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HERE WAS THE
Revolution



Surrender of Lord Cornwallis. Painting by John Trumbull. George F. Mobley, National Geographic Photographer. Courtesy U.S. Capitol Historical Society.



HERE WAS THE
Revolution

**Historic Sites of the War
for American Independence**

HARLAN D. UNRAU

National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington

1977



As the Nation's principal conservation agency, the Department of the Interior has responsibility for most of our nationally owned public lands and natural resources. This includes fostering the wisest use of our land and water resources, protecting our fish and wildlife, preserving the environmental and cultural values of our national parks and historical places, and providing for the enjoyment of life through outdoor recreation. The Department assesses our energy and mineral resources and works to assure that their development is in the best interests of all our people. The Department also has a major responsibility for American Indian reservation communities and for people who live in Island Territories under U.S. administration.

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Foreword

As we celebrate the 200th anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, each of us is stirred by the memory of the men and the events that framed the future of our country. In the coming years we will have many opportunities to refresh our understanding of what America means, but none can mean more than personal visits to the sites where freedom was forged. As we visit the sites described in this book, the dilemmas, uncertainties, and ideals of our founding fathers will seem more alive than ever before, and each of us will experience an even greater appreciation for their courage and vision. As people from all over the world visit these historic sites, they, too, will feel the excitement of history and relive in their minds the beginnings of a great Nation.

Part 1, a narrative illuminating the events that produced the independent United States of America, highlights the increasing tensions between the American colonists and Great Britain after the conclusion of the French and Indian War in 1763—tensions that led to the outbreak of hostilities at Lexington and Concord on April 19, 1775. It traces the years of struggle and bloody campaigning that the Americans endured as they fought to achieve their goal of independence.

Part 2, a description of historic sites and buildings associated with the War for Independence, is meant to remind us of the reality and immediacy of America's long struggle to forge a new Nation. Essential as academic learning is, history cannot impress upon one's mind and spirit the feeling that comes from standing in the room where a great event transpired or walking the ground where a momentous battle occurred. Visits to these historic sites cannot fail to enrich our understanding of the forces which molded and shaped the aspirations and ideals of the American colonists during this vital chapter of our national heritage.

It is my earnest hope that citizens will use this volume to seek out and visit sites of interest to them, and that they will also encourage individuals, private groups, and State and local governments to unite with the Federal Government in making the increased efforts that are needed so critically today to preserve our historic treasures.

William J. Whalen
Director
National Park Service

Acknowledgments

A number of persons have been associated with the publication of this book. During the spring of 1973, two administrators in the Washington office of the National Park Service, Robert M. Utley, Assistant Director, Park Historic Preservation, and A. Russell Mortensen, Assistant Director, Archeology and Historic Preservation, determined that a book concerning the National Parks Service areas and National Historical Landmarks associated with the American War for Independence be produced for the Nation's bicentennial. The project was assigned to Frank B. Sarles, Jr., a historian of the Washington office resource staff. When Sarles received an appointment as historical consultant on an NPS planning team to help the Greek government establish a national park system, the project was given to me.

To Frank B. Sarles, Jr., go my thanks for introducing me to the purpose and general outline of the book, and to the location of materials for use in its writing.

I am indebted to those individuals within the National Park Service who reviewed the manuscript and made many valuable suggestions. These include A. Russell Mortensen; Charles W. Snell, Research Historian, Historic Preservation Team, Denver Service Center; John F. Luzader, Supervisory Historian, Historic Preservation Team, Denver Service Center; and Harry Pfanz, Chief Historian and his assistant Barry Mackintosh.

I owe a special debt of gratitude to Charles W. Snell. In the period 1970-1972, as Survey Historian for the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings, Mr. Snell investigated, visited, and reported upon more than 550 sites and structures associated with the American Revolution to the Advisory Board on National Parks, Historic Sites, Buildings, and Monuments, and it was he who in 1972 suggested that a book such as this might be a contribution to the Nation's bicentennial. Of the 141 historic sites in this book, 131 site descriptions are based largely upon the site inventories prepared by Mr. Snell in 1970-1972. He reviewed the first draft of this manuscript in great detail and as he had visited all of the Revolutionary sites in this book, his advice was invaluable. In addition, many of the National Park Service photographs used in this book were taken by him.

