is about to be taken, the British send out a flag of truce. Washington and Cornwallis then work out terms of surrender**
- **October 19 - The British surrender at Yorktown. Hopes for a British victory in the war against America are dashed.**
- **October 24 - General Clinton arrives at Chesapeake Bay with 7000 British reinforcements, but turns back upon hearing of the surrender at Yorktown**

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

1782

- **January 5 - The British withdraw from North Carolina.**
- **February 27 - The British House of Commons votes against further war in America.**
- **March 5 - Parliament empowers the King to negotiate peace with the United States.**
- **March 7 - American militiamen massacre 96 Delaware Indians in Ohio in retaliation for Indian raids conducted by other tribes.**
- **March 20 - Lord North resigns as British Prime Minister, succeeded two days later by Lord Rockingham who seeks immediate negotiations with the American peace commissioners.**
- **April 4 - General Clinton replaced by Sir Guy Carleton as British commander in America. Carleton will implement the new British policy of ending hostilities and withdraw British troops from America.**
- **April 12 - Battle of Les Saintes. Ben Franklin and Richard Oswald begin peace talks in Paris.**
- **April 16 - Washington establishes American army headquarters at Newburgh, New York.**
- **April 19 - Negotiations by John Adams results in the recognition of the United States of America by the Netherlands.**
- **June 11 - The British withdraw from Savannah.**
- **June 20 - The Great Seal of the United States of America adopted by Congress.**
- **August 19 - Battle of Blue Licks. Loyalist and Indian forces attack and defeat American settlers near Lexington, Kentucky.**
- **August 25 - Mohawk Indian Chief Joseph Brant conducts raids on settlements in Pennsylvania and Kentucky.**

- **August 27 - A skirmish along the Combahee River in South Carolina is the last fighting between American and British forces in the Revolutionary War.**
- **November 10 - Americans retaliate against Loyalist and Indian forces by attacking a Shawnee Indian village in the Ohio territory in the last battle of the war.**
- **November 30 - A preliminary peace treaty is signed in Paris. Terms include recognition of American independence and the boundaries of the United States, along with British withdrawal from America.**
- **December 14 - The British withdraw from Charleston.**
- **December 15 - Strong objections are expressed by the French over the signing of the peace treaty in Paris without America first consulting them. A diplomatic response by Ben Franklin prevents a falling out between France and America.**

[1775](#) [1776](#) [1777](#) [1778](#) [1779](#)
[1780](#) [1781](#) [1782](#) [1783](#)

1783

- **January 20 - England signs a preliminary peace treaty with France and Spain.**
- **February 3 - Spain recognizes the United States of America. Sweden, Denmark and Russia follow suite later.**
- **February 4 - England officially declares an end to hostilities in America.**
- **March 10 - An anonymous letter circulates among Washington's senior officers camped at Newburgh, New York calling for an unauthorized meeting and urging the officers to defy the authority of the new U.S. national government (Congress) for its failure to honor past promises to the Continental Army. The next day, Washington forbids the meeting and suggests a regular meeting to be held on March 15. A second anonymous letter appears, falsely claiming Washington himself sympathizes with the rebellious officers.**
- **March 15 - March 15, 1783 - Washington gathers his officers and talks them out of a rebellion against the authority of Congress, preserving the American democracy.**
- **April 11 - Congress officially declares an end to the Revolutionary War.**
- **April 26 - The total of Loyalists who have fled for Canada reaches 100,000 as 7,000 leave New York.**
- **June 13 - The main part of the Continental Army disbands.**
- **June 24 - Congress moves from Philadelphia to Princeton, NJ to avoid protests from angry, unpaid war veterans.**
- **July 8 - Slavery abolished in Massachusetts by the State Supreme Court.**

- **September 3 - Treaty of Paris signed. Congress will ratify the treaty on January 14, 1784.**
- **October 7 - The Virginia House of Burgesses grants freedom to slaves who served in the Continental Army.**
- **November 2 - Washington delivers his farewell address to his army. The remaining troops are discharged the following day.**
- **November 25 - The last British troops depart as Washington enters Manhattan.**
- **November 26 - Congress meets in Annapolis, Maryland.**
- **December 23 - Washington appears before Congress and voluntarily resigns his commission.**

Sugar Act; Stamp Act

The Stamp Act and Sugar Act lowered the tax, but now it was enforced. This also put an end to the profitable smuggling of the colonists. Colonists rioted and boycotted.



Left: Tarring and feathering of a British exciseman by a Liberty Tree.
 Right: A tax collector being tarred and feathered in 1774.

Tarring and feathering, a cruel but rarely fatal chastisement, was used on officials who collected London-imposed duties. It was also widely practiced by the more radical colonists against their fellow colonists who were reluctant to take up arms against the British. Liberty trees and Liberty Poles were named or erected as symbols of resistance by the Sons of Liberty, radical colonists who instigated and led violent agitation against the Stamp Acts. Such public events served both to encourage the radicals' sympathizers, and to cow their opponents.

When enacted in May, 1764, the Sugar Act (Revenue Act of 1764) was intended to raise revenue to repay England's national debt. Although the act is frequently compared to the unenforced Molasses Act of 1733, the Sugar Act imposed duties on a number of goods including molasses and other forms of sugar, textiles and dye, coffee, and wines. The duty on molasses, a key ingredient in rum and one of the more important products that the colonists used, was actually cut in half under the Sugar Act. The difference was that England intended to strictly enforce the new duties.

The tall coastal pines of Georgia yielded lumber, which had become a major export of the colony by 1754. One major consumer of Georgia lumber was the Caribbean Islands, whose molasses exports help pay for the lumber. When the Sugar Act was passed Georgians were concerned about the sale of lumber to customers in the Caribbean who would be using money gotten from the export of molasses to pay for the lumber. Georgia was also concerned because they might not be able to adhere to the strict shipping requirements of the act. Georgians protested the act in England on strictly economic terms, unlike the other colonies who protested the levy of a tax without approval of those being taxed.

The Stamp Act of 1765 (passed March 22, 1765) brought the first true rift between loyalist and colonist in Georgia. England sees the colonies as a part of the mother country, populated by Englishmen, and Parliament serves all Englishmen, whether they live in England or America. Colonists, especially the educated and the coastal wealthy, see a mother country out of control. Heady from the defeat of the Spanish and French, and recognized as the preeminent world power, the colonists see an England that begins to extract more from the colonies abroad and less from English at home. And the fact that the colonists, as loyal Englishmen, no longer enjoy the privilege of electing members of Parliament does not sit well with many men. Most colonists and many others around the world view [King George III](#) as incapable.

Massachusetts took the lead in organizing resistance to the act, calling for a Stamp Act Congress of the colonial governments. When word reached Georgia, Alexander Wylly called the members of the Commons House to Savannah. Governor Wright refused to call the session to order so no official action could be taken, however, with the consensus of the members an unofficial document of support including a commitment to back any action taken was forwarded to the Stamp Act Congress.

November 1, 1765 was the date set for the Stamp Act to go into effect, but with no instruction from England, Wright turned to his council for advice. They recommended holding up all land grants and warrants, but permitting ships to pass (ships would need stamped papers to enter or leave port). On November 5 the [Sons of Liberty](#) met at MacHenry's Tavern in Savannah, plotting their course of action should a stampmaster arrive.

In December the Commons House convened and issued to the king and others the documents recommended by the Stamp Act Congress, fulfilling the House's pledge to back any action taken by the congress. Then, on January 2, 1766, a most unique meeting occurred at the gates of the Governor's Mansion in Savannah. A rowdy group of men, some of whom were Sons of Liberty, marched to the gate where they were greeted by -- the royal governor himself, alone (but armed with a pistol). After discussing the Stamp Act and his actions, he told them they needed to trust his decisions.

On January 3 the royal stampmaster, Mr. George Angus, arrived below the port of Savannah and was immediately taken to Governor Wright's house. With his arrival the colony began to issue stamps as required by law. Some stamps were purchased, but in general Georgians had decided to "wait and see" if the act would be rescinded.

Wright decided the stamps, which no longer had buyers were not safe from the Liberty Boys in Savannah, so he moved them to Fort George on Cockspur Island, where they remained until the act was repealed. Parliament repealed of the act on March 18, 1766, but they included an affirmation of their sovereignty. (Georgia was official notified of the repeal on July 16, 1765). George Knox, who acted as agent for Georgia on colonial matters in England wrote an article agreeing with the right of Parliament to levy taxes on the colonies. Knox was removed by the Commons House.

It was the [Stamp Act](#), passed by the British Parliament in 1765, with its direct demand for



revenue that roused a violent colonial outcry, which was spearheaded by the Northern merchants, lawyers, and newspaper publishers who were directly affected. Everywhere leaders such as James Otis, Samuel Adams, and Patrick Henry denounced the act with eloquence, societies called the Sons of Liberty were formed, and the Stamp Act Congress was called to protest that Parliament was violating the rights of trueborn Englishmen in taxing the colonials, who were not directly represented in the supreme legislature. The threat of boycott and refusal to import English goods supported the colonial clamor. Parliament repealed (1766) the Stamp Act but passed an act formally declaring its right to tax the colonies.

The incident was closed, but a barb remained to wound American feelings. Colonial political theorists—not only radicals such as Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Josiah Quincy (1744-75), and Alexander M c Dougall but also moderates such as John Dickinson, John Adams, and Benjamin Franklin—asserted that taxation without representation was tyranny. The teachings of 18th-century French philosophers and continental writers on law, such as Emmerich de Vattel, as well as the theories of John Locke, were implicit in the colonial arguments based on the theory of natural rights. The colonials claimed that Parliament had the sovereign power to legislate in the interest of the entire British Empire, but that it could only tax those actually represented in Parliament.

Trouble flared when the Chatham ministry adopted (1767) the Townshend Acts, which taxed numerous imports; care was taken to levy only an external or indirect tax in the hope that the colonials would accept this. But this indirect tax was challenged too, and although the duties were not heavy, the principle was attacked. Incidents came in interrupted sequence to make feeling run higher and higher: the seizure of a ship belonging to John Hancock in 1768; the bloodshed of the Boston Massacre in 1770; the burning of H. M. S. Gaspee in 1772.

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783



Surrender Of Cornwallis

When Washington's army arrived on September 26, the French Fleet was in firm control of the bay, blocking Cornwallis' sea route of escape. A decisive concentration had been achieved. Counting 3,000 Virginia militia, Washington had a force of about 9,000 Americans and 6,000 French troops with which to conduct the siege. It proceeded in the best traditions of Vauban under the direction of French engineers. Cornwallis obligingly abandoned his forward position on September 30, and on October 6 the first parallel was begun 600 yards from the main British position. Artillery placed along the trench began its destructive work on October 9. By October 11 the zigzag connecting trench had been dug zoo yards forward, and work on the second

parallel had begun. Two British redoubts had to be reduced in order to extend the line to the York River. This accomplished, Cornwallis' only recourse was escape across the river to Gloucester Point where the American line was thinly held. A storm on the night of October 16 frustrated his attempt to do so, leaving him with no hope but relief from New York. Clinton had been considering such relief for days, but he acted too late. On the very day, October 17, that Admiral Graves set sail from New York with a reinforced fleet and 7,000 troops for the relief of Yorktown, Cornwallis began negotiations on terms of surrender. On October 19 his entire army marched out to lay down its arms, the British band playing an old tune called "The World Turned Upside Down."

So far as active campaigning was concerned, [Yorktown](#) ended the war. Both [Greene](#) and Washington maintained their armies in position near New York and Charleston for nearly two years more, but the only fighting that occurred was some minor skirmishing in the South. Cornwallis' defeat led to the overthrow of the British cabinet and the formation of a new government that decided the war in America was lost. With some success, Britain devoted its energies to trying to salvage what it could in the West Indies and in India. The independence for which Americans had fought thus virtually became a reality when Cornwallis' command marched out of its breached defenses at Yorktown.



The Adventures of Col. Daniel Boone



PART ONE

Curiosity is natural to the soul of man and interesting objects have a powerful influence on our affections. Let these influencing powers actuate, by the permission or disposal of Providence, from selfish or social views, yet in time the mysterious will of Heaven is unfolded, and we behold our conduct, from whatever motives excited, operating to answer the important designs of heaven.

Thus we behold Kentucky, lately an howling wilderness, the habitation of savages and wild beasts, become a fruitful field; this region, so favourably distinguished by nature, now become the habitation of civilization, at a period unparalleled in history, in the midst of a raging war, and under all the disadvantages of emigration to a country so remote from the inhabited parts of the continent.

Here, where the hand of violence shed the blood of the innocent; where the horrid yells of savages, and the groans of the distressed, sounded in our ears, we now hear the praises and adorations of our Creator; where wretched wigwams stood, the miserable abode of savages, we behold the foundations of cities laid, that, in all probability, will equal the glory of the greatest upon earth. And we view Kentucky situated on the fertile banks of the great Ohio, rising from obscurity to shine with splendor, equal to any other of the states of the American hemisphere.

The settling of this region well deserves a place in history. Most of the memorable events I have myself been exercised in; and, for the satisfaction of the public, will briefly relate the circumstances of my adventures, and scenes of life, from my first movement to this country until this day.

It was on the first of May, in the year 1769, that I resigned my domestic happiness for a time, and left my family and peaceable habitation on the Yadkin River, in North Carolina, to wander

through the wilderness of America, in quest of the country of Kentucky, in company with John Finley, John Stewart, Joseph Holden, James Monay, and William Cool.

We proceeded successfully, and after a long and fatiguing journey through a mountainous wilderness, in a westward direction, on the seventh day of June following we found ourselves on Red-River, where John Finley had formerly been trading with the Indians, and, from the top of an eminence, saw with pleasure the beautiful level of Kentucky.

Here let me observe, that for some time we had experienced the most uncomfortable weather as a prelibation of our future sufferings. At this place we encamped, and made a shelter to defend us from the inclement season, and began to hunt and reconnoitre the country. We found every where abundance of wild beasts of all sorts, through this vast forest. The buffalo were more frequent than I have seen cattle in the settlements, browsing on the leaves of the cane, or cropping the herbage on those extensive plains, fearless, because ignorant, of the violence of man. Sometimes we saw hundreds in a drove, and the numbers about the salt springs were amazing. In this forest, the habitation of beasts of every kind natural to America, we practiced hunting with great success, until the twenty-second day of December following.

This day John Stewart and I had a pleasing ramble, but fortune changed the scene in the close of it. We had passed through a great forest, on which stood myriads of trees, some gay with blossoms, others rich with fruits. Nature was here a series of wonders, and a fund of delight. Here she displayed her ingenuity and industry in a variety of flowers and fruits, beautifully coloured, elegantly shaped, and charmingly flavoured; and we were diverted with innumerable animals presenting themselves perpetually to our view.

In the decline of the day, near Kentucky river, as we ascended the brow of a small hill, a number of Indians rushed out of a thick cane-brake upon us, and made us prisoners. The time of our sorrow was not arrived, and the scene fully opened. The Indians plundered us of what we had, and kept us in confinement seven days, treating us with common savage usage. During this time we discovered no uneasiness or desire to escape, which made them less suspicious of us; but in the dead of night, as we lay in a thick cane-brake by a large fire, when sleep had locked up their senses, my situation not disposing me for rest, I touched my companion, and gently awoke him. We improved this favourable opportunity, and departed, leaving them to take their rest, and speedily directed our course towards our old camp, but found it plundered, and the company dispersed and gone home.

About this time my brother, Squire Boon, with another adventurer, who came to explore the country shortly after us, was wandering through the forest, determined to find me if possible, and accidentally found our camp. Notwithstanding the unfortunate circumstances of our company, and our dangerous situation, as surrounded with hostile savages, our meeting so fortunately in the wilderness made us reciprocally sensible of the utmost satisfaction. So much does friendship triumph over misfortune, that sorrows and sufferings vanish at the meeting not only of real friends, but of the most distant acquaintances, and substitute happiness in their room.

Soon after this, my companion in captivity, John Stewart, was killed by the savages, and the man that came with my brother returned home by himself. We were then in a dangerous, helpless

situation, exposed daily to perils and death amongst savages and wild beasts, not a white man in the country but ourselves.

Thus situated, many hundred miles from our families in the howling wilderness, I believe few would have equally enjoyed the happiness we experienced. I often observed to my brother, You see now how little nature requires to be satisfied. Felicity, the companion of content, is rather found in our own breasts than in the enjoyment of external things; and I firmly believe it requires but a little philosophy to make a man happy in whatever state he is. This consists in a full resignation to the will of Providence; and a resigned soul finds pleasure in a path strewned with briars and thorns.

We continued not in a state of indolence, but hunted every day, and prepared a little cottage to defend us from the winter storms. We remained there undisturbed during the winter; and on the first day of May, 1770, my brother returned home to the settlement by himself, for a new recruit of horses and ammunition, leaving me by myself, without bread, salt or sugar, without company of my fellow creatures, or even a horse or dog. I confess I never before was under greater necessity of exercising philosophy and fortitude.

A few days I passed uncomfortably. The idea of a beloved wife and family, and their anxiety upon the account of my absence and exposed situation, made sensible impressions on my heart. A thousand dreadful apprehensions presented themselves to my view, and had undoubtedly disposed me to melancholy, if further indulged.

One day I undertook a tour through the country, and the diversity and beauties of nature I met with in this charming season, expelled every gloomy and vexatious thought. Just at the close of day the gentle gales retired, and left the place to the disposal of a profound calm. Not a breeze shook the most tremulous leaf. I had gained the summit of a commanding ridge, and, looking round with astonishing delight, beheld the ample plains, the beauteous tracts below. On the other hand, I surveyed the famous river Ohio that rolled in silent dignity, marking the western boundary of Kentucky with inconceivable grandeur. At a vast distance I beheld the mountains lift their venerable brows, and penetrate the clouds. All things were still.

I kindled a fire near a fountain of sweet water, and feasted on the loin of a buck, which a few hours before I had killed. The sullen shades of night soon overspread the whole hemisphere, and the earth seemed to gasp after the hovering moisture. My roving excursion this day had fatigued my body, and diverted my imagination. I laid me down to sleep, and I awoke not until the sun had chased away the night.

I continued this tour, and in a few days explored a considerable part of the country, each day equally pleased as the first. I returned again to my old camp, which was not disturbed in my absence. I did not confine my lodging to it, but often reposed in thick cane-brakes, to avoid the savages, who, I believe, often visited my camp, but fortunately for me, in my absence.

In this situation I was constantly exposed to danger and death. How unhappy such a situation for a man tormented with fear, which is vain if no danger comes, and if it does, only augments the pain. It was my happiness to be destitute of this afflicting passion, with which I had the greatest

reason to be affected. The prowling wolves diverted my nocturnal hours with perpetual howlings; and the various species of animals in this vast forest, the day time, were continually in my view.

Thus I was surrounded with plenty in the midst of want. I was happy in the midst of dangers and inconveniences. In such a diversity it was impossible I should be disposed to melancholy. No populous city, with all the varieties of commerce and stately structures, could afford so much pleasure to my mind, as the beauties of nature I found here.

Thus, through an uninterrupted scene of sylvan pleasures, I spent the time until the 27th day of July following, when my brother, to my great felicity, met me, according to appointment, at our old camp. Shortly after, we left this place, not thinking it safe to stay there longer, and proceeded to Cumberland River, reconnoitring that part of the country until March, 1771, and giving names to the different waters.

Soon after, I returned home to my family, with a determination to bring them as soon as possible to live in Kentucky, which I esteemed a second paradise, at the risk of my life and fortune.

I returned safe to my old habitation, and found my family in happy circumstances. I sold my farm on the Yadkin, and what goods we could not carry with us; and on the twenty-fifth day of September, 1773, bade a farewell to our friends, and proceeded on our journey to Kentucky, in company with five families more, and forty men that joined us in Powel's Valley, which is one hundred and fifty miles from the now settled parts of Kentucky.

This promising beginning was soon overcast with a cloud of adversity; for upon the tenth day of October, the rear of our company was attacked by a number of Indians, who killed six, and wounded one man. Of these my eldest son was one that fell in the action. Though we defended ourselves, and repulsed the enemy, yet this unhappy affair scattered our cattle, brought us into extreme difficulty, and so discouraged the whole company, that we retreated forty miles, to the settlement on Clinch River.

We had passed over two mountains, viz. Powel's and Walden's, and were approaching Cumberland mountain when this adverse fortune overtook us. These mountains are in the wilderness, as we pass from the old settlements in Virginia to Kentucky, are ranged in a S.W. and N.E. direction, are of a great length and breadth, and not far distant from each other. Over these, nature hath formed passes that are less difficult than might be expected from a view of such huge piles. The aspect of these cliffs is so wild and horrid, that it is impossible to behold them without terror. The spectator is apt to imagine that nature had formerly suffered some violent convulsion; and that there are the dismembered remains of the dreadful shock; the ruins, not of Persepolis or Palmyra, but of the world!

I remained with my family on Clinch until the sixth of June, 1774, when I and one Michael Stoner were solicited by Governor Dunmore of Virginia, to go to the Falls of the Ohio, to conduct into the settlement a number of surveyors that had been sent thither by him some months before; this country having about this time drawn the attention of many adventurers. We

immediately complied with the Governor's request, and conducted in the surveyors, completing a tour of eight hundred miles, through many difficulties, in sixty-two days.

PART TWO

I soon began this work, having collected a number of enterprising men, well armed. We proceeded with all possible expedition until we came within fifteen miles of where Boonsborough now stands, and where we were fired upon by a party of Indians that killed two, and wounded two of our number; yet, although surprised and taken at a disadvantage, we stood our ground. This was on the twentieth of March, 1775. Three days after, we were fired upon again, and had two men killed, and three wounded. Afterwards we proceeded on to Kentucky River without opposition; and on the first day of April began to erect the fort of Boonsborough at a salt lick, about sixty yards from the river, on the S. side.

On the fourth day, the Indians killed one of our men. We were busily employed in building this fort, until the fourteenth day of June following, without any farther opposition from the Indians; and having finished the works, I returned to my family, on Clinch.

In a short time, I proceeded to remove my family from Clinch to this garrison; where we arrived safe without any other difficulties than such as are common to this passage, my wife and daughter being the first white women that ever stood on the banks of Kentucky River.

On the twenty-fourth day of December following, we had one man killed, and one wounded, by the Indians, who seemed determined to persecute us for erecting this fortification.

On the fourteenth day of July 1776, two of Col. Callaway's daughters, and one of mine, were taken prisoners near the fort. I immediately pursued the Indians, with only eight men, and on the sixteenth overtook them, killed two of the party, and recovered the girls. The same day on which this attempt was made, the Indians divided themselves into different parties, and attacked several forts, which were shortly before this time erected, doing a great deal of mischief.

This was extremely distressing to the new settlers. The innocent husbandman was shot down, while busy in cultivating the soil for his family's supply. Most of the cattle around the stations were destroyed. They continued their hostilities in this manner until the fifteenth of April 1777, when they attacked Boonsborough with a party of above one hundred in number, killed one man, and wounded four. Their loss in this attack was not certainly known to us.

On the fourth day of July following, a party of about two hundred Indians attacked Boonsborough, killed one man, and wounded two. They besieged us forty-eight hours; during which time seven of them were killed, and, at last, finding themselves not likely to prevail, they raised the siege, and departed.

The Indians had disposed their warriors in different parties at this time, and attacked the different garrisons to prevent their assisting each other, and did much injury to the distressed inhabitants.

On the nineteenth day of this month, Col. Logan's fort was besieged by a party of about two hundred Indians. During this dreadful siege they did a great deal of mischief, distressed the garrison, in which were only fifteen men, killed two, and wounded one. The enemy's loss was uncertain, from the common practice which the Indians have of carrying off their dead in time of battle.

Col. Harrod's fort was then defended by only sixty-five men, and Boonsborough by twenty-two, there being no more forts or white men in the country, except at the Falls, a considerable distance from these; and all taken collectively, were but a handful to the numerous warriors that were every where dispersed through the country, intent upon doing all the mischief that savage barbarity could invent. Thus we passed through a scene of sufferings that exceeds description.