I am especially grateful to Larry R. Gerlach, Associate Professor, Department of History, University of Utah, who read the manuscript. As a recognized scholar in the history of the American War for Independence, his advice and criticism were most helpful.

Mention must be made and appreciation noted of the advice, counsel and encouragement given me by the Professional Publications Division of the National Park Service. The oversight it provided to the project as well as skillful editing and production of the manuscript were of incalculable worth in the writing of this book.

Finally, my thanks go to the many State and local historical societies, State agencies and individuals that provided photographs for this book. Those photographs not credited in the captions were taken by National Park Service staff members.

H.D.U.

May 1975
Washington, D.C.

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Part 1

The American Revolution:
An Historical Narrative

WHEN the Treaty of Paris ended the Seven Years War in the autumn of 1763, men and women in the North American colonies took pride in the British defeat of France, the champion of Old World absolutism and chief rival to English influence in North America. Thousands of men had left their homes to participate in the hostilities, known in America as the French and Indian War, with soldiers from the mother country. Now they were secure from the French threat that had loomed over their thin line of English settlements along the Atlantic seaboard for more than a century. Yet, some eleven and a half years later, on April 19, 1775, a group of local militia, many of whom had fought in the colonial wars, formed on Lexington Green to face a British force on its way to seize colonial supplies at Concord. Later that same day, as the redcoats returned to their base in Boston, other colonials who had served in Great Britain's wars killed fellow Englishmen in every village along the 16-mile route between Concord and Charlestown.

What had happened during the interval between the moment of imperial triumph and the bloodshed at Lexington and Concord? For more than a decade, a revolution had been in the making, molded in part by reasoned theories addressed to the fundamental questions of man's relations with government. What produced the climate that aroused the passions of the North American colonists? The answers lie in the events that produced a decade of increasing friction between the colonies and the mother country.

MOUNTING POLITICAL TENSIONS

Great Britain emerged from her imperial contest with France with a worldwide empire, an exhausted treasury and a burdensome national debt. With no immediate foreign challengers, her leaders turned their attention to overhauling the empire's administration and making it more self-sufficient. However, every ministerial plan for integrating the American colonies into the imperial fabric ran against colonial interests or principles.

4 Here Was The Revolution

Relations between Britain and the Americans were affected profoundly by the conditions under which the colonies had developed. Since the latter part of the 17th century, each of Britain's continental American colonies had made great strides toward both representative government and provincial autonomy in internal affairs. Most of the colonies had either a royal or a proprietary form of government. In the former, the governors received their appointments from the Crown and answered directly to the Crown, while in the latter, the governors were appointed by and answered to the grantees or proprietors who were usually favorites of the Crown. Thus, the measure of the Americans' success was the power of their elected assemblies in comparison with the appointed governor upon whom the British depended principally to exercise control. According to their commissions, the governors possessed great power, but the assemblies, by obtaining exclusive control over the initiation of revenue measures, had made the governors subservient to them in many respects. These assemblies, contrary to British experience, had often resisted successfully the domination of the governor, thereby creating heightened tensions. Thus, the mutual suspicions arising from the conflict between the politically conscious Americans and the British view of empire set the stage for the disintegration of the shared cultural, legal and political traditions that had been such powerful forces for unity.

In its quest to overhaul the administration of its empire, Great Britain tried essentially two tactics to restore control over the American colonies. First was the demand that governors and their legislatures implement literally the laws of Parliament and the policies of the various departments of the British government based on those laws, many of them highly authoritarian in tone. That effort, dangerous in its implications for representative government, was largely a failure.

More nearly in accord with British constitutional conceptions was the assertion that Parliament possessed unlimited authority to bind the colonies. Hence the Parliament could not only legislate for them, as it had done at various times in the past, but could impose taxes upon them. Recognizing that Parliamentary taxation would negate the autonomy of their representative government as exemplified by their assemblies, Americans increasingly resisted the British efforts by every means at hand. During the decade after 1763, this opposition to British interference in colonial affairs took the form of legalistic arguments, economic counteraction, propaganda and mob violence.

The same year that marked the end of the French and Indian War witnessed the beginning of a British venture into the controversial area of frontier regulation. In an effort to provide for the orderly settlement of western lands as well as to protect the western settlements from Indian uprisings, the British government issued the Proclamation

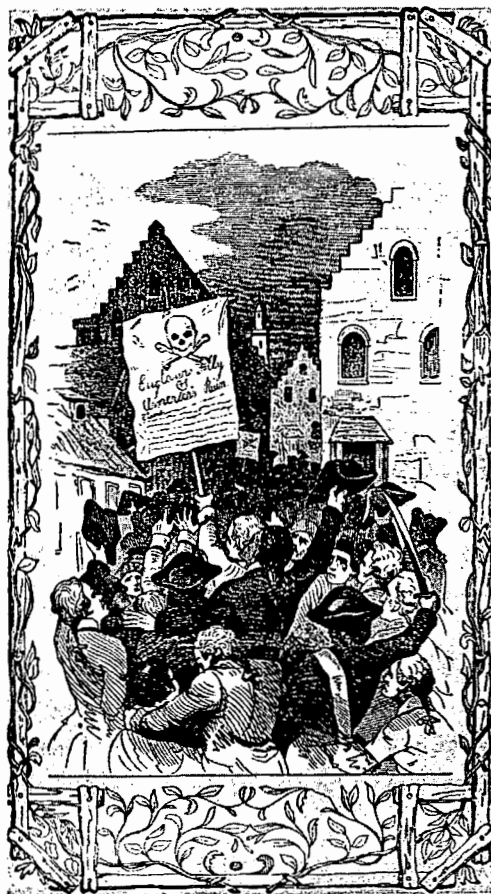
of 1763 that forbade settlement and land grants beyond the crest of the Appalachians for an indefinite period and ordered those already settled in the area to vacate. The Proclamation violated the widely held American belief that white men were destined to occupy and exploit vacant lands and that the Indians must be driven away. Settlers, land speculators and fur traders competed for the new lands, but they were united in opposition to any form of regulation, especially if it emanated from London.

Closely associated with the decision to take a more active part in regulating the frontier was Britain's decision to station 10,000 soldiers in the West to stem the flow of settlement beyond the Appalachian Mountains until a policy could be formulated that would satisfy the vested interests and lessen the mounting threat of full-scale war with the Indians. The Americans argued that, with the French threat removed, such a force was unnecessary, and that it would be used as an imperial police unit to enforce royal edicts. However, a more fateful ramification of this decision was that funds would be needed to pay for the American garrisons, and all parties in England agreed that the colonies should share the costs of their defense. The search for ways to make them contribute produced policies and legislation that led to the Revolution.

George Grenville, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was responsible for two acts designed to elicit this contribution. At his urging, Parliament passed the Sugar Act (1764), the Quartering Act and the Stamp Act (1765). The Sugar Act lowered the tariff on imported French sugar and molasses used in the making of rum but tightened the enforcement provisions to discourage the widespread smuggling by New England merchants. Violators of the Sugar Act were to be tried in Admiralty, rather than local courts, without the benefit of a jury. The Quartering Act authorized the colonial governments to furnish housing and other necessities for the soldiers. The Stamp Act required colonists to purchase specially stamped paper for virtually anything printed such as newspapers, land deeds and customs receipts. While the Sugar Act directly affected only shippers and importers, the Stamp Act touched all classes. Together, the Grenville duties aroused a storm of protest in the colonies.

The American colonists, led by the merchants, responded with a flurry of words and acts to persuade England into withdrawing her legislation. British goods were boycotted and American manufacturing encouraged. Many of the colonial legislatures passed resolutions of protest, and royal officials and their supporters were intimidated by vigilante organizations such as the Sons of Liberty. Nowhere could the Stamp Act be enforced.