On the twenty-fifth of this month, a reinforcement of forty-five men arrived from North Carolina, and about the twentieth of August following, Col. Bowman arrived with one hundred men from Virginia. Now we began to strengthen, and from hence, for the space of six weeks, we had skirmishes with Indians, in one quarter or other, almost every day.

The savages now learned the superiority of the Long Knife, as they call the Virginians, by experience; being out-generalled in almost every battle. Our affairs began to wear a new aspect, and the enemy, not daring to venture on open war, practiced secret mischief at times.

On the first day of January 1778, I went with a party of thirty men to the Blue Licks, On Licking River, to make salt for the different garrisons in the country.

On the 7th day of February, as I was hunting to procure meat for the company, I met with a party of one hundred and two Indians, and two Frenchmen, on their march against Boonsborough, that place being particularly the object of the enemy.

They pursued, and took me; and brought me on the eighth day to the Licks, where twenty-seven of my party were, three of them having previously returned home with the salt. I, knowing it was impossible for them to escape, capitulated with the enemy, and, at a distance in their view, gave notice to my men of their situation, with orders not to resist, but surrender themselves captives.

The generous usage the Indians had promised before in my capitulation, was afterwards fully complied with, and we proceeded with them as prisoners to old Chelicothe, the principal Indian town on Little Miami, where we arrived, after an uncomfortable journey in very severe weather, on the eighteenth day of February, and received as good treatment as prisoners could expect from savages. On the tenth day of March following, I and the of my men were conducted by forty Indians to Detroit, where we arrived the thirtieth day, and were treated by Governor Hamilton, the British commander at that post, with great humanity.

During our travels, the Indians entertained me well; and their affection for me was so great, that they utterly refused to leave me there with the others, although the Governor offered them one hundred pounds sterling for me, on purpose to give me a parole to go home. Several English gentlemen there, being sensible of my adverse fortune, and touched with human sympathy, generously offered a friendly supply for my wants, which I refused, with many thanks for their

kindness; adding, that I never expected it would be in my power to recompense such unmerited generosity.

The Indians left my men in captivity with the British at Detroit, and on the tenth day of April brought me towards Old Chelicothe, where we arrived on the twenty-fifth day of the same month. This was a long and fatiguing march, through an exceeding fertile country, remarkable for fine springs and streams of water. At Chelicothe I spent my time as comfortably as I could expect; was adopted, according to their custom, into a family, where I became a son, and had a great share in the affection of my new parents, brothers, sisters, and friends. I was exceedingly familiar and friendly with them, always appearing as chearful and satisfied as possible, and they put great confidence in me.

I often went a hunting with them, and frequently gained their applause for my activity at our shooting-matches. I was careful not to exceed many of them in shooting; for no people are more envious than they in this sport. I could observe, in their countenances and gestures, the greatest expressions of joy when they exceeded me; and, when the reverse happened, of envy.

The Shawanese king took great notice of me, and treated me with profound respect, and entire friendship, often entrusting me to hunt at my liberty. I frequently returned with the spoils of the woods, and as often presented some of what I had taken to him, expressive of duty to my sovereign. My food and lodging were in common with them; not so good indeed as I could desire, but necessity made every thing acceptable.

I now began to meditate an escape, and carefully avoided their suspicions, continuing with them at Old Chelicothe until the first day of June following, and then was taken by them to the salt springs on Sciota, and kept there, making salt, ten days. During this time I hunted some for them, and found the land, for a great extent about this river, to exceed the soil of Kentucky, if possible, and remarkably well watered.

When I returned to Chelicothe, alarmed to see four hundred and fifty Indians, of their choicest warriors, painted and armed in a fearful manner, ready to march against Boonborough, I determined to escape the first opportunity.

On the sixteenth, before sun-rise, I departed in the most secret manner, and arrived at Boonsborough on the twentieth, after a journey of one hundred and sixty miles; during which, I had but one meal.

I found our fortress in a bad state of defence; but we proceeded immediately to repair our flanks, strengthen our gates and posterns, and form double bastions, which we completed in ten days. In this time we daily expected the arrival of the Indian army; and at length, one of my fellow prisoners, escaping from them, arrived, informing us that the enemy had, on account of my departure, postponed their expedition three weeks.

The Indians had spies out viewing our movements, and were greatly alarmed with our increase in number and fortifications. The Grand Councils of the nations were held frequently, and with more deliberation than usual. They evidently saw the approaching hour when the Long Knife

would dispossess them of their desirable habitations; and, anxiously concerned for futurity, determined utterly to extirpate the whites out of Kentucky. We were not intimidated by their movements, but frequently gave them proofs of our courage.

About the first of August, I made an incursion into the Indian country, with a party of nineteen men, in order to surprise a small town up Sciota, called Paint-Creek-Town. We advanced within four miles thereof, where we met a party of thirty Indians on their march against Boonsborough, intending to join the others from Chelicothe. A smart fight ensued betwixt us for some time; at length the savages gave way, and fled. We had no loss on our side: the enemy had one killed, and two wounded. We took from them three horses, and all their baggage; and being informed, by two of our number that went to their town, that the Indians had entirely evacuated it, we proceeded no further, and returned with all possible expedition to assist our garrison against the other party. We passed by them on the sixth day, and on the seventh, we arrived safe at Boonsborough.

On the eighth, the Indian army arrived, being four hundred and forty-four in number, commanded by Capt. Duquesne, eleven other Frenchmen, and some of their own chiefs, and marched up within view of our fort, with British and French colours flying; and having sent a summons to me, in his Britannick Majesty's name, to surrender the fort, I requested two days consideration, which was granted.

It was now a critical period with us. We were a small number in the garrison: a powerful army before our walls, whose appearance proclaimed inevitable death, fearfully painted, and marking their footsteps with desolation. Death was preferable to captivity; and if taken by storm, we must inevitably be devoted to destruction. In this situation we concluded to maintain our garrison, if possible.

We immediately proceeded to collect what we could of our horses, and other cattle, and bring them through the posterns into the fort: and in the evening of the ninth, I returned answer, that we were determined to defend our fort while a man was living.

"Now," said I to their commander, who stood attentively hearing my sentiments, "We laugh at all your formidable preparations: but thank you for giving us notice and time to provide for our defence. Your efforts will not prevail; for our gates shall for ever deny you admittance."

Whether this answer affected their courage, or not, I cannot tell; but, contrary to our expectations, they formed a scheme to deceive us, declaring it was their orders, from Governor Hamilton, to take us captives, and not to destroy us; but if nine of us would come out, and treat with them, they would immediately withdraw their forces from our walls, and return home peaceably. This sounded grateful in our ears; and we agreed to the proposal.

We held the treaty within sixty yards of the garrison, on purpose to divert them from a breach of honour, as we could not avoid suspicions of the savages. In this situation the articles were formally agreed to, and signed; and the Indians told us it was customary with them, on such occasions, for two Indians to shake hands with every white man in the treaty, as an evidence of

entire friendship. We agreed to this also, but were soon convinced their policy was to take us prisoners.

They immediately grappled us; but, although surrounded by hundreds of savages, we extricated ourselves from them, and escaped all safe into the garrison, except one that was wounded, through a heavy fire from their army.. They immediately attacked us on every side, and a constant heavy fire ensued between us, day and night, for the space of nine days.

In this time the enemy began to undermine our fort, which was situated sixty yards from Kentucky River. They began at the water-mark, and proceeded in the bank some distance, which we understood by their making the water muddy with the clay; and we immediately proceeded to disappoint their design, by cutting a trench across their subterranean passage. The enemy discovering our counter-mine, by the clay we threw out of the fort, desisted from that stratagem: and experience now fully convincing them that neither their power nor policy could effect their purpose, on the twentieth day of August they raised the siege, and departed.

During this siege, which threatened death in every form, we had two men killed, and four wounded, besides a number of cattle. We killed of the enemy thirty-seven, and wounded a great number. After they were gone, we picked up one hundred and twenty-five pounds weight of bullets, besides what stuck in the logs of our fort; which certainly is a great proof of their industry.

Soon after this, I went into the settlement, and nothing worthy of a place in this account passed in my affairs for some time.

PART THREE

During my absence from Kentucky Col. Bowman carried on an expedition against the Shawanese, at old Chelicothe, with one hundred and sixty men, in July 1779. Here they arrived undiscovered, and a battle ensued, which lasted until ten o'clock A.M. when Col. Bowman, finding he could not succeed at this time, retreated about thirty miles. The Indians, in the mean time, collecting all their forces, pursued and overtook him, when a smart fight continued near two hours, not to the advantage of Col. Bowman's party.

Col. Harrod proposed to mount a number of horse, and furiously to rush upon the savages, who at this time fought with remarkable fury. This desperate step had a happy effect, broke their line of battle, and the savages fled on all sides. In these two battles we had nine killed, and one wounded. The enemy's loss uncertain, only two scalps being taken.

On the twenty-second day of June 1780, a large party of Indians and Canadians, about six hundred in number, commanded by Col. Bird, attacked Riddle's and Martin's stations, at the forks of Licking River, with six pieces of artillery. They carried this expedition so secretly, that the unwary inhabitants did not discover them, until they fired upon the forts; and, not being prepared to oppose them, were obliged to surrender themselves miserable captives to barbarous savages, who immediately after tomahawked one man and two women, and loaded all the others with heavy baggage, forcing them along toward their towns, able or unable to march. Such as

were weak and faint by the way, they tomahawked. The tender women, and helpless children, fell victims to their cruelty. This, and the savage treatment they received afterwards, is shocking to humanity, and too barbarous to relate.

The hostile disposition of the savages, and their allies, caused General Clark, the commandant at the Falls of the Ohio, immediately to begin an expedition with his own regiment, and the armed force of the country, against Pecaway, the principal town of the Shawanese, on a branch of Great Miami, which he finished with great success, took seventeen scalps, and burnt the town to ashes, with the loss of seventeen men.

About this time I returned to Kentucky with my family; and here, to avoid an enquiry into my conduct, the reader being before informed of my bringing my family to Kentucky, I am under the necessity of informing him that, during my captivity with the Indians, my wife, who despaired of ever seeing me again, expecting the Indians had put a period to my life, oppressed with the distresses of the country, and bereaved of me, her only happiness, had, before I returned, transported my family and goods, on horses, through the wilderness, amidst a multitude of dangers, to her father's house in North-Carolina.

Shortly after the troubles at Boonsborough, I went to them, and lived peaceably there until this time. The history of my going home, and returning with my family, forms a series of difficulties, an account of which would swell a volume, and being foreign of my purpose, I shall purposely omit them.

I settled my family in Boonsborough once more; and shortly after, on the sixth day of October 1780, I went in company with my brother to the Blue Licks; and, on our return home, we were fired upon by a party of Indians. They shot him, and pursued me, by the scent of their dog, three miles; but I killed the dog, and escaped. The winter soon came on, and was very severe, which confined the Indians to their wigwams.

The severity of this winter caused great difficulties in Kentucky. The enemy had destroyed most of the corn the summer before. This necessary article was scarce, and dear; and the inhabitants lived chiefly on the flesh of buffalo. The circumstances of many were very lamentable: however, being a hardy race of people, and accustomed to difficulties and necessities, they were wonderfully supported through all their sufferings, until the ensuing autumn, when we received abundance from the fertile soil.

Towards Spring, we were frequently harassed by Indians; and, in May 1782, a party assaulted Ashton's station, killed one man, and took a Negro prisoner. Capt. Ashton, with twenty-five men, pursued, and overtook the savages, and a smart fight ensued, which lasted two hours; but they being superior in number, obliged Captain Ashton's party to retreat, with the loss of eight killed, and four mortally wounded; their brave commander himself being numbered among the dead.

The Indians continued their hostilities; and, about the tenth of August following, two boys were taken from Major Hoy's station. This party was pursued by Capt. Holder and seventeen men, who were also defeated, with the loss of four men killed, and one wounded. Our affairs became more and more alarming. Several stations which had lately been erected in the country were

continually infested with savages, stealing their horses and killing the men at every opportunity. In a field, near Lexington, an Indian shot a man, and running to scalp him, was himself shot from the fort, and fell dead upon his enemy.

Every day we experienced recent mischiefs. The barbarous savage nations of Shawanese, Cherokees, Wyandots, Tawas, Delawares, and several others near Detroit, united in a war against us, and assembled their choicest warriors at old Chelicothe, to go on the expedition, in order to destroy us, and entirely depopulate the country.

Their savage minds were inflamed to mischief by two abandoned men, Captains M'Kee and Girty. These led them to execute every diabolical scheme; and, on the fifteenth day of August, commanded a party of Indians and Canadians, of about five hundred in number, against Briant's station, five miles from Lexington. Without demanding a surrender, they furiously assaulted the garrison, which was happily prepared to oppose them; and, after they had expended much ammunition in vain, and killed the cattle round the fort, not being likely to make themselves masters of this place, they raised the siege, and departed in the morning of the third day after they came, with the loss of about thirty killed, and the number of wounded uncertain. Of the garrison four were killed, and three wounded.

On the eighteenth day Col. Todd, Col. Trigg, Major Harland, and myself, speedily collected one hundred and seventy-six men, well armed, and pursued the savages. They had marched beyond the Blue Licks to a remarkable bend of the main fork of Licking River, about forty-three miles from Lexington, where we overtook them on the nineteenth day. The savages observing us, gave way; and we, being ignorant of their numbers, passed the river. When the enemy saw our proceedings, having greatly the advantage of us in situation, they formed the line of battle, from one bend of Licking to the other, about a mile from the Blue Licks.

An exceeding fierce battle immediately began, for about fifteen minutes, when we, being overpowered by numbers, were obliged to retreat, with the loss of sixty-seven men, seven of whom were taken prisoners. The brave and much-lamented Colonels Todd and Trigg, Major Harland, and my second son, were among the dead. We were informed that the Indians, numbering their dead, found they had four killed more than we; and therefore, four of the prisoners they had taken were, by general consent, ordered to be killed, in a most barbarous manner, by the young warriors, in order to train them up to cruelty; and then they proceeded to their towns.

On our retreat we were met by Col. Logan, hastening to join us, with a number of well armed men. This powerful assistance we unfortunately wanted in the battle; for notwithstanding the enemy's superiority of numbers, they acknowledged that, if they had received one more fire from us, they should undoubtedly have given way. So valiantly did our small party fight, that, to the memory of those who unfortunately fell in the battle, enough of honour cannot be paid. Had Col. Logan and his party been with us, it is highly probable we should have given the savages a total defeat.

I cannot reflect upon this dreadful scene, but sorrow fills my heart. A zeal for the defence of their country led these heroes to the scene of action, though with a few men to attack a powerful army

of experienced warriors. When we gave way, they pursued us with the utmost eagerness, and in every quarter spread destruction. The river was difficult to cross, and many were killed in the flight, some just entering the river, some in the water, others after crossing, in ascending the cliffs. Some escaped on horseback, a few on foot; and, being dispersed every where in a few hours, brought the melancholy news of this unfortunate battle to Lexington. Many widows were now made. The reader may guess what sorrow filled the hearts of the inhabitants, exceeding any thing that I am able to describe.

Being reinforced, we returned to bury the dead, and found their bodies strewed every where, cut and mangled in a dreadful manner. This mournful scene exhibited a horror almost unparalleled: Some torn and eaten by wild beasts; those in the river eaten by fishes; all in such a putrified condition, that no one could be distinguished from another.

As soon as General Clark, then at the Falls of the Ohio, who was ever our ready friend, and merits the love and gratitude of all his countrymen, understood the circumstances of this unfortunate action, he ordered an expedition, with all possible haste, to pursue the savages, which was so expeditiously effected, that we overtook them within two miles of their towns, and probably might have obtained a great victory, had not two of their number met us about two hundred poles before we came up. These returned quick as lightening to their camp with the alarming news of a mighty army in view.

The savages fled in the utmost disorder, evacuated their towns, and reluctantly left their territory to our mercy. We immediately took possession of Old Chelicothe, without opposition, being deserted by its inhabitants. We continued our pursuit through five towns on the Miami rivers, Old Chelicothe, Pecaway, New Chelicothe, Will's Towns, and Chelicothe, burnt them all to ashes, entirely destroyed their corn, and other fruits, and every where spread a scene of desolation in the country. In this expedition we took seven prisoners and five scalps, with the loss of only four men, two of whom were accidentally killed by our own army.

This campaign in some measure damped the spirits of the Indians, and made them sensible of our superiority. Their connections were dissolved, their armies scattered, and a future invasion put entirely out of their power; yet they continued to practice mischief secretly upon the inhabitants, in the exposed parts of the country.

In October following, a party made an excursion into that district called the Crab Orchard, and one of them, being advanced some distance before the others, boldly entered the house of a poor defenceless family, in which was only a Negro man, a woman and her children, terrified with the apprehensions of immediate death. The savage, perceiving their defenceless situation, without offering violence to the family, attempted to captivate the Negro, who happily proved an overmatch for him, threw him on the ground, and, in the struggle, the mother of the children drew an axe from a corner of the cottage, and cut his head off, while her little daughter shut the door. The savages instantly appeared, and applied their tomahawks to the door. An old rusty gun-barrel, without a lock, lay in a corner, which the mother put through a small crevice, and the savages, perceiving it, fled. In the mean time, the alarm spread through the neighbourhood; the armed men collected immediately, and pursued the ravagers into the wilderness. Thus Providence, by the means of this Negro, saved the whole of the poor family from destruction.

From that time, until the happy return of peace between the United States and Great Britain, the Indians did us no mischief. Finding the great king beyond the water disappointed in his expectations, and conscious of the importance of the Long Knife, and their own wretchedness, some of the nations immediately desired peace; to which, at present, they seem universally disposed, and are sending ambassadors to General Clark, at the Falls of the Ohio, with the minutes of their Councils; a specimen of which, in the minutes of the Piankashaw Council, is subjoined.

To conclude, I can now say that I have verifies the saying of an old Indian who signed Col. Henderson's deed. Taking me by the hand, at the delivery thereof, "Brother," says he, "we have given you a fine land, but I believe you will have much trouble in settling it."

My footsteps have often been marked with blood, and therefore I can truly subscribe to its original name. Two darling sons, and a brother, have I lost by savage hands, which have also taken from me forty valuable horses, and abundance of cattle. Many dark and sleepless nights have I been a companion for owls, separated from the cheerful society of men, scorched by the summer's sun, and pinched by the winter's cold, an instrument ordained to settle the wilderness. But now the scene is changed: peace crowns the sylvan shade.

What thanks, what ardent and ceaseless thanks are due to that all-superintending Providence which has turned a cruel war into peace, brought order out of confusion, made the fierce savages placid, and turned away their hostile weapons from our country! May the same Almighty Goodness banish the accursed monster, war, from all lands, with her hated associates, rapine and insatiable ambition! Let peace, descending from her native heaven, bid her olives spring amidst the joyful nations; and plenty, in league with commerce, scatter blessings from her copious hand!

The American Revolution: First Phase



The Annapolis Convention:

Proceedings of the Commissioners to Remedy Defects of the Federal Government, Annapolis in the State of Maryland. September 14, 1786

To the Honorable, The Legislatures of Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York -

The Commissioners from the said States, respectively assembled at Annapolis, humbly beg leave to report.

That, pursuant to their several appointments, they met, at Annapolis in the State of Maryland on the eleventh day of September Instant, and having proceeded to a Communication of their Powers; they found that the States of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, had, in substance, and nearly in the same terms, authorized their respective Commissions "to meet such other Commissioners as were, or might be, appointed by the other States in the Union, at such time and place as should be agreed upon by the said Commissions to take into consideration the trade and commerce of the United States, to consider how far a uniform system in their commercial intercourse and regulations might be necessary to their common interest and permanent harmony, and to report to the several States such an Act, relative to this great object, as when unanimously by them would enable the United States in Congress assembled effectually to proved for the same."...

That the State of New Jersey had enlarged the object of their appointment, empowering their Commissioners, "to consider how far a uniform system in their commercial regulations and other important matters, might be necessary to the common interest and permanent harmony of the several States," and to report such an Act on the subject, as when ratified by them, "would enable the United States in Congress assembled, effectually to provide for the exigencies of the Union."

That appointments of Commissioners have also been made by the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and North Carolina, none of whom, however, have attended; but that no information has been received by your Commissioners, of any appointment having been made by the States of Connecticut, Maryland, South Carolina or Georgia.

That the express terms of the powers of your Commissioners supposing a deputation from all the States, and having for object the Trade and Commerce of the United States, Your Commissioners did not conceive it advisable to proceed on the business of their mission, under the Circumstances of so partial and defective a representation.

Deeply impressed, however, with the magnitude and importance of the object confided to them on this occasion, your Commissioners cannot forbear to indulge an expression of their earnest and unanimous wish, that speedy measures be taken, to effect a general meeting, of the States, in a future Convention, for the same, and such other purposes, as the situation of public affairs may be found to require.

If in expressing this wish, or in intimating any other sentiment, your Commissioners should seem to exceed the strict bounds of their appointment, they entertain a full confidence, that a conduct, dictated by an anxiety for the welfare of the United States, will not fail to receive an indulgent construction.

In this persuasion, your Commissioners submit an opinion, that the Idea of extending the powers of their Deputies, to other objects, than those of Commerce, which has been adopted by the State of New Jersey, was an improvement on the original plan, and will deserve to be incorporated into that of a future Convention; they are the more naturally led to this conclusion, as in the course of their reflections on the subject, they have been induced to think, that the power of regulating trade is of such comprehensive extent, and will enter so far into the general System of the federal government, that to give it efficacy, and to obviate questions and doubts concerning its precise nature and limits, may require a correspondent adjustment of other parts of the Federal System.

That there are important defects in the system of the Federal Government is acknowledged by the Acts of all those States, which have concurred in the present Meeting; That the defects, upon a closer examination, may be found greater and more numerous, than even these acts imply, is at least so far probably, from the embarrassments which characterize the present State of our national affairs, foreign and domestic, as may reasonably be supposed to merit a deliberate and candid discussion, in some mode, which will unite the Sentiments and Councils of all the States. In the choice of the mode, your Commissioners are of opinion, that a Convention of Deputies from the different States, for the special and sole purpose of entering into this investigation, and digesting a plan for supplying such defects as may be discovered to exist, will be entitled to a preference from considerations, which will occur without being particularized.

Your Commissioners decline an enumeration of those national circumstances on which their opinion respecting the propriety of a future Convention, with more enlarged powers, is founded; as it would be a useless intrusion of facts and observations, most of which have been frequently the subject of public discussion, and none of which can have escaped the penetration of those to whom they would in this instance be addressed. They are, however, of a nature so serious, as, in the view of your Commissioners, to render the situation of the United States delicate and critical, calling for an exertion of the untied virtue and wisdom of all the members of the Confederacy.

Under this impression, Your Commissioners, with the most respectful deference, beg leave to suggest their unanimous conviction that it may essentially tend to advance the interests of the union if the States, by whom they have been respectively delegated, would themselves concur, and use their endeavors to procure the concurrence of the other States, in the appointment of Commissioners, to meet at Philadelphia on the second Monday in May next, to take into consideration the situation of the United States, to devise such further provisions as shall appear to them necessary to render the constitution of the Federal Government adequate to the exigencies of the Union; and to report such an Act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled, as when agreed to, by them, and afterwards confirmed by the Legislatures of every State, will effectually provide for the same.

Though your Commissioners could not with propriety address these observations and sentiments to any but the States they have the honor to represent, they have nevertheless concluded from

motives of respect, to transmit copies of the Report to the United States in Congress assembled, and to the executives of the other States.

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783



The Campaign of 1777

With secure bases at New York and Newport, Howe had a chance to get the early start that had been denied him the previous year. His first plan, advanced; on November 30, 1776, was probably the most comprehensive put forward by any British commander during the war. He proposed to maintain a small force of about 8,000 to contain Washington in New Jersey and 7,000 to garrison New York, while sending one column of 10,000 from Newport into New England and another column of 10,000 from New York up the Hudson to form a junction with a British force moving down from Canada. On the assumption that these moves would be successful by autumn, he would next capture Philadelphia, the rebel capital, and then make the southern provinces the "objects of the winter." For this plan, Howe requested 35,000 men, 15,000 more effective troops than he had left at the end of the 1776 campaign. Sir George Germain, the American Secretary, could promise him only 8,000. Even before receiving this news, but evidently influenced by [Trenton and Princeton](#), Howe changed his plan and proposed to devote his main effort in 1777 to taking Philadelphia. On March 3, 1777, Germain informed Howe that the Philadelphia plan was approved, but that there might be only 5,500 reinforcements. At the same time Germain and the king urged a "warm diversion" against New England.

Meanwhile, Sir John Burgoyne, who had succeeded in obtaining the separate military command in Canada, submitted his plan calling for an advance southward to "a junction with Howe." Germain and the king also approved this plan on March 29, though aware of Howe's intention to go to Philadelphia. They seem to have expected either that Howe would be able to form his junction by the "warm diversion," or else that he would take Philadelphia quickly and then turn north to aid Burgoyne. In any case, Germain approved two separate and un-co-ordinated plans,

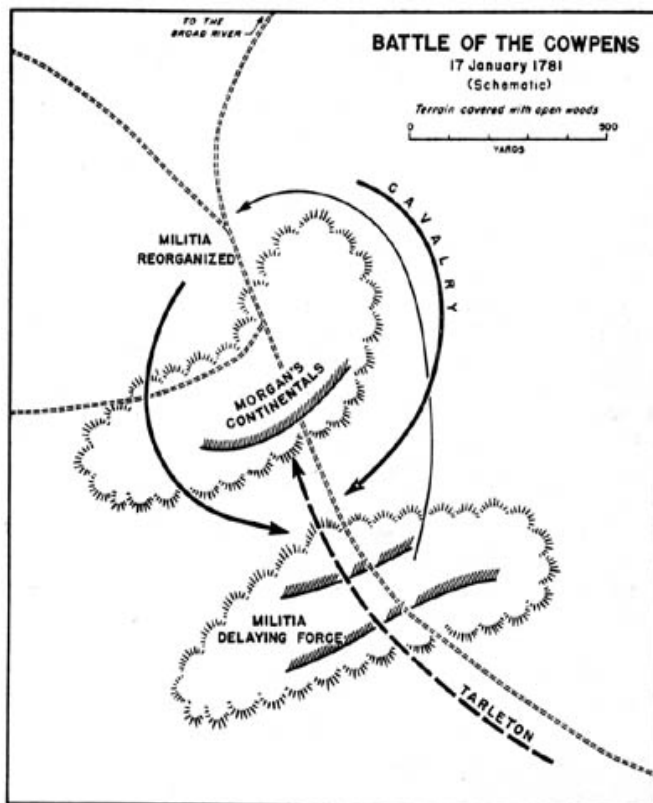
and Howe and Burgoyne went their separate ways, doing nothing to remedy the situation. Howe's Philadelphia plan did provide for leaving enough force in New York for what its commander, General Clinton, called "a damn'd starved offensive," but Clinton's orders were vague. Quite possibly Burgoyne knew before he left England for Canada that Howe was going to Philadelphia, but ambitious "Gentleman Johnny" was determined to make a reputation in the American war, and evidently believed he could succeed alone. Even when he learned certainly on August 3, 1777, that he could not expect Howe's cooperation, he persisted in his design. As Howe thought Pennsylvania was filled with royalists, Burgoyne cherished the illusion that legions of Tories in New York and western New England were simply awaiting the appearance of the king's troops to rally to the colors.

Again in 1777 the late arrival of Howe's reinforcements and stores ships gave Washington time that he sorely needed. Men to form the new [Continental Army](#) came in slowly and not until June did the Americans have a force of 8,000. On the northern line the defenses were even more thinly manned. Supplies for troops in the field were also short, but the arrival of the first three ships bearing secret aid from France vastly improved the situation. They were evidence of the covert support of the French Government; a mission sent by Congress to France was meanwhile working diligently to enlist open aid and to embroil France in a war with England. The French Foreign Minister, the Comte de Vergennes, had already decided to take that risk when and if the American rebels demonstrated their serious purpose and ability to fulfill it by some signal victory in the field.

With the first foreign material aid in 1777, the influx of foreign officers into the American Army began. These officers were no unmixed blessing. Most were adventurers in search of fortune or of reputation with little facility for adjusting themselves to American conditions. Few were willing to accept any but the highest ranks. Nevertheless, they brought with them professional military knowledge and competence that the Continental Army sorely needed. When the misfits were culled out, this knowledge and competence were used to considerable advantage. Louis DuPortail, a Frenchman, and Thaddeus Kosciuszko, a Pole, did much to advance the art of engineering in the Continental Army; Casimir Pulaski, another Pole, organized its first genuine cavalry contingent; Johann de Kalb and Friedrich Wilhelm von Steuben, both Germans, and the [Marquis de Lafayette](#), an influential French nobleman who financed his own way, were all to make valuable contributions as trainers and leaders. On the Continental Army of 1777, however, these foreign volunteers had little effect and it remained much as it had been before, a relatively untrained body of inexperienced enlistees.

When Howe finally began to stir in June 1777, Washington posted his army at Middlebrook, New Jersey, in a position either to bar Howe's overland route to Philadelphia or to move rapidly up the Hudson to oppose an advance northward. Washington confidently expected Howe to move northward to form a junction with Burgoyne, but decided he must stay in front of the main British Army wherever it went. Following the principle of economy of force, he disposed a small part of his army under General Putnam in fortifications guarding the approaches up the Hudson, and at a critical moment detached a small force to aid Schuyler against Burgoyne. The bulk of his army he kept in front of Howe in an effort to defend Philadelphia. Forts were bulk along the Delaware River and other steps taken to block the approach to the Continental capital by sea.

In the effort to defend Philadelphia Washington again failed, but hardly so ignominiously as he had the year before in New York. After maneuvering in New Jersey for upward of two months, Howe in August put most of his army on board ship and sailed down the coast and up the Chesapeake Bay to Head of Elk (a small town at the head of the Elk River) in Maryland, putting himself even further away from Burgoyne. Though surprised by Howe's movement, Washington rapidly shifted his own force south and took up a position at Chad's Ford on [Brandywine Creek](#), blocking the approach to Philadelphia. There on September 11, 1777, Howe executed a flanking movement not dissimilar to that employed on Long Island and again defeated Washington. The American commander had disposed his army in two main parts, one directly opposite Chad's Ford under his personal command and the other under General Sullivan guarding the right flank upstream. While Lt. Gen. Wilhelm van Knyphausen's Hessian troops demonstrated opposite the ford, a larger force under [Lord Cornwallis](#) marched upstream, crossed the Brandywine, and moved to take Sullivan from the rear. Washington lacked good cavalry reconnaissance, and did not get positive information on Cornwallis' movement until the eleventh hour. Sullivan was in the process of changing front when the British struck and his men retreated in confusion. Washington was able to salvage the situation by dispatching [General Greene](#) with two brigades to fight a valiant rear-guard action, but the move weakened his front opposite Kynphausen and his forces also had to fall back. Nevertheless, the trap was averted and the Continental Army retired in good order to Chester.



MAP

Howe followed with a series of maneuvers comparable to those he had executed in New York, and was able to enter Philadelphia with a minimum of fighting on September 26. A combined

attack of British Army and Navy forces shortly afterward reduced the forts on the Delaware and opened the river as a British supply line.

On entering Philadelphia, Howe dispersed his forces, stationing 9,000 men at [Germantown](#) north of the city, 3,000 in New Jersey, and the rest in Philadelphia. As Howe had repeated his performance in New York, Washington sought to repeat Trenton by a surprise attack on Germantown. The plan was much like that used at Trenton but involved far more complicated movements by much larger bodies of troops. Four columns—two of Continentals under Sullivan and Greene and two of militia—moving at night over different roads were to converge on Germantown simultaneously at dawn on October 4. The plan violated the principle of simplicity, for such a maneuver was difficult even for well-trained professionals to execute. The two columns of Continentals arrived at different times and fired on each other in an early morning fog. The two militia columns never arrived at all. British fire from a stone house, the Chew Mansion, held up the advance while American generals argued whether they could leave a fortress in their rear. The British, though surprised, had better discipline and cohesion and were able to re-form and send fresh troops into the fray. The Americans retreated about 8:00 a.m., leaving Howe's troops in command of the field.

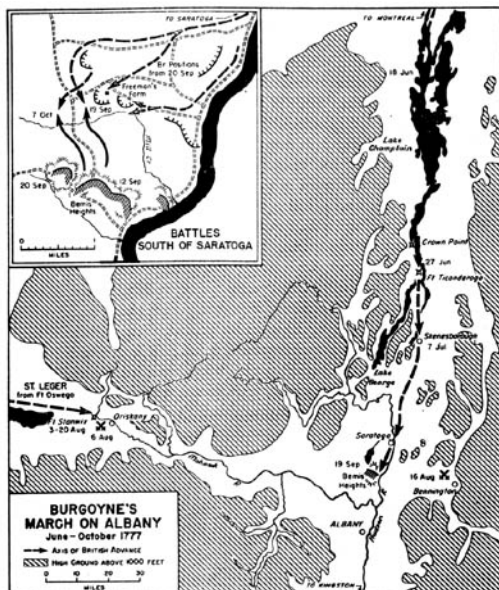


MAP

After Germantown Howe once again concentrated his army and moved to confront Washington at Whitemarsh, but finally withdrew to winter quarters in Philadelphia without giving battle. Washington chose the site for his own winter quarters at a place called Valley Forge, twenty miles northwest of the city. Howe had gained his objective but it proved of no lasting value to him. Congress fled west to York, Pennsylvania. No swarms of loyalists rallied to the British standards. And Howe had left Burgoyne to lose a whole British army in the north.

Burgoyne set out from Canada in June, his object to reach Albany by fall. His force was divided into two parts. The first and largest part—7,200 British and Hessian Regulars and 650 Tories, Canadians, and Indians, under his personal command—was to take the route down Lake Champlain to Ticonderoga and thence via Lake George to the Hudson. The second 700 Regulars and 1,000 Tories and Indian braves under Col. Barry St. Leger—was to move via Lake Ontario to Oswego and thence down the Mohawk Valley to join Burgoyne before Albany. In his preparations, Burgoyne evidently forgot the lesson the British had learned in the French and Indian War, that in the wilderness troops had to be prepared to travel light and fight like Indians. He carried 138 pieces of artillery and a heavy load of officers' personal baggage. Numerous ladies of high and low estate accompanied the expedition. When he started down the lakes, Burgoyne did not have enough horses and wagons to transport his artillery and baggage once he had to leave the water and move overland.

At first Burgoyne's American opposition was very weak—only about 2,500 Continentals at [Ticonderoga](#) and about 450 at old Fort Stanwix, the sole American bulwark in the Mohawk Valley. Dissension among the Americans was rife, the New Englanders refusing to support Schuyler, the aristocratic New Yorker who commanded the Northern Army, and openly intriguing to replace him with their own favorite, [Maj. Gen. Horatio Gates](#). Ticonderoga fell to Burgoyne on June 27 all too easily. American forces dispersed and Burgoyne pursued the remnants down to Skenesborough. Once that far along, he decided to continue overland to the Hudson instead, of returning to Ticonderoga to float his force



MAP 9

down Lake George, though much of his impedimenta still had to be carried by boat down the lake.

The overland line of advance was already a nightmare, running along wilderness trails, through marshes, and across wide ravines and creeks that had been swollen by abnormally heavy rains. Schuyler adopted the tactic of making it even worse by destroying bridges, cutting trees in Burgoyne's path, and digging trenches to let the waters of swamps onto drier ground. The British were able to move at a rate of little more than a mile a day and took until July 29 to reach Fort Edward on the Hudson. By that time Burgoyne was desperately short of horses, wagons, and oxen. Yet Schuyler, with an unstable force of 4,500 men discouraged by continual retreats, was in no position to give battle.

Washington did what he could to strengthen the Northern Army at this juncture. He first dispatched [Maj. Gen. Benedict Arnold](#), his most aggressive field commander, and Maj. Gen. Benjamin Lincoln, a Massachusetts man noted for his influence with the New England militia. On August 16 he detached Col. Daniel Morgan with 500 riflemen from the main army in Pennsylvania and ordered them along with 750 men from Putnam's force in the New York highlands to join Schuyler. The riflemen were calculated to furnish an antidote for Burgoyne's Indians who, despite his efforts to restrain them, were terrorizing the countryside.

It was the rising militia, rather than Washington, who were to provide the Northern Army with its main reinforcements. Nothing worked more to produce this result than Burgoyne's employment of Indians. The murder and scalping of a beautiful white woman, Jane McCrea, dramatized the Indian threat as nothing else probably could have done. New England militiamen now began to rally to the cause, though they still refused to cooperate with Schuyler. New Hampshire commissioned John Stark, a disgruntled ex-colonel in the [Continental Army](#) and a veteran of Bunker Hill and Trenton, as a brigadier general in the state service (a rank denied him by Congress), and Stark quickly recruited 2,000 men. Refusing Schuyler's request that he join the main army, Stark took up a position at Bennington in southern Vermont to guard the New England frontier. On August 11 Burgoyne detached a force of 650 men under Hessian Col. Friedrich Baum to forage for cattle, horses, and transport in the very area Stark was occupying. At Bennington on August 16 Stark nearly annihilated Baum's force, and reinforcements sent by Burgoyne arrived on the field just in time to be soundly thrashed in turn. Burgoyne not only failed to secure his much-needed supplies and transport but also lost about a tenth of his command.

Meanwhile, St. Leger with his Tories and Indians had appeared before Fort Stanwix on August 2. The garrison, fearing massacre by the Indians, determined to hold out to the bitter end. On August 4, the Tryon County militia under Brig. Gen. Nicholas Herkimer set out to relieve the fort but were ambushed by the Indians in a wooded ravine near Oriskany. The militia, under the direction of a mortally wounded Herkimer, scattered in the woods and fought a bloody afternoon's battle in a summer thunderstorm. Both sides suffered heavy losses, and though the militia were unable to relieve Stanwix the losses discouraged St. Leger's Indians, who were already restless in the static siege operation at Stanwix.

Despite his own weak position, when Schuyler learned of the plight of the Stanwix garrison, he courageously detached Benedict Arnold with 950 Continentals to march to its relief. Arnold devised a ruse that took full advantage of the dissatisfaction and natural superstition of the Indians. Employing a half-wit Dutchman, his clothes shot full of holes, and a friendly Oneida Indian as his messengers, Arnold spread the rumor that the Continentals were approaching "as numerous as the leaves on the trees." The Indians, who had special respect for any madman, departed in haste, scalping not a few of their Tory allies as they went, and St. Leger was forced to abandon the siege.

Bennington and Stanwix were serious blows to Burgoyne. By early September he knew he could expect help from neither Howe nor St. Leger. Disillusioned about the Tories, he wrote Germain: "The great bulk of the country is undoubtedly with Congress in principle and zeal; and their measures are executed with a secrecy and dispatch that are not to be equalled. Wherever the King's forces point, militia in the amount of three or four thousand assemble in twenty-four hours; they bring with them their subsistence, etc., and the alarm over, they return to their farms...." Nevertheless, gambler that he was, Burgoyne crossed the Hudson to the west side during September 13 and 14, signaling his intention to get to Albany or lose his army. While his supply problem daily became worse, his Indians, with a natural instinct for sensing approaching disaster, drifted off into the forests, leaving him with little means of gaining intelligence of the American dispositions.

The American forces were meanwhile gathering strength. Congress finally deferred to New England sentiment on August 19 and replaced Schuyler with Gates. Gates was more the beneficiary than the cause of the improved situation, but his appointment helped morale and encouraged the New England militia. Washington's emissary, General Lincoln, also did his part. Gates understood Burgoyne's plight perfectly and adapted this tactics to take full advantage of it. He advanced his forces four miles northward and took up a position, surveyed and prepared by the Polish engineer, Kosciusko, on Bemis Heights, a few miles below Saratoga. Against this position Burgoyne launched his attack on September 19 and was repulsed with heavy losses. In the battle, usually known as Freeman's Farm, Arnold persuaded Gates to let him go forward to counter the British attack, and [Colonel Morgan's](#) riflemen, in a wooded terrain well suited to the use of their specialized weapon, took a heavy toll of British officers and men.

After Freeman's Farm, the lines remained stable for three weeks. Burgoyne had heard that Clinton, with the force Howe had left in New York, had started north to relieve him. Clinton, in fact, stormed Forts Clinton and Montgomery on the Hudson on October 6, but, exercising that innate caution characteristic of all his actions, he refused to gamble for high stakes. He simply sent an advance guard on to Kingston and he himself returned to New York.

Burgoyne was left to his fate. Gates strengthened his entrenchments and calmly awaited the attack he was sure Burgoyne would have to make. Militia reinforcements increased his forces to around 10,000 by October 7. Meanwhile Burgoyne's position grew more desperate. Food was running out; the meadows were grazed bare by the animals; and every day more men slipped into the forest, deserting the lost cause. With little intelligence of American strength or dispositions, on October 7 he sent out a "reconnaissance in force" to feel out the American positions. On learning that the British were approaching, Gates sent out a contingent including Morgan's

riflemen to meet them, and a second battle developed, usually known as Bemis Heights. The British suffered severe losses, five times those of the Americans, and were driven back to their fortified positions. Arnold, who had been at odds with Gates and was confined to his tent, broke out, rushed into the fray, and again distinguished himself before he was wounded in leading an attack on Breymann's Redoubt.

Two days after the battle, Burgoyne withdrew to a position in the vicinity of Saratoga. Militia soon worked around to his rear and cut his supply lines. His position hopeless, Burgoyne finally capitulated on October 17 at Saratoga. The total prisoner count was nearly 6,000 and great quantities of military stores fell into American hands. The victory at Saratoga brought the Americans out well ahead in the campaign of 1777 despite the loss of Philadelphia. What had been at stake soon became obvious. In February 1778 France negotiated a treaty of alliance with the American states, tantamount to a declaration of war against England.

The Founding Fathers

A Brief Overview

The 55 delegates who attended the [Constitutional Convention](#) were a distinguished body of men who represented a cross section of 18th-century American leadership. Almost all of them were well-educated men of means who were dominant in their communities and states, and many were also prominent in national affairs. Virtually every one had taken part in the Revolution; at least 29 had served in the Continental forces, most of them in positions of command.

Political Experience

The group, as a whole, had extensive political experience. At the time of the convention, four-fifths, or 41 individuals, were or had been members of the Continental Congress. Mifflin and Gorham had served as president of the body. The only ones who lacked congressional experience were Bassett, Blair, Brearly, Broom, Davie, Dayton, Alexander Martin, Luther Martin, Mason, McClurg, Paterson, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Strong, and Yates. Eight men (Clymer, Franklin, Gerry, Robert Morris, Read, Sherman, Wilson, and Wythe) had signed the [Declaration of Independence](#). Six (Carroll, Dickinson, Gerry, Gouverneur Morris, Robert Morris, and Sherman) had affixed their signatures to the [Articles of Confederation](#). But only two, Sherman and Robert Morris, underwrote all three of the nation's basic documents. Practically all of the 55 delegates had experience in colonial and state government. Dickinson, Franklin, Langdon, Livingston, Alexander Martin, Randolph, Read, and Rutledge had been governors, and the majority had held county and local offices .

Occupations

The delegates practiced a wide range of occupations, and many men pursued more than one career simultaneously. Thirty-five were lawyers or had benefited from legal training, though not all of them relied on the profession for a livelihood. Some had also become judges.

At the time of the convention, 13 individuals were businessmen, merchants, or shippers: Blount, Broom, Clymer, Dayton, Fitzsimons, Gerry, Gilman, Gorham, Langdon, Robert Morris, Pierce,

Sherman, and Wilson. Six were major land speculators: Blount, Dayton, Fitzsimons, Gorham, Robert Morris, and Wilson. Eleven speculated in securities on a large scale: Bedford, Blair, Clymer, Dayton, Fitzsimons, Franklin, King, Langdon, Robert Morris, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, and Sherman. Twelve owned or managed slave-operated plantations or large farms: Bassett, Blair, Blount, Butler, Carroll, Jenifer, Mason, Charles Pinckney, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Rutledge, Spaight, and Washington. Madison also owned slaves. Broom and Few were small farmers.

Nine of the men received a substantial part of their income from public office: Baldwin, Blair, Bready, Gilman, Jenifer, Livingston, Madison, and Rutledge. Three had retired from active economic endeavors: Franklin, McHenry, and Mifflin. Franklin and Williamson were scientists, in addition to their other activities. McClurg, McHenry, and Williamson were physicians, and Johnson was a university president. Baldwin had been a minister, and Williamson, Madison, Ellsworth, and possibly others had studied theology but had never been ordained.

A few of the delegates were wealthy. Washington and Robert Morris ranked among the nation's most prosperous men. Carroll, Houston, Jenifer, and Mifflin were also extremely well-to-do. Most of the others had financial resources that ranged from good to excellent. Among those with the most straitened circumstances were Baldwin, Bready, Broom, Few, Madison, Paterson, and Sherman, though they all managed to live comfortably.

A considerable number of the men were born into leading families: Blair, Butler, Carroll, Houston, Ingersoll, Jenifer, Johnson, Livingston, Mifflin, Gouverneur Morris, both Pinckneys, Randolph, Rutledge, Washington, and Wythe. Others were self-made men who had risen from humble beginnings: Few, Franklin, Gorham, Hamilton, and Sherman.

Geographic and Educational Background

Most of the delegates were natives of the 13 colonies. Only eight were born elsewhere: four (Butler, Fitzsimons, McHenry, and Paterson) in Ireland, two (Davie and Robert Morris) in England, one (Wilson) in Scotland, and one (Hamilton) in the West Indies. Reflecting the mobility that has always characterized American life, many of them had moved from one state to another. Sixteen individuals had already lived or worked in more than one state or colony: Baldwin, Bassett, Bedford, Dickinson, Few, Franklin, Ingersoll, Livingston, Alexander Martin, Luther Martin, Mercer, Gouverneur Morris, Robert Morris, Read, Sherman, and Williamson. Several others had studied or traveled abroad.

The educational background of the Founding Fathers was diverse. Some, like Franklin, were largely self-taught and had received scant formal training. Others had obtained instruction from private tutors or at academies. About half of the individuals had attended or graduated from college in the British North American colonies or abroad. Some men held advanced and honorary degrees. For the most part, the delegates were a well-educated group.

Longevity and Family Life

For their era, the delegates to the convention (like the signers of the [Declaration of Independence](#)) were remarkably long-lived. Their average age at death was almost 67. Johnson reached the age of 92, and Few, Franklin, Madison, Williamson, and Wythe lived into their

eighties. Fifteen or sixteen (depending on Fitzsimmon's exact age) passed away in their eighth decade, and 20 or 21 in their sixties. Eight lived into their fifties; five lived only into their forties, and two of them (Hamilton and Spaight) were killed in duels. The first to die was Houston in 1788; the last, Madison in 1836.

Most of the delegates married and raised children. Sherman fathered the largest family, 15 children by 2 wives. At least nine (Bassett, Brearly, Johnson, Mason, Paterson, Charles Cotesworth, Pinckney, Sherman, Wilson, and Wythe) married more than once. Four (Baldwin, Gilman, Jenifer, and Alexander Martin) were lifelong bachelors. In terms of religious affiliation, the men mirrored the overwhelmingly Protestant character of American religious life at the time and were members of various denominations. Only two, Carroll and Fitzsimons, were Roman Catholics.