The colonists expressed the first organized opposition to the Stamp



Parade of the Stamp Act in New York. Wood engraving in Benson Lossing, *Seventeen Hundred and Seventy-Six, or the War for Independence* (1850). Courtesy Library of Congress.

Act when delegates from nine colonies convened the Stamp Act Congress in the old City Hall of New York in October 1765. A Declaration of Rights and Petition to the King were drafted to explain their actions. They claimed that they were upholding the traditional rights of Englishmen by resisting the tyranny of taxation without representation. Parliament could legislate for the colonies but could not tax them, a theory in effect that was espousing a federal empire in which authority was divisible.

In response to the American outcry, several British spokesmen in Parliament, including the popular William Pitt, championed the colonists' cause. The colonial boycott injured British merchants who also urged Parliament to repeal the Grenville duties. When Grenville fell from power, Parliament reduced substantially the tariff on molasses and repealed the Stamp Act. The joy of the Americans was short-lived, however, for along with the repeal of the Stamp Act, Parliament on March 18, 1766, also passed the Declaratory Act which stated that Parliament had absolute authority to legislate for the colonies in all cases.

A new Chancellor of the Exchequer, Charles Townshend, soon offered another way for the colonists to pay a share of the imperial ex-

AT a Meeting of the Freeholders and other Inhabitants of the Town of BOSTON, legally qualified and warned, in Publick Town-Meeting, assembled at Faneuil-Hall on Monday the 21st Day of *April*, Anno Domini, 1766.

VOTED, That the Selectmen be desir'd, when they shall have a certain Account of the Repeal of the Stamp-Act, to notify the Inhabitants of the Time they shall fix upon for the general Rejoicings, and to publish the following Vote, viz.

“ UNDER the deepest Sense of Duty and Loyalty to our Most Gracious SOVEREIGN King GEORGE, and in Respect and Gratitude to the present Patriotic Ministry, Mr. PITT, and the glorious Majority of both Houses of Parliament, by whose Influence, under Divine Providence, against a most strenuous Opposition, a happy Repeal of the Stamp-Act, so unconstitutional as well as grievous to His Majesty's good Subjects of AMERICA, is attained; whereby our incontestible Right of Internal Taxation still remains to us inviolate:

“ VOTED, That at the Time the Selectmen shall appoint, every Inhabitant be desired to illuminate his Dwelling-House; and that it is the Sense of the Town, that the Houses of the Poor, as well as those where there are sick Persons, and all such Parts of Houses as are used for Stores, together with the Houses of those (if there are any) who from certain religious Scruples cannot conform to this Vote, ought to be protected from all Injury; and that all Abuses and Disorders on the Evening for Rejoicing, by breaking Windows or otherwise, if any should happen, be prosecuted by the Town.

A true Copy, Attest. WILLIAM COOPER, Town-Clerk.

THE Selectmen having received certain Intelligence, that the Act repealing the Stamp-Act, has passed all the requisite Formalities, congratulate the Inhabitants of the Town on the joyful News, and appoint Monday next, the 19th Instant, for the Day of General Rejoicing, in Compliance with the foregoing Votes, recommending to all Persons a due and punctual Observance of the salutary Regulations enjoined therein.

By Order of the Selectmen,

William Cooper, Town-Clerk.

Boston, May 16. 1766.

penses. Townshend's scheme, which Parliament passed in June and July 1767, was to enact tariffs on colonial imports of certain British products such as tea, paints, lead, paper and glass. Part of this revenue was to be used to pay the salaries of the royal governors and judges, thereby making those officials independent of the colonial legislatures. The acts also reorganized the collection of customs to make the enforcement mechanism more effective.

The Townshend Acts served to provoke the colonists to further denials of Parliamentary authority and further exhibitions of defiance. The American position toward taxation was aptly stated in John Dickinson's *Letters from a Farmer in Pennsylvania*, published as a series of newspaper essays between December 1767 and February 1768. The colonies were not represented in Parliament and therefore that body could not pass legislation for the purpose of obtaining revenue, even in the guise of the Townshend duties. However, the British government was again persuaded to back down not by the logic of these arguments but for economic reasons. Colonial boycotts of British goods had forced imports to decline by more than 30 percent, thereby creating added pressure to repeal the Townshend duties. Parliament repealed almost all of the Townshend duties, tea being the only product specifically excepted as a symbol of Parliamentary authority.