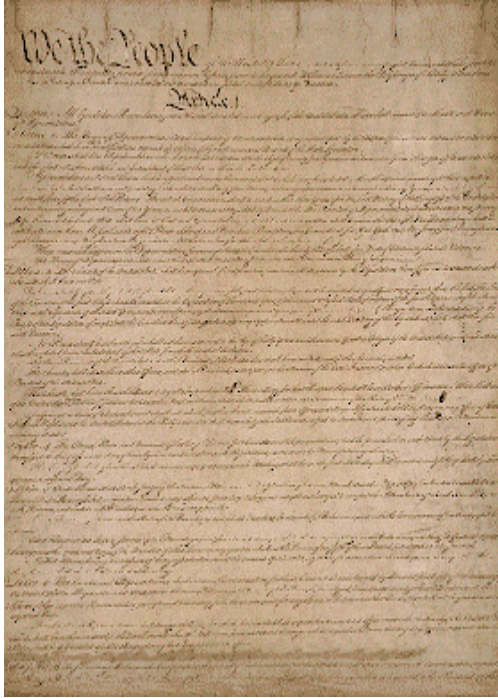
Post-Convention Careers

The delegates subsequent careers reflected their abilities as well as the vagaries of fate. Most were successful, although seven (Fitzsimons, Gorham, Luther Martin, Mifflin, Robert Morris, Pierce, and Wilson) suffered serious financial reverses that left them in or near bankruptcy. Two, Blount and Dayton, were involved in possibly treasonous activities. Yet, as they had done before the convention, most of the group continued to render outstanding public service, particularly to the new government they had helped to create.

Washington and Madison became President of the United States, and King and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney were nominated as candidates for the office. Gerry served as Madison's Vice President. Hamilton, McHenry, Madison, and Randolph attained Cabinet posts. Nineteen men became U.S. senators: Baldwin, Bassett, Blount, Butler, Dayton, Ellsworth, Few, Gilman, Johnson, King, Langdon, Alexander Martin, Gouverneur Morris, Robert Morris, Paterson, Charles Pinckney, Read, Sherman, and Strong. Thirteen served in the House of Representatives: Baldwin, Carroll, Clymer, Dayton, Fitzsimons, Gerry, Gilman, Madison, Mercer, Charles Pinckney, Sherman, Spaight, and Williamson. Of these, Dayton served as Speaker. Four men (Bassett, Bedford, Brearly, and Few) served as federal judges, four more (Blair, Paterson, Rutledge, and Wilson) as Associate Justices of the Supreme Court. Rutledge and Ellsworth also held the position of Chief Justice. Seven others (Davie, Ellsworth, Gerry, King, Gouverneur Morris, Charles Pinckney, and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney) were named to diplomatic missions for the nation.



Many delegates held important state positions, including governor (Blount, Davie, Franklin, Gerry, Langdon, Livingston, Alexander Martin, Mifflin, Paterson, Charles Pinckney, Spaight, and Strong) and legislator. And most of the delegates contributed in many ways to the cultural life of their cities, communities, and states. Not surprisingly, many of their sons and other descendants were to occupy high positions in American political and intellectual life.



Ratifying the Constitution...

On September 17, 1787, the document was signed and sent to Congress, which soon forwarded printed copies to the state legislatures. Then began the great debate. Madison, Hamilton, and Jay wrote the brilliant Federalist Papers. George Mason, Elbridge Gerry, and Patrick Henry led the Antifederalists in opposing it. Others joined in the argument, in pamphlets, articles, speeches, and letters. By June 21, 1788, conventions in nine states later approved it. Thus the States, which had so recently gained their independence, gave up some of their hard-won sovereignty "in Order to form a more perfect Union."

Image: James Madison was not only the preeminent figure at the convention but also played a leading role in the ratification process.

THE FOUNDING FATHERS

Delegates to the Constitutional Convention

On February 21, 1787, the Continental Congress resolved that:

... it is expedient that on the second Monday in May next a Convention of delegates who shall have been appointed by the several States be held at Philadelphia for the sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation...



Assembly Room in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, site of the signing of the Constitution in 1787.

Photo courtesy of Independence National Historical Park.

The original states, except Rhode Island, collectively appointed 70 individuals to the [Constitutional Convention](#), but a number did not accept or could not attend. Those who did not attend included Richard Henry Lee, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Samuel Adams and, John Hancock.

In all, 55 delegates attended the Constitutional Convention sessions, but only 39 actually signed the Constitution. The delegates ranged in age from Jonathan Dayton, aged 26, to Benjamin Franklin, aged 81, who was so infirm that he had to be carried to sessions in a sedan chair.

BIOGRAPHICAL INDEX OF OUR FOUNDING FATHERS

For a short biographies of each of the Founding Fathers who were delegates to the Constitutional Convention, select the names or the states below. (* indicates delegates who did **not** sign the [Constitution](#))

Connecticut

[William. Samuel Johnson](#)

[Roger Sherman](#)

[Oliver Ellsworth \(Elsworth\)*](#)

Delaware

[George Read](#)

[Gunning Bedford, Jr.](#)

[John Dickinson](#)

[Richard Bassett](#)

[Jacob Broom](#)

Georgia

[William Few](#)

[Abraham Baldwin](#)

[William Houston](#)

[William L. Pierce*](#)

Maryland

[James McHenry](#)

[Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer](#)

[Daniel Carroll](#)

[Luther Martin*](#)

[John F. Mercer*](#)

Massachusetts

[Nathaniel Gorham](#)

[Rufus King](#)

[Elbridge Gerry*](#)

[Caleb Strong*](#)

New Hampshire

[John Langdon](#)

[Nicholas Gilman](#)

New Jersey

[William Livingston](#)

[David Brearly \(Brearley\)](#)

[William Paterson \(Patterson\)](#)

[Jonathan Dayton](#)

[William C. Houston*](#)

New York

[Alexander Hamilton](#)

[John Lansing, Jr.*](#)

[Robert Yates*](#)

North Carolina

[William. Blount](#)

[Richard. Dobbs Spaight](#)

[Hugh Williamson](#)

[William R. Davie*](#)

[Alexander Martin*](#)

Pennsylvania

[Benjamin Franklin](#)

[Thomas Mifflin](#)

[Robert Morris](#)

[George Clymer](#)

[Thomas Fitzsimons \(FitzSimons; Fitzsimmons\)](#)

[Jared Ingersoll](#)

[James Wilson](#)

[Gouverneur Morris](#)

South Carolina

[John Rutledge](#)

[Charles Cotesworth Pinckney](#)

[Charles Pinckney](#)

[Pierce Butler](#)

Rhode Island *did not send any delegates to the Constitutional Convention.*

Virginia

[John Blair](#)

[James Madison Jr.](#)

[George Washington](#)

[George Mason*](#)

[James McClurg*](#)

[Edmund J. Randolph*](#)

[George Wythe*](#)



The Marquis de Lafayette

1757-1834



French Soldier & Statesman

**"Humanity has won its battle,
Liberty now has a country."**

—Lafayette



Gilbert du Montier was born on September 6, 1757 in Auvergne, France. His full given name was Marie Joseph Paul Yves Roch Gilbert du Montier. His father died when he was 2 years old, and when his mother and grandfather died 11 year later, he inherited a large fortune. Lafayette, who came from a long line of soldiers, studied at the Military Academy in Versailles and became a captain in the French cavalry at age 16.

In 1777, Lafayette purchased a ship, and with a crew of adventurers set



sail for America to fight in the revolution against the British. Lafayette joined the ranks as a major general and was assigned to the staff of [George Washington](#). He served with distinction, leading America forces to several victories. On a return visit to France in 1779 Lafayette persuaded the French government to send aid to the Americans. After the British surrender at [Yorktown](#), Lafayette returned home to Paris. He had become a hero to the new nation. At home he cooperated closely with Ambassadors [Benjamin Franklin](#), and then [Thomas Jefferson](#) in behalf of American interests.

After 1782 Lafayette became absorbed with questions of reform in France. He was one of the first to advocate a National Assembly, and worked toward the establishment of a constitutional monarchy during the years leading up to the French Revolution of 1791. These efforts cost him much of his support from the French nobility. As commander of the French National Guard Lafayette was forced to use force to put down crowd violence. By the 1791 he had lost most of his popularity with the people.

In 1792 he tried unsuccessfully to curb radicalism against the monarchy. The King and Queen would not accept his assistance, and the troops he tried to turn on the Paris mob would not follow his orders. He was denounced as a traitor and fled the country. Lafayette returned to France in 1800 and found his personal fortune had been confiscated. In 1815 he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies. As one of its vice presidents, he worked for Napoleon's abdication after the Battle of Waterloo.

Lafayette became a focal point of resistance to the Bourbon kings. In 1830 he became the leader of a Revolution that dethroned the Bourbons. He refused the popular demand that he become president of the new republic, and instead helped make Louis Philippe the constitutional monarch of France. Just before his death in 1834 he began to regret his support of Philippe and support the move to a pure republic in France.

THE MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE

"...Lafayette is a young man of royal birth, with liberal politics and what Jefferson later called 'a canine appetite for fame.' Someone said he was 'a statue in search of a pedestal.' But he was intoxicated with, [had] a rather theoretical love of, liberty. It was theoretical because liberty wasn't known to many Europeans. [Lafayette] was a great romantic and he fell in love with America, the concept of America that the French had. This wild new world where you could start the world over, to use Tom Paine's phrase."

Scholar Richard Norton Smith



Lafayette rewarded for Revolutionary assist

WASHINGTON (AP) — The Marquis de Lafayette, who fought alongside George Washington at [Valley Forge](#) and secured the aid of France during the Revolutionary War, is about to become the sixth person to receive honorary U.S. citizenship. The House, by a voice vote, on Monday bestowed honorary citizenship on Lafayette (1757-1834), who, according to the legislation, "gave aid to the United States in her time of need and is forever a symbol of freedom."

The Senate approved the legislation last December, and it will go to the president for his signature after the Senate concurs with a change in the House bill to clarify the French aristocrat's full name — Marie Joseph Paul Yves Roch Gilbert du Motier. The original Senate bill was introduced by Sen. John Warner, R-Va.

Congress has previously given honorary citizenship to [Winston Churchill](#); [Mother Teresa](#); Raoul Wallenberg, the Swedish diplomat who helped save thousands of Jews from Nazi death camps in World War II; and Pennsylvania founder [William Penn](#) and his wife, Hannah.

Lafayette arrived in Philadelphia in 1777. He was appointed a major general by the [Continental Congress](#), was wounded at [Brandywine](#), shared the winter hardships at Valley Forge and was a key strategist in the [Yorktown](#) campaign that led to the [British surrender](#).

He also was instrumental in securing French aid for the struggling American forces.

Lafayette was the first foreign dignitary to address Congress, in 1824, and upon his death both the House and Senate draped their chambers in black.

It was not clear why it took so long to honor Lafayette. But Sen. Patrick Leahy, D-Vt., speaking when the Senate passed the measure, said that "after 200 years, the world has gotten smaller and our international allies and coalition partners are essential to our long-term success in the difficult times ahead. We should never forget this nation's friends."

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

The New Conditions of the War

After France entered the war in 1778, it rapidly took on the dimensions of a major European as well as an American conflict. In 1779 Spain declared war against England, and in the following year Holland followed suit. The necessity of fighting European enemies in the West Indies and other areas and of standing guard at home against invasion weakened the British effort against the American rebels. Yet the Americans were unable to take full advantage of Britain's embarrassments, for their own effort suffered more and more from war weariness, lack of strong direction, and inadequate finance. Moreover, the interests of European states fighting Britain did not necessarily coincide with American interests. Spain and Holland did not ally themselves with the American states at all, and even France found it expedient to devote its major effort to the West Indies. Finally, the entry of ancient enemies into the fray spurred the British to intensify their effort and evoked some, if not enough, of that characteristic tenacity that has produced victory for England in so many wars. Despite their many new commitments, the British were able to maintain in America an army that was usually superior in numbers to the dwindling Continental Army, though never strong enough to undertake offensives again on the scale of those of 1776 and 1777.

Monmouth was the last general engagement in the north between Washington's and Clinton's armies. In 1779 the situation there became a stalemate and remained so until the end of the war. Washington set up a defense system around New York with its center at West Point, and Clinton made no attempt to attack his main defense line. The British commander did, in late spring 1779, attempt to draw Washington into the open by descending in force on unfinished American

outpost fortifications at Verplanck's Point and Stony Point, but Washington refused to take the bait. When Clinton withdrew his main force to New York, the American commander retaliated by sending Maj. Gen. Anthony Wayne on July 15, 1779, with an elite corps of light infantry, on a stealthy night attack on Stony Point, a successful action more notable for demonstrating the proficiency with which the Americans now used the bayonet than for any important strategic gains. Wayne was unable to take Verplanck's, and Clinton rapidly retook Stony Point. Thereafter the war around New York became largely an affair of raids, skirmishes, and constant vigilance on both sides.

Clinton's inaction allowed Washington to attempt to deal with British inspired Indian attacks. Although Burgoyne's defeat ended the threat of invasion from Canada, the British continued to incite the Indians all along the frontier to bloody raids on American settlements. From Fort Niagara and Detroit they sent out their bands, usually led by Tories, to pillage, scalp, and burn in the Mohawk Valley of New York, the Wyoming Valley of Pennsylvania, and the new American settlements in Kentucky. In August 1779 Washington detached General Sullivan with a force to deal with the Iroquois in Pennsylvania and New York. Sullivan laid waste the Indians' villages and defeated a force of Tories and Indians at Newtown on August 29.

In the winter of 1778-79, the state of Virginia had sponsored an expedition that struck a severe blow at the British and Indians in the northwest. Young Lt. Col. George Rogers Clark with a force of only 175 men, ostensibly recruited for the defense of Kentucky, overran all the British posts in what is today Illinois and Indiana. Neither he nor Sullivan, however, was able to strike at the sources of the trouble—Niagara and Detroit. Indian raids along the frontiers continued, though they were somewhat less frequent and severe.

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

The Summing Up: Reasons, Lessons, and Meaning

The American victory in the War of the Revolution was a product of many factors, no one of which can be positively assigned first importance. Washington, looking back on the vicissitudes of eight years, could only explain it as the intervention of "Divine Providence." American historians in the nineteenth century saw that "Divine Providence" as having been manifested primarily in the character and genius of the modest Commander in Chief himself. Washington's leadership was clearly one of the principal factors in American success; it seems fair to say that the Revolution could hardly have succeeded without him. Yet in many of the events that led to victory—Bennington, Saratoga, King's Mountain, and Cowpens, to name but a few—his personal influence was remote.

Today many scholars stress not the astonishment that Washington felt at the victory of a weak and divided confederation of American states over the greatest power of the age, but the practical difficulties the British faced in suppressing the revolt. These were indeed great but they do not appear to have been insuperable if one considers military victory alone and not its political

consequences. The British forfeited several chances for military victory in 1776-77, and again in 1780 they might have won had they been able to throw 10,000 fresh troops into the American war. American military leaders were more resourceful and imaginative than the British commanders, and they proved quite capable of profiting from British blunders. In addition to Washington, Nathanael Greene, Henry Knox, Daniel Morgan, and Benedict Arnold showed remarkable military abilities, and of the foreign volunteers Steuben and the young Lafayette were outstanding. The resourcefulness of this extraordinary group of leaders was matched by the dedication of the Continental rank and file to the cause. Only men so dedicated could have endured the hardships of the march to Quebec, the crossing of the Delaware, Valley Forge, Morristown, and Greene's forced marches in the southern campaign. British and Hessian professionals never showed the same spirit; their virtues were exhibited principally in situations where discipline and training counted most.

The militia, the men who fought battles and then went home, also exhibited this spirit on many occasions. The militiamen have been generally maligned as useless by one school of thought, and glorified by another as the true victors in the war. In any balanced view it must be recognized that their contributions were great, though they would have counted for little without a Continental Army to give the American cause that continued sustenance that only a permanent force in being could give it. It was the ubiquity of the militia that made British victories over the Continentals in the field so meaningless. And the success with which the militia did operate derived from the firm political control the patriots had established over the countryside long before the British were in any position to challenge it—the situation that made the British task so difficult in the first place.

For all these American virtues and British difficulties and mistakes, the Americans still required French aid—money, supplies, and in the last phase military force—to win a decisive and clear-cut military victory. Most of the muskets, bayonets, and cannon used by the Continental Army came from France. The French contested the control of the seas that was so vital to the British, and compelled them to divert forces from the American mainland to other areas. The final stroke at Yorktown, though a product of Washington's strategic conception, was possible only because of the temporary predominance of French naval power off the American coast and the presence of a French army.

French aid was doubly necessary because the American war effort lacked strong national direction. The Revolution showed conclusively the need for a central government with power to harness the nation's resources for war. It is not surprising that in 1787 nearly all those who had struggled so long and hard as leaders in the Continental Army or in administrative positions under the Congress were to be found in the ranks of the supporters of a new constitution creating such a central government with a strong executive and the power to "raise armies and navies," call out the militia, and levy taxes directly to support itself.

Strictly military lessons of the Revolution were more equivocal. Tactical innovations were not radical but they did represent a culmination of the trend, which started during the French and Indian War, toward employment of light troops as skirmishers in conjunction with traditional linear formations. By the end of the war both armies were fighting in this fashion. The Americans strove to develop the same proficiency as the British in regular line-of-battle tactics,

while the British adapted to the American terrain and tactics by themselves employing skirmishers and fighting when possible from behind cover. Washington was himself a military conservative, and Steuben's training program was designed to equip American troops to fight in European fashion with modifications to provide for the increased use of light infantry. The guerrilla tactics that characterized many actions, principally those of the militia, were no product of the design of Washington or his leading subordinates but of circumstances over which they had little control. The American rifle, most useful in guerrilla actions or in the hands of skirmishers, played no decisive role in the Revolution. It was of great value in wooded areas, as at Saratoga and King's Mountain, but for open-field fighting its slow rate of fire and lack of a bayonet made it inferior to the musket.

Since both militia and Continentals played roles in winning the war, the Revolutionary experience provided ammunition for two diametrically opposed schools of thought on American military policy: the one advocating a large Regular Army, the other reliance on the militia as the bulwark of national defense. The real issue, as Washington fully recognized, was less militia versus Regulars—for he never believed the infant republic needed a large standing army—than the extent to which militia could be trained and organized to form a reliable national reserve. The lesson Washington drew from the Revolution was that the militia should be "well regulated," that is, trained and organized under uniform national system in all the states and subject to call into national service in war or emergency.

The lesson had far greater implications for the future than any of the tactical changes wrought by the American Revolution. It balanced the rights of freedom and equality, proclaimed in the Declaration of Independence, with a corresponding obligation of all citizens for military service to the nation. This concept, which was to find explicit expression in the "nation in arms" during the French Revolution, was also implicit in the American, and it portended the end of eighteenth century limited war, fought by professional armies officered by an aristocratic class. As Steuben so well recognized, American Continentals were not professional soldiers in the European sense, and militia even less so. They were, instead, a people's army fighting for a cause. In this sense then, the American Revolution began the "democratization of war," a process that was eventually to lead to national conscription and a new concept of total war for total victory.

The Treaty of Paris 1783

This treaty, signed on Sept. 3, 1783, between the American colonies and Great Britain, ended the American Revolution and formally recognized the United States as an independent nation.

By the Treaty of Paris of Sept. 3, 1783, Great Britain formally acknowledged the independence of the United States, and the warring European powers, Britain against France and Spain, with the Dutch as armed neutrals, effected a large-scale peace settlement. The preliminary Anglo-American articles (which went unchanged) were signed on Nov. 30, 1782, after months of tortuous negotiations, in which the chief American plenipotentiaries, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Jay, acquitted themselves so well that their achievement has been labeled the greatest triumph in the history of American diplomacy.

These three American negotiators, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Jay, proved themselves to be masters of the game, outmaneuvering their counterparts and clinging fiercely to the points of national interest that guaranteed a future for the United States. Two crucial provisions of the treaty were British recognition of U.S. independence and the delineation of boundaries that would allow for American western expansion.

The treaty is named for the city in which it was negotiated and signed. The last page bears the signatures of David Hartley, who represented Great Britain, and the three American negotiators, who signed their names in alphabetical order.

France and Spain signed separate preliminary articles with Great Britain on Jan. 20, 1783, and the Dutch and British signed theirs on Sept. 2, 1783. These preliminary agreements (except the Anglo-Dutch one, which was not ratified by both powers until June, 1784) were signed as definitive treaties on Sept. 3, 1783.

The Anglo-American settlement fixed the boundaries of the United States. In the Northeast the line extended from the source of the St. Croix River due north to the highlands separating the rivers flowing to the Atlantic from those draining into the St. Lawrence River, thence with the highlands to lat. 45°N, and then along the 45th parallel to the St. Lawrence. From there the northern boundary followed a line midway through contiguous rivers and lakes (especially the Great Lakes) to the northwest corner of the Lake of the Woods, thence due west to the sources of the Mississippi (which were not then known).

The Mississippi, south to lat. 31°N, was made the western boundary. On the south the line followed the 31st parallel E to the Chattahoochee River and its junction with the Flint River, then took a straight line to the mouth of the St. Marys River, and from there to the Atlantic. The navigation of the Mississippi was to be open to the citizens of both nations.

Another section of the treaty granted Americans fishing rights off Newfoundland and the privilege of curing fish in the uninhabited parts of Labrador, Nova Scotia, and the Magdalen Islands, but not in Newfoundland. A third part provided that creditors of either side would be unimpeded in the collection of lawful debts. In a fourth section the American government promised to recommend to the several states that they repeal their confiscation laws, provide for restitution of confiscated property to British subjects, and take no further proceedings against the Loyalists.

The Definitive Treaty of Peace 1783

In the name of the most holy and undivided Trinity.

It having pleased the Divine Providence to dispose the hearts of the most serene and most potent Prince George the Third, by the grace of God, king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, duke of Brunswick and Lunebourg, arch-treasurer and prince elector of the Holy Roman Empire etc., and of the United States of America, to forget all past misunderstandings and differences that have unhappily interrupted the good correspondence and friendship which they mutually wish to restore, and to establish such a beneficial and satisfactory



intercourse, between the two countries upon the ground of reciprocal advantages and mutual convenience as may promote and secure to both perpetual peace and harmony; and having for this desirable end already laid the foundation of peace and reconciliation by the Provisional Articles signed at Paris on the 30th of November 1782, by the commissioners empowered on each part, which articles were agreed to be inserted in and constitute the Treaty of Peace proposed to be concluded between the Crown of Great Britain and the said United States, but which treaty was not to be concluded until terms of peace should be agreed upon between Great Britain and France and his Britannic Majesty should be ready to conclude such treaty accordingly; and the treaty between Great Britain and France having since been concluded, his Britannic Majesty and the

United States of America, in order to carry into full effect the Provisional Articles above mentioned, according to the tenor thereof, have constituted and appointed, that is to say his Britannic Majesty on his part, David Hartley, Esqr., member of the Parliament of Great Britain, and the said United States on their part, John Adams, Esqr., late a commissioner of the United States of America at the court of Versailles, late delegate in Congress from the state of Massachusetts, and chief justice of the said state, and minister plenipotentiary of the said United States to their high mightinesses the States General of the United Netherlands; Benjamin Franklin, Esqr., late delegate in Congress from the state of Pennsylvania, president of the convention of the said state, and minister plenipotentiary from the United States of America at the court of Versailles; John Jay, Esqr., late president of Congress and chief justice of the state of New York, and minister plenipotentiary from the said United States at the court of Madrid; to be plenipotentiaries for the concluding and signing the present definitive treaty; who after having reciprocally communicated their respective full powers have agreed upon and confirmed the following articles.

Article 1:

His Britannic Majesty acknowledges the said United States, viz., New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, to be free sovereign and independent states, that he treats with them as such, and for himself, his heirs, and successors, relinquishes all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same and every part thereof.

Article 2:

And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz.; from the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, viz., that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of St. Croix River to the highlands; along the said highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquy; thence along the middle of said river into Lake Ontario; through the middle of said lake until it strikes the

communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of said lake until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron; thence along the middle of said water communication into Lake Huron, thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior northward of the Isles Royal and Phelipeaux to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of said Long Lake and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the said Lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most northwesternmost point thereof, and from thence on a due west course to the river Mississippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of the said river Mississippi until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of north latitude, South, by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of the line last mentioned in the latitude of thirty-one degrees North of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachicola or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River, thence straight to the head of Saint Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of Saint Mary's River to the Atlantic Ocean; east, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river Saint Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source, and from its source directly north to the aforesaid highlands which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those which fall into the river Saint Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part and East Florida on the other shall, respectively, touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting such islands as now are or heretofore have been within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia.