The colonists had gained another substantial victory, but once again the British insisted on the principle that Parliament's acts were the supreme law of the empire.

With the partial repeal of the Townshend duties, relations with the mother country improved. Nevertheless, incidents continued to take place that aggravated the lingering tensions. Heated relations between the British soldiers and the colonists reached their peak in Boston in 1770, when a squad of redcoats, taunted by the jeers of a crowd of irate citizens, fired after repeatedly ordering the crowd to disperse. Five Americans, one of whom was the mulatto Crispus Attucks, died as a result of the Boston Massacre, and the event stirred unrest throughout the colonies.

Samuel Adams, one of the earliest revolutionaries to think in terms of total independence, used the event as a propaganda weapon to keep alive opposition to British policy. While his cousin John defended the British soldiers tried for the murder of the citizens, Samuel succeeded in creating the extralegal Boston Committee of Correspondence in a town meeting on November 2, 1772. Within two months, 78 other Massachusetts towns had established similar committees, and they soon spread throughout the colonies. The chief function of these committees was to establish and coordinate policy against Britain by spreading propaganda and information through the interchange of letters.



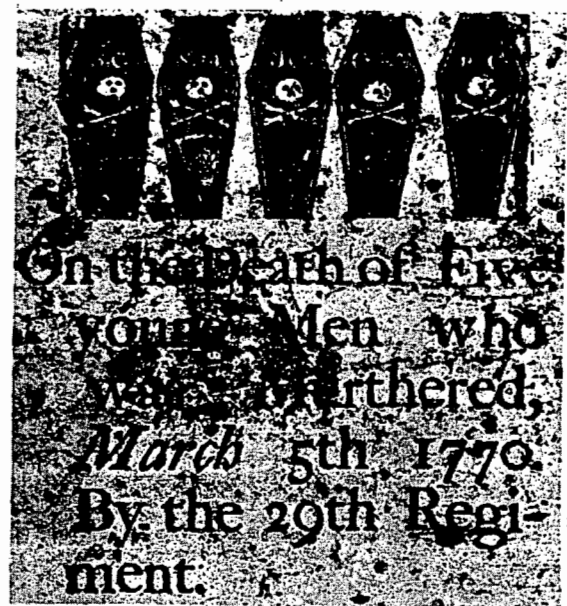
Unhappy Boston! see thy Sons deplore,
 Thy hollow Walks bescur'd with guileless Gore,
 While faithless P—n and his savage Bands,
 With murderous Rancour stretch their bloody Hands,
 Like fierce Barbarians grinning o'er their Prey,
 Approve the Cruage and enjoy the Day.

If falling drops from bludge from Anguill Wring,
 If speechless Sorrows (ish ring for a Tongue,
 Or if a weeping World can ought appeal,
 The plaintive Sighs of Victims such as these,
 The Patriots copious Tears for each one shed,
 A glorious Libure which embalms the Dead,

But know, ere firmness to that awful Goal,
 Where Justice slips the Mind reer of his Soul,
 Should ventur— to the Scandal of the Land,
 To watch the reluctant Villain from her Hand,
 For on Execrations on this Plate inscrib'd,
 Shall reach a JUDGE who never can be brib'd.

The unhappy sufferers were Messrs. SAM. GRAY, SAM. MAVERICK, JAM. ALDWELL, CRISPUS ATTUCKS & PATRICK CARROLL. Two of them (CHRISTOPHER MONROE & JOHN CHURCH) Mortally Wounded. Published in 1770 by Paul Revere.

The Boston Massacre on March 5, 1770. Engraving by Paul Revere, 1770. Courtesy Library of Congress.



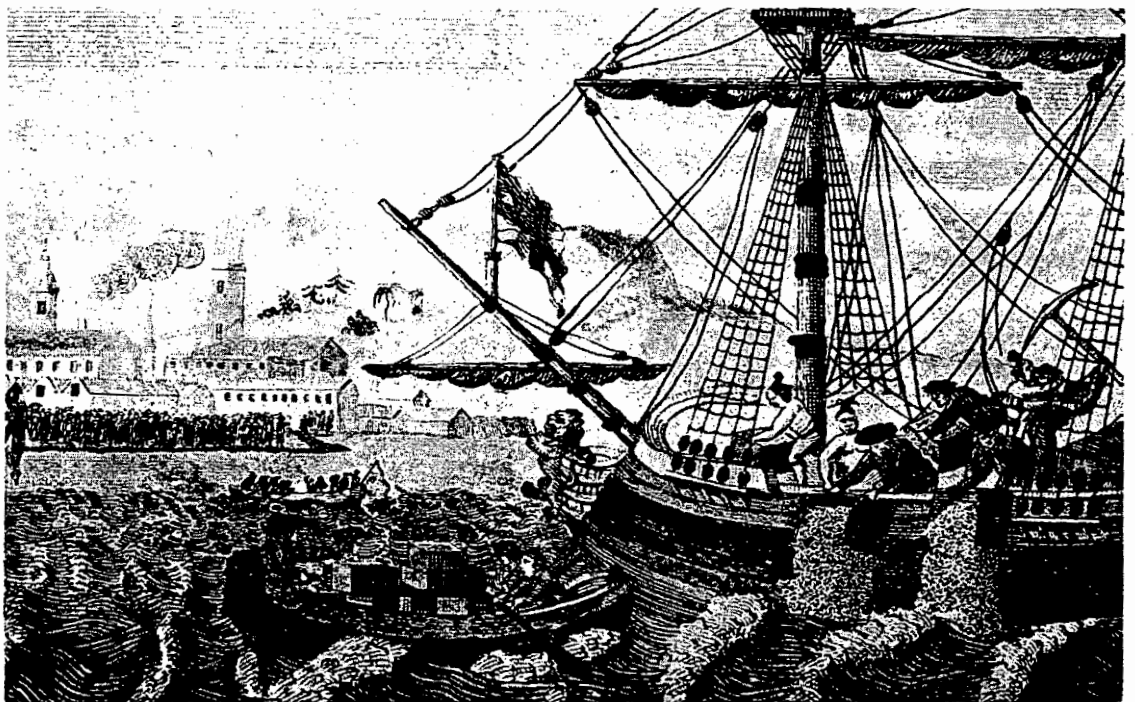
"On the Death of Five Young Men who was Murthered, March 5th, 1770. By the 29th Regiment." Broadside, 1770. Courtesy Library of Congress.



Samuel Adams. Painting by John Singleton Copley. Courtesy National Archives.

The brief period of relative calm was shattered by Parliament's passage of the Tea Act on May 10, 1773, a measure that was designed to aid the financially troubled East India Company. The Tea Act gave the British East India Company a virtual monopoly of the American tea business by allowing the company to export its surplus tea to the colonies and establish branch houses in America. The anticipated results were to be mutually beneficial. Colonial tea drinkers could purchase the product at a lower price since it did not have to pass through England. Furthermore, the East India Company was to be rescued from near bankruptcy by the profits from tea sales on the American market.

Contrary to expectations, the Tea Act awakened American hostility toward Britain because it threatened the profits of American merchants. By giving the East India Company import and marketing privileges, colonial competitors, fearing that they would be driven from business, took up the cries of monopoly and tyranny in every major port. The rest of the populace also became concerned because if the tea were sold in the colonies, they would be complying with the remaining Townshend duty. In most cases, cargoes were returned to England, but in some ports the tea was unloaded and left to rot in warehouses. In Boston on the night of December 16, 1773, some 50 men dressed as Mohawk Indians boarded the company's ship and tossed 342 tea chests overboard.



Americans throwing tea into the river at Boston. In W. D. Cooper, *History of North America* (London 1789).