Article 3:

It is agreed that the people of the United States shall continue to enjoy unmolested the right to take fish of every kind on the Grand Bank and on all the other banks of Newfoundland, also in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence and at all other places in the sea, where the inhabitants of both countries used at any time heretofore to fish. And also that the inhabitants of the United States shall have liberty to take fish of every kind on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen shall use, (but not to dry or cure the same on that island) and also on the coasts, bays and creeks of all other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America; and that the American fishermen shall have liberty to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbors, and creeks of Nova Scotia, Magdalen Islands, and Labrador, so long as the same shall remain unsettled, but so soon as the same or either of them shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish at such settlement without a previous agreement for that purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of the ground.

Article 4:

It is agreed that creditors on either side shall meet with no lawful impediment to the recovery of the full value in sterling money of all bona fide debts heretofore contracted.

Article 5:

It is agreed that Congress shall earnestly recommend it to the legislatures of the respective states to provide for the restitution of all estates, rights, and properties, which have been confiscated belonging to real British subjects; and also of the estates, rights, and properties of persons resident in districts in the possession on his Majesty's arms and who have not borne arms against

the said United States. And that persons of any other description shall have free liberty to go to any part or parts of any of the thirteen United States and therein to remain twelve months unmolested in their endeavors to obtain the restitution of such of their estates, rights, and properties as may have been confiscated; and that Congress shall also earnestly recommend to the several states a reconsideration and revision of all acts or laws regarding the premises, so as to render the said laws or acts perfectly consistent not only with justice and equity but with that spirit of conciliation which on the return of the blessings of peace should universally prevail. And that Congress shall also earnestly recommend to the several states that the estates, rights, and properties, of such last mentioned persons shall be restored to them, they refunding to any persons who may be now in possession the bona fide price (where any has been given) which such persons may have paid on purchasing any of the said lands, rights, or properties since the confiscation.

And it is agreed that all persons who have any interest in confiscated lands, either by debts, marriage settlements, or otherwise, shall meet with no lawful impediment in the prosecution of their just rights.

Article 6:

That there shall be no future confiscations made nor any prosecutions commenced against any person or persons for, or by reason of, the part which he or they may have taken in the present war, and that no person shall on that account suffer any future loss or damage, either in his person, liberty, or property; and that those who may be in confinement on such charges at the time of the ratification of the treaty in America shall be immediately set at liberty, and the prosecutions so commenced be discontinued.

Article 7:

There shall be a firm and perpetual peace between his Britannic Majesty and the said states, and between the subjects of the one and the citizens of the other, wherefore all hostilities both by sea and land shall from henceforth cease. All prisoners on both sides shall be set at liberty, and his Britannic Majesty shall with all convenient speed, and without causing any destruction, or carrying away any Negroes or other property of the American inhabitants, withdraw all his armies, garrisons, and fleets from the said United States, and from every post, place, and harbor within the same; leaving in all fortifications, the American artillery that may be therein; and shall also order and cause all archives, records, deeds, and papers belonging to any of the said states, or their citizens, which in the course of the war may have fallen into the hands of his officers, to be forthwith restored and delivered to the proper states and persons to whom they belong.

Article 8:

The navigation of the river Mississippi, from its source to the ocean, shall forever remain free and open to the subjects of Great Britain and the citizens of the United States.

Article 9:

In case it should so happen that any place or territory belonging to Great Britain or to the United States should have been conquered by the arms of either from the other before the arrival of the said Provisional Articles in America, it is agreed that the same shall be restored without difficulty and without requiring any compensation.

Article 10:

The solemn ratifications of the present treaty expedited in good and due form shall be exchanged between the contracting parties in the space of six months or sooner, if possible, to be computed from the day of the signatures of the present treaty. In witness whereof we the undersigned, their ministers plenipotentiary, have in their name and in virtue of our full powers, signed with our hands the present definitive treaty and caused the seals of our arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at Paris, this third day of September in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-three.

D. HARTLEY (SEAL)
JOHN ADAMS (SEAL)
B. FRANKLIN (SEAL)
JOHN JAY (SEAL)

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783



The year 1777 was most critical for the British. The issue, very plainly, was whether they could score such success in putting down the American revolt that the French would not dare enter the war openly to aid the American rebels. Yet it was in this critical year that British plans were most confused and British operations most disjointed. The British campaign of 1777 provides one of the most striking object lessons in military history of the dangers of divided command.

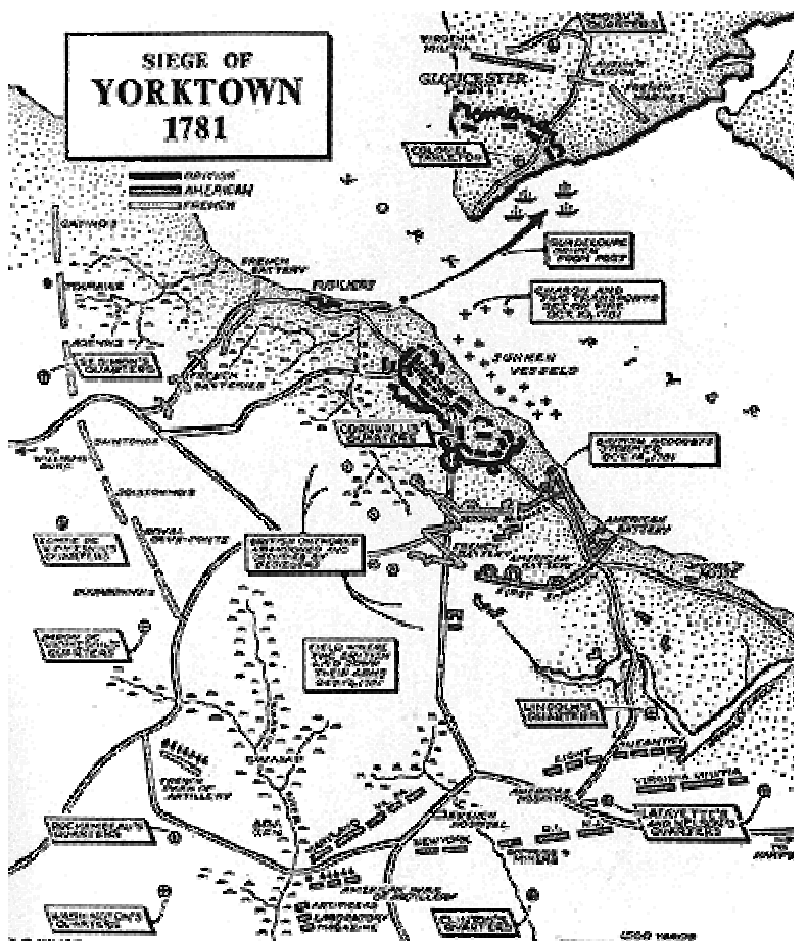


Vincennes to Yorktown

George Washington, Commander-in-Chief

The warfare had meanwhile shifted from the quiescent North to other theaters. George Rogers Clark by his daring exploits (1778-79) in the West, climaxed by the second capture of [Vincennes](#), established the revolutionists' prestige on the frontier. Gen. John Sullivan led an expedition (1779) against the British and [Native Americans](#) in upper New York.

The chief fighting, however, was now in the South. The British had taken Savannah in 1778. In 1780, Sir Henry Clinton attacked and took Charleston (which had resisted attacks in 1776 and 1779) and sent Gen. Charles Cornwallis off on the Carolina campaign. Cornwallis swept forward to beat [Horatio Gates](#) soundly at Camden (Aug., 1780), and only guerrilla bands under Francis Marion, Andrew Pickens, and Thomas Sumter continued to oppose the British S of Virginia.



Another low point had been reached in American fortunes. Bitter complaints of the inefficiency of the Congress, political conniving, lack of funds and food, and the strains of long-continued war had engendered widespread apathy and disaffection, and the British tried to take advantage of the division among the people. In 1780 occurred the most celebrated of the disaffections, the treason of [Benedict Arnold](#). Lack of pay and shortages of clothing and food drove some Continental regiments into a mutiny of protest in Jan., 1781.

The dark, however, was already lifting. A crowd of frontiersmen with their rifles defeated a British force at Kings Mt. in Oct., 1780, and [Nathanael Greene](#), who had replaced Gates as commander in the Carolina campaign, and his able assistant, [Daniel Morgan](#), together with Thaddeus Kosciusko and others, ultimately forced Cornwallis into Virginia. The stage was set for the Yorktown campaign.



Now the French aid counted greatly, for [Lafayette](#) with colonial troops held the British in check, and it was a Franco-American force that Washington and the comte de Rochambeau led from New York S to Virginia. The French fleet under Admiral de Grasse played the decisive part.

Previously naval forces had been of little consequence in the Revolution. State navies and a somewhat irregular national navy had been of less importance than Revolutionary privateers. Esek Hopkins had led a raid in the Bahamas in 1776, John Barry won a name as a gallant commander, and [John Paul Jones](#) was one of the most celebrated commanders in all U.S. naval history, but their exploits were isolated incidents.

It was the French fleet—ironically, the same one defeated by the British under Admiral Rodney the next year in the West Indies—that bottled up Cornwallis at [Yorktown](#). Outnumbered and surrounded, the British commander surrendered (Oct. 19, 1781), and the fighting was over. The rebels had won the American Revolution.



The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

Valley Forge

The name of [Valley Forge](#) has come to stand, and rightly so, as a patriotic symbol of suffering, courage, and perseverance. The hard core of 6,000 Continentals who stayed with Washington during that bitter winter of 1777-78 indeed suffered much. Some men had no shoes, no pants, no blankets. Weeks passed when there was no meat and men were reduced to boiling their shoes and eating them. The wintry winds penetrated the tattered tents that were at first the only shelter.

The symbolism of Valley Forge should not be allowed to obscure the fact that the suffering was largely unnecessary. While the soldiers shivered and went hungry, food rotted and clothing lay unused in depots throughout the country. True, access to Valley Forge was difficult, but little determined effort was made to get supplies into the area. The supply and transport system broke down. In mid-1777, both the Quartermaster and Commissary Generals resigned along with numerous subordinate officials in both departments, mostly merchants who found private trade more lucrative. Congress, in refuge at York, Pennsylvania, and split into factions, found it difficult to find replacements. If there was not, as most historians now believe, an organized cabal seeking to replace [Washington](#) with [Gates](#), there were many, both in and out of the Army, who were dissatisfied with the Commander in Chief, and much intrigue went on. Gates was made president of the new Board of War set up in 1777, and at least two of its members were enemies of Washington. In the administrative chaos at the height of the Valley Forge crisis, there was no functioning Quartermaster General at all.

Washington weathered the storm and the [Continental Army](#) was to emerge from Valley Forge a more effective force than before. With his advice, Congress instituted reforms in the Quartermaster and Commissary Departments that temporarily restored the effectiveness of both agencies. Washington's ablest subordinate, [General Greene](#), reluctantly accepted the post of Quartermaster General. The Continental Army itself gained a new professional competence from the training given by the Prussian, Friedrich Wilhelm von Steuben.

Steuben appeared at Valley Forge in February 1778 arrayed in such martial splendor that one private thought he had seen Mars, the god of war, himself. He represented himself as a baron, a title he had acquired in the service of a small German state, and as a former lieutenant general on the staff of Frederick the Great though in reality he had been only a captain. The fraud was harmless, for Steuben had a broad knowledge of military affairs and his remarkable sense of the dramatic was combined with the common touch a true Prussian baron might well have lacked.

Washington had long sensed the need for uniform training and organization, and after a short trial he secured the appointment of Steuben as Inspector General in charge of a training program. Steuben carried out the program during the late winter and early spring of 1778, teaching the Continental Army a simplified but effective version of the drill formations and movements of European armies, proper care of equipment, and the use of the bayonet, a weapon in which

British superiority had previously been marked. He attempted to consolidate the understrength regiments and companies and organized light infantry companies as the elite force of the Army. He constantly sought to impress upon the officers their responsibility for taking care of the men. Steuben never lost sight of the difference between the American citizen soldier and the European professional. He early noted that American soldiers had to be told why they did things before they would do them well, and he applied this philosophy in his training program. His trenchant good humor and vigorous profanity, almost the only English he knew, delighted the Continental soldiers and made the rigorous drill more palatable. After Valley Forge, Continentals would fight on equal terms with British Regulars in the open field.



Washington and Lafayette at Valley Forge, winter of 1777 - 1778. Copy of an engraving by H.B. Hall after Alzono Chappel. George Washington praying at Valley Forge

"We have this day no less than 2,873 men in camp, unfit for duty because they are barefooted and otherwise naked."

Women of The American Revolution



[Abigail Adams](#)

[Anne Bailey](#)

[Sarah Franklin Bache](#)

[Jane McCrea](#)

[Molly Pitcher](#)

[Betsy Ross](#)

[Deborah Samson](#)

[Mercy Otis Warren](#)

[Martha Washington](#)

First, What Exactly Is A Yankee?

Yankee is a term used by Americans generally in reference to a native of New England and by non-Americans, especially the British, in reference to an American of any section. The word is most likely from the Dutch and was apparently derived either from *Janke*, diminutive of *Jan*, or from *Jankees*, a combination of *Jan* and *kees* [cheese], thus signifying *John Cheese*. As early as 1683, *Yankey* was a common nickname among the pirates of the Spanish Main; always, however, it was borne by Dutchmen. There is no satisfactory explanation of how it came to be applied to the English settlers of colonial America and particularly to New Englanders. By 1765 it was in use as a term of contempt or derision, but by the opening of the [American Revolution](#), New Englanders were proud to be called Yankees. The popularity of the marching song *Yankee Doodle* probably had much to do with the term's subsequent wide usage. In the Civil War it was applied disparagingly by the Confederates to Union soldiers and Northerners generally, and with Southern hatred for the North rekindled by the Reconstruction period it survived long after the war was over. In World War I, the English began calling American soldiers, both Southerners and Northerners, Yankees. At that time too the shortened form *Yank* became popular in the United States, with George M. Cohan's war song *Over There*; contributing largely to its increased usage. However, *Yank*, too, was known in the 18th cent., as early as 1778, and the Confederates also used that form in the Civil War. *Yankee* and *Yank* were again popular designations for the American soldier in World War II. In Latin America the term *Yanqui* is applied to U.S. citizens, often—especially after the Cuba revolution—with a note of hostility.

Yankee Doodle

The Cambridge History of English and American Literature in 18 Volumes (1907–21).
VOLUME XVIII. Later National Literature, Part III.

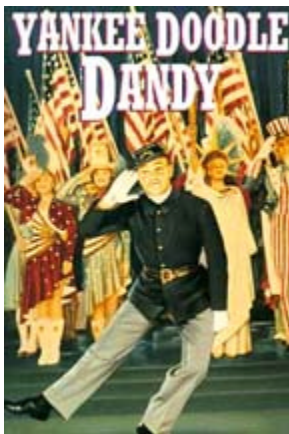
XXVI. Patriotic Songs and Hymns.

§ 2. *Yankee Doodle*.

Yankee Doodle, for example, is full of surprises, inconsistencies, paradoxes in its career. It is not really a song, but it is a band tune which no existing adult audience has ever sung together. The single stanza known to everyone is not a part of the Revolutionary War ballad, but belongs to an earlier period in its history. The music is unheroic; the title (“a New England Noodle”) is derogatory to the people who adopted it in spite of its ridicule. And yet it has become a piece of jovial defiance as stirring as *The Campbells Are Coming*. The melody, as has often been the case, was generally known for several years before it was turned to patriotic account. As early as 1764 the familiar quatrain was current in England, and by 1767 the tune was familiar enough in America to be cited in Barton’s (or Colonel Forrest’s) comic opera, *Disappointment, or The Force of Credulity*. In derision of the foolish Yankee there soon began to multiply variants, most of which have come down by hearsay, and are very vague as to date; but one was a broadside and attests in the title to its currency before April, 1775: *Yankee Doodle; or, (as now christened by the Saints of New England) the Lexington March*. N.B. *The Words to be Sung thro’ the*

Nose, & in the West Country drawl and dialect. The text of *The Yankee's Return from Camp*—the famous but forgotten version—is attributed to Edward Bangs, a Harvard student, and was written in 1775 or 1776. Tory derision did not cease with its appearance, and between the accumulating stanzas in rejoinder and those in supplement gave ground for the speech of “Jonathan” in Tyler’s *The Contrast* of 1787: “Some other time, when you and I are better acquainted, I’ll sing the whole of it—no, no, that’s a fib—I can’t sing but a hundred and ninety verses; our Tabitha at home can sing it all.” In time, however, the words lost interest for all but antiquarians, so that the stanza in *The Songster’s Museum* was literally true in 1826 as it is to-day:

**Yankee Doodle is the tune
Americans delight in.
'Twill do to whistle, sing or play,
And just the thing for fighting.**



Yankee Doodle Boy

Yankee Doodle

Father and I went down to camp,
Along with Captain Gooding;
And there we saw the men and boys,
As thick as hasty pudding.

Yankee doodle, keep it up,
Yankee doodle dandy;
Mind the musie and the step,
And with the girls be handy.

There was Captain Washington
Upon a slapping stallion,

A-giving orders to his men,
I guess there was a million.

And then the feathers on his hat,
They looked so' tarnal fin-a,
I wanted pockily to get
To give to my Jemima.

And then we saw a swamping gun,
Large as a log of maple;
Upon a deuced little cart,
A load for father's cattle.

And every time they shoot it off,
It takes a horn of powder;
It makes a noise like father's gun,
Only a nation louder.

I went as nigh to one myself,
As' Siah's underpinning;
And father went as nigh agin,
I thought the deuce was in him.

We saw a little barrel, too,
The heads were made of leather;
They knocked upon it with little clubs,
And called the folks together.

And there they'd fife away like fun,
And play on cornstalk fiddles,
And some had ribbons red as blood,
All bound around their middles.

The troopers, too, would gallop up
And fire right in our faces;
It scared me almost to death
To see them run such races.

Uncle Sam came there to change
Some pancakes and some onions,
For' lasses cake to carry home
To give his wife and young ones.

But I can't tell half I see
They kept up such a smother;
So I took my hat off, made a bow,
And scampered home to mother.

Cousin Simon grew so bold,
I thought he would have cocked it;
It scared me so I streaked it off,
And hung by father's pocket.

And there I saw a pumpkin shell,
As big as mother's basin;
And every time they touched it off,

They scampered like the nation.

Yankee doodle, keep it up,
Yankee doodle dandy;
Mind the music and the step,
And with the girls be handy



Cagney as George M. Cohan in
Yankee Doodle Dandy



Lyrics to Yankee Doodle Dandy

by [George M. Cohan](#)



The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

Yorktown: The Final Act



As Howe and Burgoyne went their separate ways in 1777, seemingly determined to satisfy only their personal ambitions, so Clinton and [Cornwallis](#) in 1781 paved the road to Yorktown by their disagreements and lack of coordination. Clinton was Cornwallis' superior in this case, but the latter enjoyed the confidence of Germain to an extent that Clinton did not. Clinton, believing that without large reinforcements the British could not operate far from coastal bases, had opposed Cornwallis' ventures in the interior of the Carolinas, and when Cornwallis came to Virginia he did so without even informing his superior of his intention.

Since 1779 Clinton had sought to paralyze the state of Virginia by conducting raids up its great rivers, arousing the Tories, and establishing a base in the Chesapeake Bay region. (*Map 12*) He thought this base might eventually be used as a starting point for one arm of a pincers movement against Pennsylvania for which his own idle force in New York would provide the other. A raid conducted in the Hampton Roads area in 1779 was highly successful, but when Clinton sought to follow it up in 1780 the force sent for the purpose had to be diverted to Charleston to bail Cornwallis out after [King's Mountain](#). Finally in 1781 he got an expedition into Virginia, a

contingent of 1,600 under the American traitor, [Benedict Arnold](#). In January Arnold conducted a destructive raid up the James River all the way to Richmond. His presence soon proved to be a magnet drawing forces of both sides to Virginia.

In an effort to trap Arnold, [Washington](#) dispatched [Lafayette](#) to Virginia with 1,200 of his scarce Continentals and persuaded the French to send a naval squadron from Newport to block Arnold's escape by sea. The plan went awry when a British fleet drove the French squadron back to Newport and Clinton sent another 600 men to Virginia along with a new commander, Maj. Gen. William Phillips. Phillips and Arnold continued their devastating raids, which Lafayette was too weak to prevent. Then on May 19 Cornwallis arrived from Wilmington and took over from Phillips. With additional reinforcements sent by Clinton he was able to field a force of about 7,000 men, approximately a quarter of the British strength in America. Washington sent down an additional reinforcement of 800 Continental, under General Wayne, but even with Virginia militia Lafayette's force remained greatly outnumbered.



Cornwallis and Clinton were soon working at cross-purposes. Cornwallis proposed to carry out major operations in the interior of Virginia, but Clinton saw as little practical value in this tactic as Cornwallis did in Clinton's plan to establish a base in Virginia for a pincers movement against Pennsylvania. Cornwallis at first turned to the interior and engaged in a fruitless pursuit of Lafayette north of Richmond. Then, on receiving Clinton's positive order to return to the coast, establish a base, and return part of his force to New York, Cornwallis moved back down the Virginia peninsula to take up station at Yorktown, a small tobacco port on the York River just off Chesapeake Bay. In the face of Cornwallis' insistence that he must keep all his troops with him, Clinton vacillated, reversing his own orders several times and in the end granting Cornwallis' request. Lafayette and Wayne followed Cornwallis cautiously down the peninsula, lost a skirmish with him at Green Spring near Williamsburg on July 6, and finally took up a position of watchful waiting near Yorktown.

Map

Meanwhile, Washington had been trying to persuade the French to co-operate in a combined land and naval assault on New York in the summer of 1781. [Rochambeau](#) brought his 4,000 troops down from Newport in April and placed them under Washington's command. The prospects were still bleak since the combined Franco-American force numbered but 10,000

against Clinton's 17,000 in well-fortified positions. Then on August 14 Washington learned that the French Fleet in the West Indies, commanded by Admiral Francois de Grasse, would not come to New York but would arrive in the Chesapeake later in the month and remain there until October 15. He saw immediately that if he could achieve a superior concentration of force on the land side while de Grasse still held the bay he could destroy the British army at Yorktown before Clinton had a chance to relieve it.

The movements that followed illustrate most effectively a successful application of the principles of the offensive, surprise, objective, mass, and maneuver. Even without unified command of Army and Navy forces, Franco-American co-operation this time was excellent. Admiral Louis, Comte de Barras, immediately put out to sea from Newport to join de Grasse. Washington sent orders to Lafayette to contain Cornwallis at [Yorktown](#) and then, after making a feint in the direction of New York to deceive Clinton, on August 21 started the major portion of the Franco-American Army on a rapid secret movement to Virginia, via Chesapeake Bay, leaving only 2,000 Americans behind to watch Clinton.

On August 30, while Washington was on the move southward, de Grasse arrived in the Chesapeake with his entire fleet of twenty-four ships of the line and a few days later debarked 3,000 French troops to join Lafayette. Admiral Thomas Graves, the British naval commander in New York, meanwhile had put out to sea in late August with nineteen ships of the line, hoping either to intercept Barras' squadron or to block de Grasse's entry into the Chesapeake. He failed to find Barras, and when he arrived off Hampton Roads on September 5 he found de Grasse already in the bay. The French admiral sallied forth to meet Graves and the two fleets fought an indecisive action off the Virginia capes. Yet for all practical purposes the victory lay with the French for, while the fleets maneuvered at sea for days following the battle, Barras' squadron slipped into the Chesapeake and the French and American troops got past into the James River. Then de Grasse got back into the bay and joined Barras, confronting Graves with so superior a naval force that he decided to return to New York to refit.



Comte de Grasse

After a naval battle with Admiral Thomas Graves in September of 1781, Admiral Comte de Grasse controlled the Chesapeake. This was vital because he cut off Cornwallis from any reinforcements by way of the sea. He also eliminated Cornwallis' escape route, since the Yorktown River emptied right into de Grasse's hands. Without de Grasse's naval blockade of the Chesapeake Bay and Yorktown River, Cornwallis could have easily evaded the combined Franco-American troops and the war would have continued.

The Winning of Independence

1777-1783

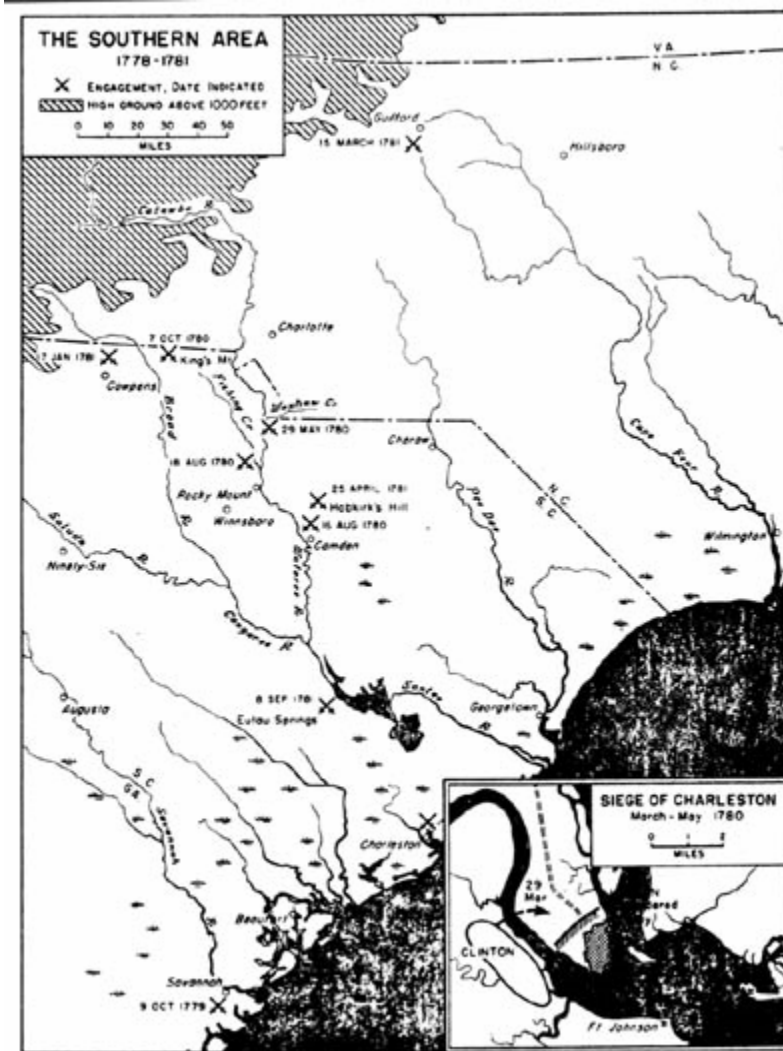


British Successes in the South

Late in 1778 the British began to turn their main effort to the south. Tory strength was greater in the Carolinas and Georgia and the area was closer to the West Indies, where the British Fleet had to stand guard against the French. The king's ministers hoped to bring the southern states into the fold one by one, and from bases there to strangle the recalcitrant north. A small British force operating from Florida quickly overran thinly populated Georgia in the winter of 1778-79. Alarmed by this development, Congress sent General Benjamin Lincoln south to Charleston in December 1778 to command the Southern Army and organize the southern effort. Lincoln gathered 3,500 Continentals and militiamen, but in May 1779, while he maneuvered along the

Georgia border, the British commander, Maj. Gen. Augustine Prevost, slipped around him to lay siege to Charleston. The city barely managed to hold out until Lincoln returned to relieve it.
(Map)

In September 1779 d'Estaing arrived off the coast of Georgia with a strong French Fleet and 6,000 troops. Lincoln then hurried south with 1,350 Americans to join him in a siege of the main British base at Savannah. Unfortunately, the Franco-American force had to hurry its attack because d'Estaing was unwilling to risk his fleet in a position dangerously exposed to autumn storms. The French and Americans mounted a direct assault on Savannah on October 9, abandoning their plan to make a systematic approach by regular parallels. The British in strongly entrenched positions repulsed the attack in what was essentially a Bunker Hill in reverse, the French and Americans suffering staggering losses. D'Estaing then sailed away to the West Indies, Lincoln returned to Charleston, and the second attempt at Franco-American cooperation ended in much the same atmosphere of bitterness and disillusion as the first.



Map

Meanwhile Clinton, urged on by the British Government, had determined to push the southern campaign in earnest. In October 1779 he withdrew the British garrison from Newport, pulled in his troops from outposts around New York, and prepared to move south against Charleston with a large part of his force. With d'Estaing's withdrawal the British regained control of the sea along the American coast, giving Clinton a mobility that Washington could not match. While Clinton drew forces from New York and Savannah to achieve a decisive concentration of force (14,000 men) at Charleston, Washington was able to send only piecemeal reinforcements to Lincoln over difficult overland routes. Applying the lessons of his experience in 1776, Clinton this time carefully planned a co-ordinated Army-Navy attack. First, he landed his force on John's Island to the south, then moved up to the Ashley River, investing Charleston from the land side. Lincoln, under strong pressure from the South Carolina authorities, concentrated his forces in a citadel defense on the neck of land between the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, leaving Fort Moultrie in the harbor lightly manned. On April 8 British warships successfully forced the passage past Moultrie, investing Charleston from the sea. The siege then proceeded in traditional eighteenth century fashion, and on May 12, 1780, Lincoln surrendered his entire force of 5,466 men, the greatest disaster to befall the American cause during the war. Meanwhile, Col. Abraham Buford with 350 Virginians was moving south to reinforce the garrison. Lt. Col. Banastre Tarleton with a force of British cavalry took Buford by surprise at the Waxhaws, a district near the North Carolina border, and slaughtered most of his men, refusing to honor the white flag Buford displayed.

After the capture of [Charleston](#), Clinton returned to New York with about a third of his force, leaving General Cornwallis with 8,000 men to follow up the victory. Cornwallis established his main seaboard bases at Savannah, Beaufort, Charleston, and Georgetown, and in the interior extended his line of control along the Savannah River westward to Ninety-Six and northward to Camden and Rocky Mount. Cornwallis' force, however, was too small to police so large an area, even with the aid of the numerous Tories who took to the field. Though no organized Continental force remained in the Carolinas and Georgia, American guerrillas, led by Brig. Gens. Thomas Sumter and Andrew Pickens and Lt. Col. Francis Marion, began to harry British posts and lines of communications and to battle the bands of Tories. A bloody, ruthless, and confused civil war ensued, its character determined in no small degree by Tarleton's action at the Waxhaws. In this way, as in the Saratoga campaign, the American grass roots strength began once again to assert itself and to deny the British the fruits of military victory won in the field.

On June 22, 1780, two more understrength Continental brigades from Washington's army arrived at Hillsboro, North Carolina, to form the nucleus of a new Southern Army around which militia could rally and which could serve as the nerve center of guerrilla resistance. In July Congress, without consulting Washington, provided a commander for this army in the person of General Gates, the hero of [Saratoga](#). Gates soon lost his northern laurels. Gathering a force of about 4,000 men, mostly militia, he set out to attack the British post at Camden, South Carolina. Cornwallis hurried north from Charleston with reinforcements and his army of 2,200 British Regulars made contact with Gates outside Camden on the night of August 15. In the battle that ensued the following morning, Gates deployed his militia on the left and the Continentals under Maj. Gen. Johann de Kalb on the right. The militia were still forming in the hazy dawn when Cornwallis struck, and they fled in panic before the British onslaught. De Kalb's outnumbered Continentals put up a valiant but hopeless fight. Tarleton's cavalry pursued the fleeing Americans for 30

miles, killing or making prisoner those who lagged. Gates himself fled too fast for Tarleton, reaching Hillsboro, 160 miles away, in three days. There he was able to gather only about 800 survivors of the Southern Army. To add to the disaster, Tarleton caught up with General Sumter, whom Gates had sent with a detachment to raid a British wagon train, and virtually destroyed his force in a surprise attack at Fishing Creek on August 18. Once more South Carolina seemed safely in British hands.

Britain Attacks Georgia

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

On March 8, 1778 Sir Henry Clinton was put in charge of British troops in the United States. In the same letter, the council of war outlined a "Southern Strategy." General Augustine Prevost, military commander of British East Florida headquartered in St. Augustine, communicated to his new commander that the winter would be the best time to make a move into Georgia, so while Thomas Brown had been turning back the Third Florida Expedition, the British Regulars in East Florida were preparing to invade Georgia.

Prevost chose to advance as two units, under two independent commanders. Lt. Colonel L. V. Fuser would move north along the coast while Augustine's brother, Lt. Colonel Mark Prevost moved a few miles inland. This made their resupply by ship an easy task. As Prevost moved north he would be joined by Fuser, who would make a direct assault on Sunbury and Fort Morris. They expected to meet a contingent of troops reassigned to the Southern front from New York City. As Prevost moved north, along the King's Road, the infantry's advance was impeded by a series of skirmishes with what were small groups of plantation-based Patriots.

On November 22, 1778, about 1.5 miles south of Midway (Liberty County), 100 Continentals under the command of Colonel John White and Major James Jackson met the 700 seasoned British troops under Prevost. Both White and Jackson realized they had virtually no chance of defeating the superior force, but they might be able to delay the British advance until relief could arrive from Savannah. When Colonel James Screven did appear he had but 20 militia with him. During the battle Screven received serious wounds and was captured by the British. Screven died while a prisoner of war. Col. White withdrew to a previously prepared defensive line around Midway Church.

As the British advanced White prepared a ruse to scare Prevost. He composed a battle plan that called for a combined force of Continentals and militia from Savannah to join White's embattled Regulars at the Ogeechee Ferry on the King's Road and make a stand. As he retreated from Midway Church, White left the letter in a conspicuous place. Whether it was the letter, or Prevost's assessment of his position that made him pulled back may never be known. Deep in enemy territory, Prevost had not been in contact with Fuser, whose coastal force he depended on for supplies. Additionally, Col. Prevost was aware that the anticipated arrival of the British force had not occurred, and he knew that there would be additional troops available the closer his position was to Savannah. After consideration, Prevost withdrew.

On November 25, 1778, Col. Fuser finally made shore at Sunbury. His force of 500 Regular British troops were opposed by a force of about 200 Patriots at Fort Morris under the command of John McIntosh. When Col. Fuser demanded the surrender of the fort, McIntosh replied, "Come and take it." Fuser, reasoning along the same lines as Prevost, decided the prudent action was to withdraw. The first British invasion of Georgia was over.

Being a prisoner of war changed British Lt. Colonel Archibald Campbell. He was deeply concerned for the men who had been captured by the Patriots. He worked with the future President of the United States in Congress Assembled Elias Boudinot to exchange more prisoners after his exchange for American hero Ethan Allen. When Henry Clinton accepted the plan of South Carolina Loyalist Henry Kirkland to successfully occupy the southern colonies, he put Col. Campbell in charge of a force of some 3,500 men who set sail in September, 1778.

Campbell arrived at Tybee Island (after some serious problems with weather) on December 23 and came ashore without any resistance. After questioning two islanders, he surmised that the force in Savannah could easily be defeated, even without the support of his new commander, Augustine Prevost in British East Florida. With the arrival of the final ship on December 27, Campbell was prepared to take Savannah. He ordered his men to sail up the Savannah River to a plantation landing, then began to advance on what was a poorly formed perimeter.

General Howe had deployed his 670+ men in a semi-circle facing west along the road east of Savannah. It was anchored on the north by swamp spreading south of the road on easily defended rolling hills and looping back. Howe fortified his right (the southern end of his defensive line) so Campbell decided to attack from the north. According to Campbell, a group of Highlanders advanced along a road through the swamp and came out behind the Patriot line. Howe's left flank crumbled as British troops launched a broad-based attack against the seriously weakened line.

Soon, the Patriots were fleeing from Campbell's superior force. Escape was difficult because recent rains made crossing streams difficult. Campbell occupied Savannah, then set out to capture the other major towns in Georgia, specifically Ebenezer (January 2, 1779) and Augusta (January 30, 1779). Augusta was defended by a group of Whig militia under the command of Samuel Elbert. Opposed by Lt. Col. Thomas Brown, an Augusta Loyalist at the head of the Florida Rangers and British Regulars under the command of Campbell, Elbert's men engaged British forces in three firefights, McBean's Creek, Spirit Creek and Cupboard Swamp, as the Patriots fell back into Augusta. By this time Elbert realized he was facing a greatly superior force and withdrew to the South Carolina side of the Savannah River to join forces with Patriot Militia leader Andrew Williamson. Augustine Prevost captured Fort Morris on January 10, 1779, after a four day siege. With the help of the Creek Indians to the west, most of Georgia was now under British control.

Georgia Fights Back

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

With the fall of Augusta, Britain controlled all of coastal Georgia and inland up the Savannah River to the Tugaloo. West of Gaughton (south of present-day Louisville) the Creek, who for

the most part had aligned themselves with the British, controlled the land and to the north the Cherokee Nation kept the Patriots confined to a small area of east central Georgia. From Heard's Fort they formed a government, mostly as a show of continuity and to communicate with the other American governments.

In early [1779](#) things looked bleak for United States. Not only had Georgia fallen into the hands of the British, both Philadelphia, the young nation's capitol, and New York had also fallen. The largest cities remaining under the control of the rebellious Americans were Baltimore and Boston. The British Indian agents had done a remarkable job of uniting widely varied tribes such as the Mohawk and the Creek against the Americans. Against this backdrop of near total domination, the backbone of the Patriots did not break.

France had agreed to join the Americans in [1778](#). As the War entered its fourth year the British became increasingly alarmed at the cost, and the fact that it might fuel a larger conflict. American leader and General George Washington knew we did not really have to win battles, just the war, and time was on our side. Still, the Georgia Patriots realized a few wins could go a long way to helping the American people resolve to defeat British tyranny, stanch the flow of American farmers into the Loyalist militia and to prove that the state of Georgia was not completely under British control as the oppressors had been claiming. Outnumbered and deeply concerned about Loyalist spies, Georgia turned and fought.

Coming to the aid of Georgia, a group of South Carolinians under the command of **Andrew Pickens**, who joined two seasoned Georgia heroes, Col. **Elijah Clarke** and Col. **John Dooly**, west of **Augusta**. As the British began to probe the backcountry from their position in Augusta the Americans began to offer resistance where possible. On [February 11](#), 1779, 100 Americans launched an attack against Loyalist militia numbering 750 men under the command of Colonel **James Boyd** as he crossed Vann's Creek. It was a bold statement, warning Boyd to expect the unexpected and slowed the British backcountry advance significantly.

On [February 13](#) this force made camp in a ravine along **Kettle Creek**, about 13 miles south of **Washington (Wilkes County)**. Boyd posted guards at the top of the ravine, with a line of skirmishers behind the guards. Scavengers were scouring the countryside for food as 340 Americans launched a three-prong offensive against the Loyalist militia of superior numbers (Dooly on the right, Clark on the left and Pickens in the center). Pickens' advanced line stumbled on Boyd's pickets and opened fire. Boyd rallies his Loyalists, who climb from the ravine and take a position in rocks near the skirmishers.

Both Dooly and Clarke were having problems getting into position. Hampered by cane breaks and swampy ground, their advance was very slow. Meanwhile, Pickens' troops began slowly falling to the Loyalist fire at the top of the hill. The Patriots were losing the battle. Then an American shot mortally wounded the British commander, causing panic among the Loyalist militia, who pulled back in a disorderly manner to the camp in the ravine. As Pickens men gained the high ground above the camp and began to fire from above, the Loyalists realize their mistake and try to escape by crossing Kettle Creek.

Just as the forward Loyalist line made it to the far side of Kettle Creek Dooly's men break into the open and started firing. The Loyalists began a second retreat, more disorderly than the first. Suddenly, Clarke's men join the fray and disorder turns into rout. Of the 750 Loyalist troops, probably 70 die at Kettle Creek and another 70 are taken prisoner. Only 9 Patriots are killed. "Kettle Creek was the severest chastisement" of the British troops in either Georgia or South Carolina, according to General Pickens. Historian Richard Irby calls Kettle Creek "**Georgia's favorite battle.**"

Boyd's defeat at Kettle Creek was not the only victory for the rebellious Americans that day. General John Ashe had a 1,200 strong North Carolina Whig militia forming on the high ground north and east of Colonel Archibald Campbell's position in Augusta. The appearance of a significant force forced Col. Campbell to re-evaluate the wisdom of his advance to Augusta and realizing his error, withdrew to the southeast. Patriots re-occupied the city without British opposition and limited Loyalist resistance.

The British loss of Augusta was a demonstration of the British arrogance that would cost them the war. Campbell had been sent south to liberate the British subjects who were strong in the Georgia and South Carolina backcountry. Add in the Creek Indians and a remarkable force could be formed. Combined British Regulars, Tory Militia and Native Americans could control all of Georgia with, according to Governor Wright, 5,000 men. While it would take a significant amount of time, the British were going to find out it wasn't going to be that easy.

Campbell's orderly withdrawal and retreat left the backcountry free from British rule. To block the advance of any troops, **General Ashe** established a camp along Briar Creek, north of the northernmost British position. Here Ashe's men waited for any sizable opposing force. The force showed up on [March 3, 1779](#), ready to fight. Unfortunately, Ashe's men were not prepared and the element of surprise cost them the battle.

As Lt. Colonel (James) Mark Prevost advanced toward the Colonial camp, Ashe's North Carolina militia, which did not have time to draw munitions, retreated in a disorderly manner. Then, Colonel Samuel Elbert and his Georgians formed a line, in part in an attempt to halt the British advance, in part to protect the rear of the North Carolina militia rapidly fleeing the battle. The British opened fire and in less than 15 minutes nearly all the Georgians were dead. One of the few survivors -- Col. Elbert himself. Col. Prevost would be named to the position of acting governor of Georgia the following day. One of Prevost's first missions was to ensure peace with the Creeks to the west; British Indian Agent John Stuart was very sick.

On [March 14](#) Stuart died after a long illness. He had been key in uniting the Creek against the Americans. With Stuart gone, the English were no longer assured of the support of the Creek, although Emistago, the highest chief, did support the English. In July royal governor James Wright returned to Georgia. He relieved Lt. Col. Prevost, who had been military governor of the state. The Americans were already planing the siege of Savannah.



Georgia in 1763

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

Americans, backed by seasoned British troops, won the **French and Indian War** in [1762](#) when both Spain and France decided that they could no longer continue the fight. Although hostilities had ended in November a peace treaty was finally negotiated on [February 10, 1763](#). The treaty reduced Georgia's western boundary from the Pacific Ocean to the Mississippi River. Georgia was elated about a provision of the Treaty that ceded Spanish Florida to England. Finally, the Spanish problem had been solved.

The high cost of fighting in America and abroad (where the conflict is known as **The Seven Years War**) changed the way both Parliament and King George III viewed the colonies. The English expected the burgeoning colonies to pay their own way. Colonists expected the English Army to disband (normal at the time), but the king had other ideas. He intended to maintain, at the colonists expense, the largest standing peacetime army in history.

At the time England had a national debt of more than 100 million dollars. Although most of this resulted from almost continuous warring over the previous 20 years, some could be attributed to the role England played in the colonization of America. George issued the *Proclamation of 1763*, limiting the western expansion of the colonies to an arbitrary line at the height of the Appalachian Mountains.



Intended to save England the cost of protecting settlers who had moved further west than the line established by the Proclamation, it actually went much further than creating this arbitrary line. It recognized the right of Native Americans to own land, changing the legal relationship between settlers and Indians.

For the first 27 years of its existence Georgia had not prospered, first under the rule of the [trustees](#), then under two previous royal governors. In 1760 James Wright became governor and under his pro-growth policies the economy of Georgia blossomed. Wright himself prospered; he was one of the largest planters in the state by the time of the Revolution.

Georgia was significantly different than the other colonies. The state did not have the political infrastructure that had developed over the last century in Virginia, for example. Georgia had the smallest population of the 13 colonies and did not require the overhead of local governments.

Parishes (7 were formed in 1757, another 5 in 1765) were not administrative bodies as today's counties are, they were more a part of the religious and military organization.

The Treaty of 1763 with the [Creek](#), signed in Augusta ([Augusta timeline](#)), ceded land that almost tripled the size of the state. After the secession Georgia controlled the entire coast and the Savannah River inland to Fort Augusta.

Over the next 7 years the British passed a [series of acts](#) to tax the colonies. These acts will do little besides inflaming the colonists to action.

Right: King George in a lesser known print from the 1850's and a signature from a royal document.

Georgia joins the Continental Congress

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

The **First Continental Congress** ended on [November 9, 1774](#), passing articles that would strengthen the colonial impact on Mother England. The **South Carolina** representatives agreed to accept personal responsibility for Georgia joining the other colonies and abiding by the decisions made by the body. Royal Governor **James Wright** knew of South Carolina's promise and decided it would be prudent to wait until [1775](#) to hold the next Assembly. In the interim, **St. Andrews** parish and **St. Johns** Parish voted to join the **Continental Association**.

Slowly, individual parishes began to realize that joining the continental association by adopting the articles was better for them than not joining and each parish began the movement towards Revolution. The **Scots** in **Darien** were adamantly against the English. Their charismatic leader, **Lachlan McIntosh**, spoke eloquently, evoking the bitter hatred between the two Old World neighbors. Other radicals joined in the increasingly harmonious voice of Georgia. At this point, however, that voice probably did not yet represent a majority of Georgians. Men like **Elijah Clarke**, **William Few** and **George Wells** signed a petition from Augusta stating that they disagreed with the course being taken by the Radicals.



From the "**committee of thirty**" came a call for a provincial congress to coincide with the Assembly meeting, both in **Savannah**. Word came from **St. Andrew's Parish** (Darien) that the Scots had joined the Continental Association on [January 12](#) and would send delegates to the provincial congress, set to begin the day after the Lower House was called to order. Included in a statement by Lachlan McIntosh was a call for the manumission (freeing) of all slaves, calling the practice an "unnatural act."

On [January 17, 1775](#) the **Georgia Assembly** was called to order. Governor Wright made an opening address in which he appealed for the members of both the Commons House and the Upper House to act as elected representatives and not as radicals. The governor's plea did little good. Quickly the Upper and Lower

Houses were in conference on preserving American rights as British subjects.

Unfortunately, the provincial congress that started the following day did not go well. Only five parishes sent representatives and the men from **St. Johns Parish (Midway)** wanted the congress to adopt the resolutions of the **Continental Association** before they were seated. The provincial congress did adopt the articles passed by the **First Continental Congress**, although they created some exceptions to them. A non-consumption clause was completely ignored by the state and Georgia did not end trade with colonies who traded with Britain, however, it was the Indian trade that created the most problems -- Georgia exempted virtually everything that could be traded with the Indians from this agreement. These were to become effective on [March 15, 1775](#). They also elected **Noble W. Jones**, **Archibald Bulloch** and **John Houstoun** to represent the colony in the **Second Continental Congress**. Before the congress adjourned it turned its resolutions to the assembly for approval.

Georgia was fearful of the [Creek](#) and [Cherokee](#) Indians on its frontier. This was made all the worse by the powerful British agents who continued to befriend them. One that concerned them in particular was **John Stuart**, a British agent to the **Creek Nation**. Once working to stabilize the situation on the frontier, these agents could easily cause serious problems for Georgia. Many felt that by maintaining a supply of trade goods the Creek and Cherokee would not side with the British agents to the west.

Since it did not enthusiastically endorse the articles of the **Continental Association**, the provincial congress is regarded as a dismal failure. Regardless, **Governor James Wright** did not want the Assembly to consider the resolutions, but rather than dissolve the Assembly he merely put it on hold. This marked the last meeting of this body of government.

St. John's Parish again selected [Lyman Hall](#) to represent them in the Second Continental Congress. The parish, though, was having a tough time maintaining its rebellious stance without the support of the other parishes. It had tried, to no avail, to become a parish in South Carolina. Then it considered cutting off trade with the rest of Georgia, but quickly realized that this course of action would be self-destructive.

Meeting in Philadelphia starting on [May 10, 1775](#), the **Second Continental Congress** did not feel that Georgia had acted in good faith regarding trade with Britain and her trading partners. The Congress decided to cut off trade with the youngest colony. On the day the congress was seated disturbing news came from the north. A band of patriots had taken a stand on **Breed's Hill in Lexington, Massachusetts** against the most powerful army in the world and fired "**a shot heard 'round the world.**"

The month of June, 1775 became pivotal to the colony of Georgia. Munitions were being stockpiled, taken from city magazines. Cannon, which the patriots could not carry away, were spiked. Supplies were sent to the besieged patriots in Boston. And there were meetings. Lots of meetings. Among the bodies that were established to move Georgia towards open revolt was a general committee known as the Council of Safety. Elected the first leader of the council was Archibald Bulloch. [George Walton](#) was selected secretary.

Things had begun to deteriorate in the eyes of Wright. He requested additional troops and more boats on [June 27, 1775](#), to protect the loyalists in the colony. These letters were opened under the auspices of the South Carolina Committee of Correspondence and forged documents were sent in their place saying that everything was under control.

On [July 4, 1775](#) the state of Georgia held its second provincial congress, and it was significantly different than the first. Held in the Long Room of **Peter Tondee's tavern**, the congress was called to order with 102 delegates from 10 parishes. Only **St. Patrick** and **St. James** were not represented. Most of the delegates were from the so-called **American Rights** party and these men were called **Whigs** or "**Patriots**." Opposing them were those loyal to the king or **Loyalists**. These men were also called **Tories**.

Calvinist minister [John J. Zubly](#) preached a sermon at the opening call, "**The Law of Liberty**." The title comes from James 2:12. The sermon was filled with viewpoints of many of the philosophers of the **Enlightenment**, including **Voltaire** and **Locke**. However, Zubly made it clear that he felt the monarchy was the best form of government. He did encourage the men of the provincial congress to insist on their rights under law, but discouraged separation.

On [July 6, 1775](#) the Second Provincial Congress accepted the provisions of the Continental Association. The following day the congress elected five men to represent the state at the Second Continental Congress:

- [John Zubly](#)
- John Houstoun
- Archibald Bulloch
- Noble W. Jones
- [Lyman Hall](#)

Hall, the Radical leader of **St. John's** parish, who led the attempt to leave the colony of Georgia and join South Carolina, was already in **Philadelphia** at the congress.

Finally, as the provincial congress was wrapping up, a set of resolutions were published. These claimed for Americans the rights of all British subjects and included the threat of separation (Independence) if these rights were not granted.

Radicals gain power

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

By the time the next significant event occurred in Georgia (a meeting of the Radicals at Tondee's Tavern on [July 24, 1774](#)), much had happened to the north. "Tea parties" occurred up the entire coast of the United States. The closest port to Georgia that had one was **Charleston, South Carolina**, mostly because **Savannah** had never been much of a port for tea, and Georgia was not of the radical mind set that had been achieved in the other colonies. By far the largest, both in the number of men participating and the amount of tea disposed of, was in **Boston Harbor**.

It wasn't long after finding out about these treasonous acts that Parliament passed a series of laws that colonists quickly dubbed the "**Intolerable Acts**" in the Spring of [1774](#). These laws closed Boston Harbor until the tea dumped overboard had been paid for, disbanded the **Massachusetts Assembly**, withdrew the right of British officials being tried in America, restated the **Quartering Act** to include inhabited buildings and extended the borders of **Canada** to include portions of land claimed by **Massachusetts**, **Connecticut** and **Virginia**.

It was a meeting in **South Carolina** on [July 6, 1774](#) that sparked the Georgia radicals into action. At this meeting the South Carolinians elected representatives to the First Continental Congress to be held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania in October. On [July 14, 1774](#) John Houstoun, [George Walton](#), Archibald Bulloch and Noble W. Jones published a broadside that invited their fellow Georgians to a meeting to be held at Peter Tondee's tavern on [July 27](#).

The people at the meeting represented a small but growing group who were fed up with what they saw as the British government's refusal to listen to the valid complaints of the king's subjects. They were mostly local businessmen, elitist politicians, and wealthy planters. The planters were the only people who traveled any distance to the meeting.

Although the radicals were gaining a footing in Georgia, they were far from a majority. Georgia's main interests appear to be maintaining a strong deployment of British troops to protect their frontier, importing trade goods for the [Creek](#) and [Cherokee](#) Nations along that frontier, while staying radical enough to keep South Carolina from completely cutting off trade with them.

On [August 10, 1774](#) a follow-up meeting occurred that was somewhat more organized than the [July 24](#) meeting. Each parish had representatives at this meeting and the eight resolutions that the committee adopted were pretty predictable, given the nature of the earlier meeting. Each of the Intolerable Acts were addressed, with this "**committee of thirty**" objecting to each them for restricting their rights as Englishmen. This meeting also established that any 11 members of the group could organize to correspond with other colonies on an official basis.

The committee of correspondence was an important means of communication in the early days of the Revolution. It gave power to smaller or incomplete groups to make decisions affecting the entire group. Needless to say, the men to whom this power was given were carefully chosen.

In spite of the committee passing these resolutions it did not vote to send representatives to the **First Continental Congress**. No record exists as to the debate that occurred surrounding this event, however, it is known that **Lyman Hall**, who attended the August 10th meeting, strongly supported sending delegates. He did not succeed in convincing others.

Instead, he returned to **Midway** where he worked to convince members from each parish that Georgia must send delegates to the convention. In the end, four parishes (**St. Andrew**, **St. David**, **St. John** and **St. George**) agreed to send delegates, and selected Hall to represent them. Since only 4 parishes were in agreement with the radicals, Hall did not feel he could attend because a majority of the state's parishes had not participated.

As a result of this the colony of Georgia remained the only one of the original colonies not to be represented at Carpenter's Hall in Philadelphia in September, 1774, site of the **First Continental Congress**.

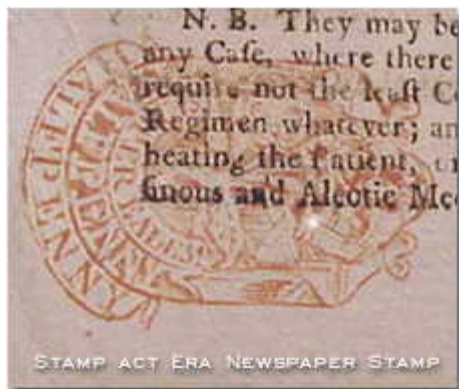
Sugar Act; Stamp Act

By **Randy Golden**

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

When enacted in May, [1764](#), the **Sugar Act** (Revenue Act of 1764) was intended to raise revenue to repay England's national debt. Although the act is frequently compared to the unenforced **Molasses Act of 1733**, the Sugar Act imposed duties on a number of goods including molasses and other forms of sugar, textiles and dye, coffee, and wines. The duty on molasses, a key ingredient in rum and one of the more important products that the colonists used, was actually cut in half under the **Sugar Act**. The difference was that England intended to strictly enforce the new duties.

The tall coastal pines of Georgia yielded lumber, which had become a major export of the colony by 1754. One major consumer of Georgia lumber was the Caribbean Islands, whose molasses exports help pay for the lumber. When the **Sugar Act** was passed Georgians were concerned about the sale of lumber to customers in the Caribbean who would be using money gotten from the export of molasses to pay for the lumber. Georgia was also concerned because they might not be able to adhere to the strict shipping requirements of the act. Georgians protested the act in England on strictly economic terms, unlike the other colonies who protested the levy of a tax without approval of those being taxed.



The **Stamp Act of 1765** (passed [March 22, 1765](#)) brought the first true rift between loyalist and colonist in Georgia. England sees the colonies as a part of the mother country, populated by Englishmen, and Parliament serves all Englishmen, whether they live in England or America. Colonists, especially the educated and the coastal wealthy, see a mother country out of control. Heady from the defeat of the Spanish and French, and recognized as the preeminent world power, the colonists see an England that begins to extract more from the colonies abroad and less from English at home. And the fact that the colonists, as loyal Englishmen, no longer enjoy the privilege of electing members of Parliament does not sit well with many men. Most colonists and many others around the world view King George III as incapable.

Massachusetts took the lead in organizing resistance to the act, calling for a **Stamp Act Congress** of the colonial governments. When word reached Georgia, **Alexander Wylly** called the members of the Commons House to Savannah. **Governor Wright** refused to call the session to order so no official action could be taken, however, with the consensus of the members an

unofficial document of support including a commitment to back any action taken was forwarded to the Stamp Act Congress.

[November 1, 1765](#) was the date set for the **Stamp Act** to go into effect, but with no instruction from England, Wright turned to his council for advice. They recommended holding up all land grants and warrants, but permitting ships to pass (ships would need stamped papers to enter or leave port). On [November 5](#) the **Sons of Liberty** met at **MacHenry's Tavern** in **Savannah**, plotting their course of action should a stampmaster arrive.

In December the Commons House convened and issued to the king and others the documents recommended by the **Stamp Act Congress**, fulfilling the House's pledge to back any action taken by the congress. Then, on [January 2, 1766](#), a most unique meeting occurred at the gates of the Governor's Mansion in Savannah. A rowdy group of men, some of whom were **Sons of Liberty**, marched to the gate where they were greeted by -- the royal governor himself, alone (but armed with a pistol). After discussing the Stamp Act and his actions, he told them they needed to trust his decisions.

On [January 3](#) the royal stampmaster, Mr. **George Angus**, arrived below the port of Savannah and was immediately taken to Governor Wright's house. With his arrival the colony began to issue stamps as required by law. Some stamps were purchased, but in general Georgians had decided to "wait and see" if the act would be rescinded.

Wright decided the stamps, which no longer had buyers were not safe from the Liberty Boys in Savannah, so he moved them to [Fort George](#) on **Cockspur Island**, where they remained until the act was repealed. Parliament repealed of the act on [March 18, 1766](#), but they included an affirmation of their sovereignty. (Georgia was official notified of the repeal on [July 16, 1766](#)). **George Knox**, who acted as agent for Georgia on colonial matters in England wrote an article agreeing with the right of Parliament to levy taxes on the colonies. Knox was removed by the Commons House.

The First Florida Expedition

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

Britain had gained control of **Spanish Florida** in [1763](#) as a direct result of the French and Indian War. Like southern Georgia, most of the development was contained to the coastal areas at the northern end of the peninsula, so Britain created East and West Florida as independent royal governments. Since both were so new, neither had a political infrastructure, only a **royal governor** and a few officials. **Patrick Tonyn**, royal governor of East Florida was generally viewed as a capable leader. The lack of political infrastructure and sparse population meant neither colony was interested in joining in the Revolution.

The capital of East Florida was **St. Augustine**. It was not only the seat of British power in the colony, but the home town of **John Stuart**, British agent to the Creek Indians. Stuart's power was significantly more widespread than Tonyn's, for the [Creek Nation](#) that he had befriended spread across more than 10,000 square miles. To the Savannah-area Georgians and the Whigs of South Carolina, Stuart in St. Augustine was as much the target of the invasion as was Tonyn's

Florida Rangers. To the Whigs in South Georgia, it was really the Rangers who were the target of the expedition.

British East Florida had been increasing in population dramatically since the Whigs began to take power in Georgia in 1775. Unhappy Tories from throughout the Southeastern United States crossed the border, often seeking revenge on the Whigs who had taken their land by joining the Florida Rangers. Among the men who joined this group was **Germyn Wright**, brother of the former royal governor of Georgia James Wright.

Although these Rangers could be considered "loose-knit," they did have a command structure in place, and based on Tonlyn's letters, took orders from the governor. Individual units, however, seemed to be almost guerilla in style. Any organized battle against such individualistic frontiersmen would be extremely difficult. They never really had to worry about the force headed south from **Savannah**. In addition to the Rangers there was a garrison of British regulars at St. Augustine perhaps totaling 500 men.

Preparations for the first of three Florida expeditions began in mid-August, 1776. It was a study in poor planning, poor preparation, and even worse execution, especially compared to the successful raids of Captain William McIntosh earlier in August. The expedition also highlighted in the often raucous behavior between the **Continental Army** and the **Georgia Militia**.

Continental Commander Major General Charles Lee, the English-born son of an Irishman, had served in the British Army. This gave his ideas merit, although he was generally viewed as "eccentric" by Georgia's **Council of Safety**. Lee viewed the Georgians with contempt, unable to organize even the basic needs of an army, although he held individual officers in high regard.

Heading south from Savannah, the troops made it almost intact to Sunbury. From here, however, they began to run into problems. First and foremost of the problems was transportation. Lee had requested boats so the troops could plow the waters of coastal Georgia down to **Darien**, but the **Council of Safety** did not acquire enough of them for all the troops, so many of the men marched south in September.

Two forts were built as protection during the march. Fort Howe, built on the banks of the **Altamaha River** on the site of **Fort Barrington** and **Fort McIntosh**, built on the banks of the **Satilla River**. Both protected the major north-south route of the day, **The King's Road**.

Disease, combined with hot weather, increased the number of desertions as the Continental Army and Georgia Militia moved in force towards Florida. Once the troops moved south of the Altamaha River food became scarce because many of the residents had packed up and headed



Major General Charles Lee, who would be court-martialed for ordering a retreat at Monmouth for no apparent reason.

north to safety. Then word reached the men that backcountry Georgia was under attack by the **Chickamauga Cherokee**, and the **Creek Indians** were moving to support the British garrison at St. Augustine. The attack by the Cherokee was the work of **John Stuart**, who inspired the Chickamaugas.

In spite of all these problems, a small group of the combined armies did reach the Florida border, only to be betrayed by Loyalists within their ranks. **Captain John Baker**, who was in command of the detachment, was forced to retreat for lack of supplies and transportation. All troops, Continental and Militia, had returned to their respective bases of operations by **December, 1776**.

One of the legacies of the First Florida Expedition were the [forts](#) built by the troops. Included in these forts were **Beard's Bluff**, McIntosh and Howe, a defensive perimeter for the settlers.

The Second Florida Expedition

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

It had not been very long after the First Florida Expedition that the Florida Rangers returned to raiding Georgia south of the Altamaha. A group of these Rangers, along with a contingent of British Regulars moved deep into Georgia territory -- the Satilla River. The militia had built Fort McIntosh during the First Florida Expedition along the Satilla as a staging area to reach the Florida border. Captain Robert Winn tried to hold the larger force off for two days, but finally he surrendered his post on February 18, 1777.

With the assumption of power by [Button Gwinnett](#), the Florida issue became the driving force in Georgia politics. East (and West) Florida worried him. For months, a string of Tories from Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina and Virginia, made their way to the only British outpost in the South, East Florida. They brought with them weapons, food, and people, exactly what Gwinnett, and almost all the rest of Georgia did not want the British to the south to have. Reports from credible witnesses also had both the [Creek](#) and [Cherokee](#) siding with the British, reinforcing the garrison at St. Augustine and providing intelligence, especially about both southern coastal Georgia and the lightly populated backcountry.

March was to be a month where the expedition moved forward, but two incidents almost destroyed it. First, General Robert Howe left without committing any troops to Gwinnett, although he did leave a battalion of men in Sunbury, and George McIntosh, Lachlan's brother and a member of the Council of Safety, was charged with treason. An intercepted letter from East Florida Royal Governor Patrick Tonyn indicated that George was sympathetic to the loyalist cause. Gwinnett ordered George's arrest, and the rift between Gwinnett and Lachlan McIntosh grew that much wider. George McIntosh would be freed later, when Gwinnett was absent from a meeting of the Council of Safety.

Finally, on March 27, 1777, Gwinnett informed McIntosh of his plans and asked for his help. McIntosh realized that the only reason Gwinnett had told him anything about the planned expedition was because the Georgia recruitment had failed miserably. In fact, without McIntosh

the Second Florida Expedition would have less than 200 men. McIntosh agreed to join the expedition, raising the total men to 600-800.

By the time The Second Florida Expedition was ready to leave in early April, East Florida governor Patrick Tonyn was already preparing the battleground. He had known of the expedition shortly after it had been approved. Coastal settlers north of the St. Mary's were raided by Creek and Cherokee Indians who had been rallied by British Indian Agent John Stuart. These attacks had one major goal: Food would be a requirement for the troops as they moved south; by burning the crops, Tonyn would increase the time it would take to get to Florida, thus increasing the chance of the mission failing.

Heading south from Savannah, McIntosh and Gwinnett repeatedly fought, mostly over Brigadier General McIntosh's failure to listen to President Gwinnett. Gwinnett held no military position, had no military training and little idea as to how to run an army, and Lachlan was chosen as the leader of the expedition, a fact that Gwinnett strongly resented. The fighting bordered on childishness, so when the expedition reached Sunbury orders were waiting for both men to return to Savannah and leave command of the land troops to Colonel Samuel Elbert.

Gwinnett had actually been losing two battles during the start of the Second Florida Expedition. On May 8, Austrian-born John Adam Truetlen became the first person to hold the title "governor of Georgia." He had been elected under the [state constitution](#) ratified on Feb. 5, 1777.

Tensions between Button and Lachlan did not subside, and after being called back to Savannah by the Council of Safety, Gwinnett tried to blame the expedition's problems on McIntosh. In the General Assembly (combined meeting of the Georgia House and Senate) on May 1, 1777, McIntosh rose and called Gwinnett a "scoundrel" and "liar", strong words at the time. Gwinnett challenged him to a duel, the normal response to such charges. On May 16, 1777 they met in Governor Wright's meadow in Thunderbolt, southeast of Savannah. McIntosh mortally wounded Gwinnett, who died three days later Gwinnett.

Meanwhile, Elbert advanced from Sunbury with his men. He divided them into two groups, putting Colonel John Baker in charge of the land-based advance while he took the rest of the men aboard seven vessels to plow the coastal waters to the St. Mary River. Baker arrived first, at a site on the St. John's River and made camp on May 12, and immediately began to prepare for Elbert's arrival.

Moving up the St. John's, a force of some 400 British regulars and Florida Rangers made camp not far from Colonel Baker. Thomas Brown, leading a combined force of the Florida Rangers and Creek Indians detached from the regular British infantry under the command of Major James Mark Prevost. Moving further inland in search of Baker's mounted Georgia militia, they found them about 12 miles inland along the St. John's. Brown ordered a small detachment of Creek Indians to steal the militia's horses. The attack was a limited success - a band of some 10-15 Indians made off with Baker's horses, which his men recovered. During this battle, according to a British source, the Americans killed a Creek and mutilated his body.

The Georgia militia, however, decided that if a small band of Creek were willing to be so bold, there must be a significant force of Rangers, maybe even some Regulars, behind them. Having waited a week for Colonel Elbert without a sign of his approach, and a body of troops, strength unknown, inside enemy territory, the Georgians opted to leave.

Unfortunately, this is exactly what Thomas Brown expected. He had strategically placed his men across the road that Col. Baker would use to return to Georgia. As the militia headed north they ran into some of Brown's Rangers. Baker ordered his men to dismount and return fire. Suddenly, Rangers and Indians appeared on the flanks and the militia line broke towards the rear, running headlong into Provost's Regulars. Fortunately, the Georgians were good horsemen and avoided a complete disaster, but the force was scattered. Some forty men were captured or surrendered, 24 of these were massacred by the Creek, according to a British officer.

One of the items recovered by the British were a complete set of plans for the invasion of Florida. It really didn't matter. Col. Samuel Elbert and his men were in no condition to fight. On the boats south they had been stricken by disease and decided to wait for Baker's men to meet them at Amelia Island. Baker's men straggled in. On May 25th the combined forces withdrew, arriving in Savannah on June 15. The Second Florida Expedition a complete failure.

The Third Florida Expedition

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

With the return of the Second Florida Expedition to Savannah, the Florida Rangers resumed their activities, more aggressive than ever. East Florida Royal Governor Patrick Tonyn reported at one point that the Rangers were within five miles of Savannah and had actually entered the city of Augusta. They now controlled the area south of the Altamaha River, and could raid as far north as the Ogeechee River without retaliation.

In Savannah the bitter factionalism of the past few months grew worse as the friends of Button Gwinnett tried to prove that Lachlan McIntosh was responsible for his murder. McIntosh had been cleared in the death of Gwinnett. Powerful friends of Gwinnett seemed destined to cause serious problems for McIntosh and his supporters, were it not for John Wreath. Realizing that the factionalism being created by Gwinnett supporters might cause problems for the state, Wreath asked that George Walton use his influence to have McIntosh reassigned. Walton did not waste time; he personally requested McIntosh's transfer.

On August 6, 1777 Lachlan McIntosh was ordered to report to General Washington, before a vote in the General Assembly on a petition to censure General McIntosh. He left Georgia on October 7, 1777, heading for Valley Forge. Over the duration of the war McIntosh would prove himself to be an able and responsible commander, and a man who served with honor and courage. As the New Year approached the rift between the Gwinnett forces and the McIntosh forces subsided.

Preparation for the Third Florida Expedition technically began on January 29, 1778, with the formal notification of Southern Department commander General Robert Howe by the Georgia

legislature that plans for the project should progress. Howe brought the plans under scrutiny and pointed out that the militia's might not be a good idea since the attack would come as the men were most needed back on the farm. The assembly considered Howe's statement as disrespectful. After further discussions the assembly would request that Howe be reported for insubordination.

During the winter the Florida Rangers won an easy victory at Fort Howe on the Altamaha River. Established as Fort Barrington in the 1730's as a defense against the Spanish and Creek Indians, it had been renamed to Fort Howe to honor the commander of the Southern Department, General Robert Howe. On [March 12, 1778](#), Florida Rangers under the command of Thomas Brown advanced under cover of night and stormed the fortifications before sunrise. Caught completely off-guard the men were forced to surrender. Brown, engaging a force of equal strength in a fortified position, 50 miles behind enemy lines won a decisive victory!

This 50 miles may not seem like much today, but the victory gave the Florida Rangers a vital link to Tories in South Carolina and an advanced position by which the Rangers could raid developed areas in the northern part of the state. Although the Georgia militia could be counted on stopping large groups of Tories, they were virtually ineffective against the smaller groups. Now even large groups could travel the backcountry unopposed. Against the curtain of near anarchy in the backcountry, preparations for the Third Florida Expedition continued. Finally, as word arrived of a large force of Whig Georgians making their way to Fort Howe, the Florida Rangers burned the fort and left.

It doesn't seem possible, but as the Third Florida Expedition headed south from Sunbury it was more fractious than either of the previous expeditions. Instead of one or two leaders, this expedition claimed four individual leaders without an established chain of command. Leading the Continentals was General Robert Howe. Commodore Oliver Bowen led a small fleet of boats that plowed the coastal waters. Governor John Houstoun was the de facto head of the Georgia militia, while Colonel Pinckney commanded the South Carolina militia.

Things were not that much better in Florida. Governor Patrick Tonyn and General Prevost were fighting each other over control of Thomas Brown and his Florida Rangers. Prevost, whose Regulars had been in a supporting role for Brown's Rangers withdrew in mid-April. Brown would have to fight the force advancing from Georgia on his own. To help the Rangers do this Governor Tonyn called on the Creek Indians, who were less than responsive to his plea.

After making camp along the King's Road near recently destroyed Fort Howe, the combined forces began to move south. Bowen and his naval force moved south from Sunbury. The army reached the Satilla River on June 17, 1778, where they apparently unwittingly, came upon a group of Brown's Rangers and Creek Indians. From a captured Ranger they learned that Brown's men were well-supplied and numbered in the hundreds. On June 28 the force began to cross the St. Mary's River. Brown's men, who were well aware of the approaching force, burned Fort Tonyn. Now the Florida Rangers began to fight a guerilla war.

Skirmishing occurred on June 29th and 30th on the flanks of the advancing Whigs. Then, on July 1st, a significant force of British Regulars surprised a group of Americans that were, essentially, rear echelon support. This was the biggest battle of the Third Florida Expedition. As the days

wore on the food ran out and expected relief never showed up. Over a period of days in the middle of July the Whig forces began the long trip back to Savannah.

The House Dissolved

By **Randy Golden**

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

On [November 10, 1763](#), [Creek Indians](#) ceded to the colony of Georgia the coastal land between the Altamaha and St. Mary's. In [1765](#) Georgia created four parishes from this new land, and by 1768 the population had increased to the point where the Lower House felt they needed to be represented. On [November 15, 1769](#) the Lower House requested **Royal Governor James Wright** to order elections in the parishes.

Wright had to refuse. He did not have permission to increase the number of representatives; in fact, he had orders not to increase these numbers. So the legislature tried to use the taxation ploy to get the representatives. They claimed that unless the parishes were represented in the Lower House they could not tax them, in spite of the fact that the House had been taxing them for years without representation.

In the end, the Lower House passed the tax bill but exempted the new counties. Then during the October, [1770](#), session no tax bill was passed, and the House informed Governor Wright that no bill would be passed. The state would not have any money with which to do business. Additionally, the house wanted to swear in a witness, who refused to take the oath. These two impasses led the governor to dissolve the assembly.

Early in [1771](#) writs for elections were finally issued. The newly elected House convened in April, 1771 and elected **Noble Wimberly Jones** as Speaker. Jones, who had been speaker the previous year when the House refused to act on the tax bill and was known to be sympathetic to the patriot cause, was rejected by Governor Wright. **Archibald Bulloch**, who was also known for his anti-British rhetoric, was elected in place of Jones. Wright did not object to this choice.

Unfortunately, the Lower House could not leave well enough alone. They decided to pass two measures, one thanking Jones for being "a true lover of his country." The other explicitly refused to accept the governor's actions as a precedent, calling Wright's dismissal of Jones a "high breach of privilege." Wright had no choice but to once again dissolve the assembly, since the wording of the measure was a slap at royal authority.

Precedent is important in both English and American law. When no law exists to make a decision, a judge can make a binding decision based on precedent.

In July, Wright left for an extended trip to England on business not related to his position as royal governor. **James Habersham**, who had been an early colonist, successful merchant and educator, and one of three who petitioned to allow slavery in Georgia, took the helm of office. His plan was to delay the next meeting of the Lower House until the furor died down from the last meeting.

When the Lower House was once again called into session on [April 12, 1772](#), they elected Noble Wimberly Jones as speaker once again. Habersham rejected the choice. After reelecting Jones two more times, Jones finally declined the election. At this point **Archibald Bulloch** was once again elected speaker. The choice was acceptable to Habersham, however, he directed the House to remove mention of the two elections of Jones after the disapproval. They refused and once again the House was dissolved.

In December, 1772 a new House once again tried to elect Jones as its speaker. This time Jones thanked the body but declined to serve. The second choice, **William Young** was acceptable to Habersham and for the first time in more than two years the body sat down to some serious work. In February, [1773](#) Wright returned from England to relative calm. At least for a while.

The Liberation of Georgia

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

As Cornwallis moved further from his base in the South, it became easier for guerillas to operate effectively. Colonel Isaac Shelby raided Georgia, killing some forty Loyalists. Colonel Thomas Brown and Colonel James Grierson, Loyalists in charge of Augusta, could not mount a retaliatory offensive against the agitators. Shelby, though, was not the Augusta commanders major problem.

Elijah Clarke reformed his brigade in the Spring of 1781 and joined with a group of South Carolina militia under the command of Micajah Williamson to invest the city of Augusta. If it seems that Clarke was obsessed with freeing Augusta he was. The city was an outpost connected to Savannah by the 80 mile River Road. The few British troops in the state remained in Savannah and Ebenezer, where they guarded vital outposts such as Hudson's Ferry on the River Road.

On May 20, 1781, Clarke and Williamson got welcome support from General Andrew Pickens, in command of a group of South Carolina militia and Lieutenant Colonel Henry "Light Horse Harry" Lee, who had learned tactical cavalry support under Casimir Pulaski. Colonel Lee commanded the first Continentals to make it to Georgia in a year and a half. A second group of Continentals, under the new Commander of the Southern Department Nathanael Greene was laying siege to Ninety Six not far from Augusta. Clarke and the other Georgia commanders were greatly relieved at Lee's arrival. On May 21, Lee and Pickens raid Fort Galphinton on Silver Bluff, securing a significant amount of British stores including munitions. On May 25 they took Fort Grierson, and on June 5 the patriots secured Augusta. Grierson, who had been so abusive to the upcountry Whigs, was killed after the surrender of the city.

Now that Augusta was freed Elijah Clarke decided to address a problem that had plagued [Wilkes County](#) for years. Living somewhere in the Cherokee Nation, a group of white men had been raiding the farms in the county since the British had taken the state, preying on the weakened conditions of the upland farmers. Clarke did not know exactly where these raiders were living, but he figured it had to be in the southeastern corner of the Nation. Joining with General Andrew Pickens just east of the Georgia-South Carolina border in extreme northwestern South Carolina (just east of [Traveler's Rest](#) in Georgia), they raided Tugaloo Old Town, Nachoochee Valley

(near [Helen, Georgia](#)) and headed west to Long Swamp Creek, the major settlement of the area. Here Clarke and Pickens engaged and defeated the [Cherokee](#), forcing them to surrender the men who had been raiding the white settlements and a large portion of land.

With the fall of Augusta the British concentrated their forces in Savannah. On [June 15](#) Greene reported that every major post on both sides of the Savannah River had been evacuated except for Ninety Six. This would be abandoned on [July 3, 1781](#), allowing both Georgia and South Carolina to claim control of most of their colonies for the first time in almost 2 years. Loyalists now fled to British areas, creating serious shortages in Savannah. The stage was set for the arrival of General Anthony Wayne.

Widely regarded as one of the best American general during the Revolution, Wayne joined George Washington at Valley Forge and fought in the battles of Brandywine, Paoli, and Germantown and led the American attack at Monmouth. After a supporting role in Cornwallis' surrender at Yorktown Wayne headed south to assist the patriots of Georgia. Although outnumbered two to one, Wayne soundly defeated his British opponents in Georgia, culminating what was one of the most brilliant campaigns of the Revolution.

From Yorktown, Wayne took 500 men south with orders to free Savannah. The hope was that with Savannah in American hands the British in Charleston would be forced to withdraw or surrender. Wayne faced three major problems: lack of naval support, the 1,000 British regulars stationed in Savannah, and the loss of Clarke, Pickens, and the Whig militia under their command.

Wayne's major advantage: Himself. During his initial engagement with British forces near Ebenezer, he aggressively attacked a British force of superior numbers that had been sent to probe his strength. These Regulars withdrew when Wayne positioned two groups with small arms as if they were trying to enfilade the British forces. Using tactics similar to those used by Nathan Bedford Forrest during the Civil War, Wayne fooled the garrison in Savannah, making them believe they were surrounded by a much larger force. He had black slaves working the perimeter of the British line, getting Hessians and some English to desert, all the while convincing the British of his numerical superiority. At Ebenezer, he maintained his position in spite of continued British probes and Creek attacks.

In March, when word of Creek Indians from the Altamaha traveling to Savannah reached General Wayne, he attacked the Ogeechee Bridge on the King's Road, defeating a small British force. When the Creek Indians arrived his men accepted the gifts they were bringing to the British in Savannah. These gifts included much needed food. Then on June 23, 1782, a band of some 100 Creek warriors Coming to the aid of the British trapped in Savannah attacked Wayne's line from the rear. Since these were seasoned Regulars, the line did not break as one might expect, but fought back, initially with return fire, then in hand-to-hand combat before reinforcements arrived. Unknown to Wayne at the time, his men killed the chief of the Creek tribes, Emistesigo.

Finally, after some five months under near-siege conditions the British withdrew, the Regulars and government to Charleston, the loyalist militia to Florida. Wayne deferred entering the town,

letting Lt. Col. James Jackson retake the town he had given up three years earlier. Almost as quickly as the British withdrew from Savannah Anthony Wayne was called to Charleston to support Nathanael Greene force. Greene was concerned that the additional troops from Savannah might encourage the besieged British to try an offensive maneuver. They did not.

Meanwhile, Jackson headed south along the Georgia, chasing the loyalists and a few British regulars towards St. Augustine. On July 25, 1782 Jackson encountered a small group of British Marines on Skidaway Island on the coast of Georgia. This is the last encounter of U.S. troops and British troops anywhere within the present-day boundaries of the state of Georgia. A small battle occurred in the vicinity of present-day Chattanooga that did involve farmers that lived within the current boundaries of the state. British agitated Chickamauga Cherokee led by Skyuka met a loose-knit band of settlers under the command of John Siever on the north face of Lookout Mountain. This is sometimes characterized as the last battle of the Revolution, but British agitated Indian-settler conflicts continued through November.

In September of 1779 the Spanish, who had joined the war on the American side, retook British West Florida. After the loss of Savannah the Spanish walked into St. Augustine and claimed the city with little resistance from the British. February, 1783, marked the official cession of hostilities and on September 3, 1783 the Treaty of Paris was signed, ending the Revolution. The 13 colonies had defeated the most powerful nation in the world.

The Siege and Battle of Savannah

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

On [July 22, 1779](#), royal governor James Wright returned to Savannah, charged with maintaining the peace. His first act was to roll back all laws to [1775](#), essentially ending the established revolutionary government and the state of Georgia, at least as far as the Loyalists were concerned. With him were an entire staff of supporters including a vice-governor and justice of the courts.

Major General Benjamin Lincoln, recently appointed Southern commander of the Continental Army, realized that the loss of Savannah was key and set out to regain the coastal Georgia port. His first task was to raise 5,000 men. Second, since raising a navy was out of the question, he tried to contact Admiral Valerie D'estaing, whose French fleet had been raiding British outposts in the Carribean Sea. D'estaing's naval support, comprised of some twenty-two line ships, about half that many support ships and 4,000 men was the only way to ensure that British ships could not arrive to supply and support the town.

While Lincoln was preparing his troops, Revolutionary Georgia continued its organization of a government in exile. From Heard's Fort (now abandoned, in Wilkes County) John Wreath was selected to head the executive branch of government. This was really a safety measure so that if the council could not form a quorum decisions could be made. Meanwhile, it was as if the loss of Savannah woke the American government to the danger of losing the South. Washington dispatched General Casimir Pulaski and his "Polish Legion" to the southern front. Pulaski had been busy rewriting the book on cavalry tactics and training American cavalry officers. The term

"Polish Legion" has all but been abandoned by modern historians because it is viewed as misleading.

Savannah proper lay on a low plateau, some 40 feet above the Savannah River. On both the left and right sides marshes created tough obstacles through which to advance. In front of the city a cleared plain of small rolling hills made it impossible for a large group of men to advance without being seen from the redoubts that encircled the city. These were the very reasons that James Oglethorpe chose the site in 1733. It was easily defended by a relatively small group of men against attacks by the Spanish or the Creek Indians. Defenses, in some cases dating back almost 50 years could be used by the British to protect themselves.

On September 1, 1779, D'estaing arrived east of Savannah. Had he been as bold as Lt. Col. Archibald Campbell had been less than a year earlier, he probably could have captured the city by himself. Instead, he formed a line and waited for the Continental Army. General Prevost also set to work on the city's defenses, ordering boats grounded along the bank of the river, then manned defensively. He also ordered a group of 800 men under the command of Col. John Maitland in Beaufort, South Carolina to hold their position, but be ready to advance in support of the city if needed.

Benjamin Lincoln left Charleston and joined General Lachlan McIntosh at Ebenezer. From here the Continental Army advanced and began to take position around the city on September 9. With the arrival of the opposing force, Governor James Wright ordered able-bodied men to assist in building Savannah's defenses. Both Lincoln and D'estaing knew that the siege would not be of long duration, for Britain would find out about the naval blockade and send enough ships to break through D'estaing's line. It was the belief of the American commanders that the British would surrender if their escape routes were cut.

Finally, on [September 16, 1779](#), General Lincoln and Commander D'estaing met at D'estaing's headquarters in Thunderbolt and work began on "completing the encirclement." Admiral D'estaing issued a surrender demand to General Augustine Prevost. As Prevost considered the demand (which he eventually rejected), his men worked feverishly on improving Savannah's defenses. The city of Savannah was fully invested on September 23, although Prevost did call for the troops from Beaufort, who apparently got through the Patriots with little difficulty.

Actual siege preparations were completed on September 23. For the next 2 weeks British troops, Loyalist Tories and Negro slaves continued to work on the defenses of Savannah while Benjamin Lincoln did little to improve his position. By October 4th no progress had been made towards a British surrender, so Admiral D'estaing moved his ships into position and began a naval bombardment of the city. This did not deter the British, who continued their task of improving the city's defenses. Finally Lincoln and D'estaing agreed to attack the British positions across a broad front on October 9th. Admiral D'estaing's plan called for five groups would move forward, concentrating on a salient in the British line at Spring Hill (present-day vicinity of Louisville Rd., MLK Boulevard and Liberty St., near the Savannah Visitor's Center), where a group of South Carolina militia appeared to be holding the line.

The day broke cool, with a morning breeze from the ocean. Some of the finest American officers were now involved including Lincoln, McIntosh, Count Casimir Pulaski, leader of the Polish Legion, and Lt. Col Francis "The Swamp Fox" Marion. Pulaski had earned his Brigadier star after the battle of Brandywine, where his combined cavalry and light infantry legion saved the Continental Army from disaster. General Pulaski and Col. Marion expressed strong disagreement with the plan proposed by Admiral D'estaing, but obeyed orders. As the five units attacked the British resistance stiffened. Still, Continental soldiers broke through the redoubt in at least two places near Spring Hill. As the Americans carried the wall of the redoubt, the colors were planted to show the soldiers the breach in the line. Suddenly, British Regulars under the command of Col. John Maitland (the reserves called up by General Prevost) advance and turn back the combined French and Continental Army.

Sgt. William Jasper, trying to rally his men to hold the line against the British grabbed the colors from the wall of the Spring Hill redoubt. He was struck and mortally wounded by British fire. The American line at the redoubt began to crumble under the intense pressure of Maitland's Regulars. General Pulaski, seeing the line pull back, rode up and tried to rally the men as well when he was mortally wounded by cannister. Pulaski and Jasper are carried back by retreating Americans, but the colors remained in British hands.

Pulaski was taken to *The Wasp* and was buried at sea on October 15, 1779. Both the American and the French remained in the area until October 16, when Lincoln began an orderly withdrawal to Charleston. D'estaing set sail for France over a two day period beginning October 19. Lt. Colonel John Maitland, who had advanced from Beaufort, South Carolina in support of General Augustine Prevost died on October 22, not the victim of the battle but because of disease.

The Townshend Acts:

Rebellion to the North

By Randy Golden

Exclusively for [Our Georgia History](#)

At the end of the [Stamp Act](#) crisis things seemed to quiet down in the American colonies, and Georgia in particular. Ministers, like [John J. Zubly](#), repeatedly spoke on political subjects and an active, well-organized **Sons of Liberty** group in Savannah bore watching. Further north, the New York Commons House had refused to comply with the **Quartering Act** (Mutiny Act of 1765), which made the colonies pay for "barracks necessities." New York City was the headquarters for the English Army in America, so the impact to New Yorkers would be greater than others. When Georgia requested troops, General Gage informed the state that no troops would be sent until the state agreed to pay for the troops in agreement with the act. The House finally gave in and appropriated money for the troops as a payment in lieu of barracks necessities.

As the rebellion to the North fermented, lawmakers in Georgia worked feverishly to deal with their most pressing internal problems. One of the more important things to be dealt with was allowing postmen free rides on ferries. The Upper House refused to pass a bill creating two ferries until the Common House permitted postmen to ride free. The lower house finally relented and passed the bill desired by the upper house.



Relative calm was broken in Georgia with the Townshend Acts. On [October 14, 1767](#) the duties imposed by the Townshend Acts were published in Georgia. The reaction was quick and predictably negative. **Charles Townshend**, who was Chancellor of the Exchequer (similar to our Secretary of the Treasury), felt that while the colonies would always oppose an internal tax, they would not oppose an external tax. Georgia's Lower House immediately voted to order its agent in London, **Benjamin Franklin**, to work for the repeal of these oppressive acts.

The Spring of 1768 brought new elections, and the Lower House once again elected **Alexander Wyly** as its leader. Governor **James Wright** had been ordered not to allow the House of Commons to consider the letters ("circulars") that had been issued by the legislatures further north. When it came time to end the session, however, the Lower House considered these letters, finding them "a proper exercise of the right to petition the throne." Wright dissolved the assembly.

Savannah businessmen and some nearby planters decided to act. On [September 12, 1769](#) a group known as the Amicable Society, which was headed by Jonathan Bryan ([Bryan County](#)) met at Liberty Hall. They appointed a committee to consider their options. On [September 19](#) the committee announced their proposals to a second meeting. These included:

John Hancock's sloop Liberty was seized in Boston Harbor in June, 1768.

1. Encourage local manufacturing
2. Raise sheep and discourage killing lambs
3. Raise and "manufacture" cotton and flax
4. Don't import English or European goods, with the exception of:
 - Cheap textiles, clothing, shoes and hose
 - Hardware and plantation tools
 - Hats
 - Paper
 - Firearms and ammunition
 - Mill and grindstones
 - Wool and cotton cards and wire
 - Items for the Indian trade
5. Discontinue the custom of giving gifts at funerals
6. Curtail slave trade
7. Do not buy wine
8. Do not buy from merchants who do not sign this pledge

The agreement was similar to one published in South Carolina, but Georgia exempted more goods. Jonathan Bryan, a member of the governor's council, lost his job for his involvement in this group.

Analysis:

To paint a picture of a Radical Georgia joining the colonies to her north is wrong. Georgia was not radical and the meeting of the **Savannah** businessmen and planters represented a small minority of the state. In fact, outside of Savannah there was little enthusiasm for what was happening in the city or the Lower House. Even many of the Savannah businessmen were supporting the measure because South Carolina was threatening to curtail trade the colony. This would have been a disaster for the Georgia businessmen.

There Comes a Reaper

By Randy Golden

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Holding Savannah against a force of superior numbers seemed to renew interest in the "Southern strategy" that had been proposed in 1778. In fact, the British had been preparing additional troops from the north prior to the successful British stand. Royal governor James Wright felt he needed more than 4,000 regular troops to maintain control of Georgia until the British could gain control of South Carolina. No one in the military hierarchy accepted this figure, especially since Commander Benjamin Lincoln had withdrawn the remaining Continentals from the state. Now in Charleston, South Carolina, Lincoln's Army had concentrated for battle.

Opposing them were men moving from New York, virtually every soldier from East Florida and backcountry Georgia, and Loyalist militia from the Southeastern states. Sir Henry Clinton, along with Major General Charles "Lord" Cornwallis went South, weighing anchor at Tybee Roads. From Tybee, which Clinton used as a staging area, the British launched a combined army-navy operation up coastal South Carolina. After investing Charleston, they forced Benjamin Lincoln to surrender the city and a force of some 5,500 men, including many Georgians, on [May 12, 1780](#). The loss was a stunning blow to the United States and is generally considered the greatest British victory during the American Revolution.

Clinton returned north, leaving Cornwallis and a fighting force of some 7,500-8,000 men against little more than militia. Andrew Pickens and others accepted defeat and arranged agreements with the British to lay down their arms and returning to their farms. It was against this curtain that Patriots like Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter got their respective nicknames: The Swamp Fox and The Gamecock.

Lord Cornwallis advanced into the interior intent on conquering the rest of the South, but his fate was sealed by a basic British misunderstanding of both the American psyche and the American continent. What had begun as a revolt of the educated, the coastal wealthy and smugglers had coalesced American resistance thanks to Britain's blatant disregard of the rights of citizens. Cornwallis was defeated at King's Mountain and again at Cowpens, ending up retreating across the land he had come to conquer, as much a victim of his own arrogance as a victim of American ingenuity. He would be trapped on the peninsula of Yorktown by the Marquis de Lafayette and the French fleet. Six weeks later George Washington appeared and forced the surrender of Cornwallis' troops.

While all this was occurring, the United States essentially forgot about Georgia with the defeat at Savannah. The state appealed to neighboring South Carolina, who held Augusta for awhile, but then had to withdraw to deal with their own problems. Whigs began to take the Loyalist oath, seemingly more out of necessity than desire, and the only area of settlers not actually under the Tories where the extreme northwest of the state, roughly north of Augusta west to Wilkes County. What little access the Rebel Americans had to coastal Georgia was gone.

Individual commanders led small groups of Rebel militia whose major job was to see that the backcountry did not fall into anarchy. James Jackson, William Few, Elijah Clark and John Dooly commanded the largest and best organized of these militia. They were so despised by Governor James Wright that a force of Regulars was sent to dispatch the leaders. They did find Dooly, who was murdered in his home in front of his two young sons.

Nancy Hart, frequently ascribed the nickname "Warwoman," a cross-eyed backcountry woman now enters the story. Nancy is easily the most mythical figure in Georgia history. When speaking of her supporters cite newspaper articles that do not exist and modern incidents that did not happen. Most of her story was first told in 1849, at the start of the Women's Movement in America, more than 70 years after it happened. There is no contemporary reference to the following incident and no extant copy of the cited article, from the 1825 Milledgeville Southern Recorder:

Myth - A story which embodied some facts that are, or have been, received as historical.
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One day six Tories paid Nancy a call and demanded a meal. She soon spread before them smoking venison, hoe-cakes, and fresh honeycomb. Having stacked their arms, they seated themselves, and started to eat, when Nancy quick as a flash seized one of the guns, cocked it, and with a blazing oath declared she would blow out the brains of the first mortal that offered to rise or taste a mouthful! She sent one of her sons to inform the Whigs of her prisoners. Whether uncertain because of her cross-eyes which one she was aiming at, or transfixed by her ferocity, they remained quiet. The Whigs soon arrived and dealt with the Tories according to the rules of the times.

In support of this, believers quote a 1912 article from the Atlanta Constitution citing the discovering of 6 Tory skeletons on property own by Nancy Hart. No extant copies of this article exist. That Nancy Hart actually lived is given, yet virtually no proof of her exploits can be historically documented.

Georgia militia were called on by Col. Isaac Shelby of North Carolina to assist in driving the British from an encampment at Musgrove's Mill on the Enoree River. Elijah Clarke answered this call with some 300 men, and helped Shelby rout the British foes on August 17, 1780. Clarke suffered a serious wound during the battle. His return trip took him through South Carolina, where he meted out justice to the Tory occupiers. Clarke returned home and after a brief rest reformed his brigade to attack Augusta. Clarke nearly succeeded in taking Augusta from Loyalist Thomas Brown, but was stymied when British Regulars arrived from Ninety-six in support of Brown's militia.

Since the defeat of the Continental Army at Savannah the British had been trying to make inroads with the farmers in the Georgia backcountry. Repeated attempts to disarm those not trusted by the British and Tories met with little success. These soldiers and militia met Whig resistance with force, killing men, assaulting women and children, and destroying property. As Clarke returned from his near victory at Augusta he stumbled upon a group of some 400 backcountry women and children who were fleeing the ravages of these British and Tory soldiers. He and his men escorted them to the **Watauga Valley** of North Carolina (now Tennessee), firmly in the control of the Whigs whom he had aided at Musgrove's Mill. Clarke's militia then joined **Thomas Sumter** to win the battle of **Blackstock** (variously described as a ferry, a plantation or a farm), defeating **Tarleton Banistre** on November 20, 1780. Returning to Georgia his men dispersed for Winter. Spring would bring better news.