Events now moved more rapidly toward a break between the colonies and the mother country. The number of the colonists' supporters in Parliament was reduced to a handful, and even they could not excuse these illegal activities. Parliament retaliated in the spring of 1774 by passing a series of four punitive measures known as the Coercive Acts against Boston in particular, and Massachusetts in general. The Boston Port Act closed the port to shipping until damages were paid and order could be assured. The Massachusetts Government Act prohibited town meetings convened without the governor's approval, and gave the king sole power to appoint the Governor's Council. The Administration of Justice Act provided that royal officials could be granted a change of venue to other colonies as well as England for offenses allegedly committed while performing official duties if the climate of opinion precluded a fair trial in the community in question. A new Quartering Act, which applied to all the colonies, authorized the quartering of troops within a town whenever their commanding officer thought it desirable. To underline the meaning of these acts, four more British regiments were sent into Boston, bringing the total there to seven, and General Thomas Gage, the Commander-in-Chief of all the North American troops, was also appointed Royal Governor of the colony.

By a fateful coincidence, the Coercive Acts were followed in 1774 by the passage of the Quebec Act, a measure erroneously regarded by the Americans as one of the repressive measures. Since 1763, the British



Cartoon line engraving by Paul Revere for the *Royal American Magazine* (June 1774). Courtesy Library of Congress.

government had debated how it should administer the nearly 74,000 conquered French subjects in Canada, and it had finally framed this measure. The old boundaries of the province of Quebec were extended southward to the Ohio River. French Catholics who lived in the region were granted religious freedom, an act that inflamed the anti-Catholic sentiments of the English Protestants. Anglo-Americans who lived in the area would be unrepresented since the French were also permitted to retain many of their institutions which did not include a representative assembly or trial by jury in civil cases. Worst of all for the English colonists, the act cancelled the western land claims which several colonies derived from their original charters.

The closing of the port of Boston and military occupation of that city served to unite Americans of every class and section. Some cities offered their wharf facilities to Boston merchants. Collections of supplies and food were taken and sent to Boston. Extralegal town meetings were called and radical resolutions were adopted. Nonimportation and non-consumption of British products were resumed. Local committees of correspondence which had been formed throughout the colonies before the Tea Act met and actively proposed a call for a colonial congress.

In response to a call for a general meeting of representatives from all the colonies, 55 men from 12 colonies, Georgia being alone unrepresented, assembled at the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia on September 5, 1774. The delegates represented a wide variety of political opinions. A few extremists proposed to raise an army at once, attack the British forces under General Gage and expel them from Boston. Others on the conservative end of the spectrum recommended conciliation with Britain. Joseph Galloway, a delegate of Pennsylvania, suggested a new version of Benjamin Franklin's 1754 plan of colonial union: a president-general appointed by the king and a colonial grand council to share power with Parliament, each to have a veto power over legislation. Galloway's "middle-course" approach narrowly failed, six colonies opposed to five in favor. Thereafter, the more radical members led by Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry and Richard Henry Lee controlled the Congress.

The radicals had earlier pushed through an endorsement of the Suffolk County, Massachusetts, resolutions which declared that "no obedience was due to either or any part of the recent acts of Parliament." The Declaration of Rights which Congress adopted went even further. It enumerated a long list of violations of colonial rights from the Sugar Act to the Coercive Acts. These rights, stated the declaration, were guaranteed "by the immutable laws of nature, the principles of the English Constitution, and the several charters or compacts." Now, in 1774, after a decade of attempting to gain recognition for colonial rights within the British empire, the leaders of the Continental Congress en-

tirely repudiated Parliament's authority over them. However, to demonstrate their willingness to compromise with the mother country, they promised to accept parliamentary regulation of their external commerce.

The Continental Congress also countered the British economic sanctions with the "Continental Association." This was a non-importation, non-exportation and non-consumption agreement against trade of any kind with Great Britain, Ireland and the West Indies. Although some loopholes existed, the "Association's" system of inspection by local committees of safety proved remarkably effective. The "Association" was an important step toward the assumption of governmental powers by the rebels. Now the colonists were confronted with a crisis of allegiance—to obey the Continental Congress and the local committees of correspondence or the duly constituted government.

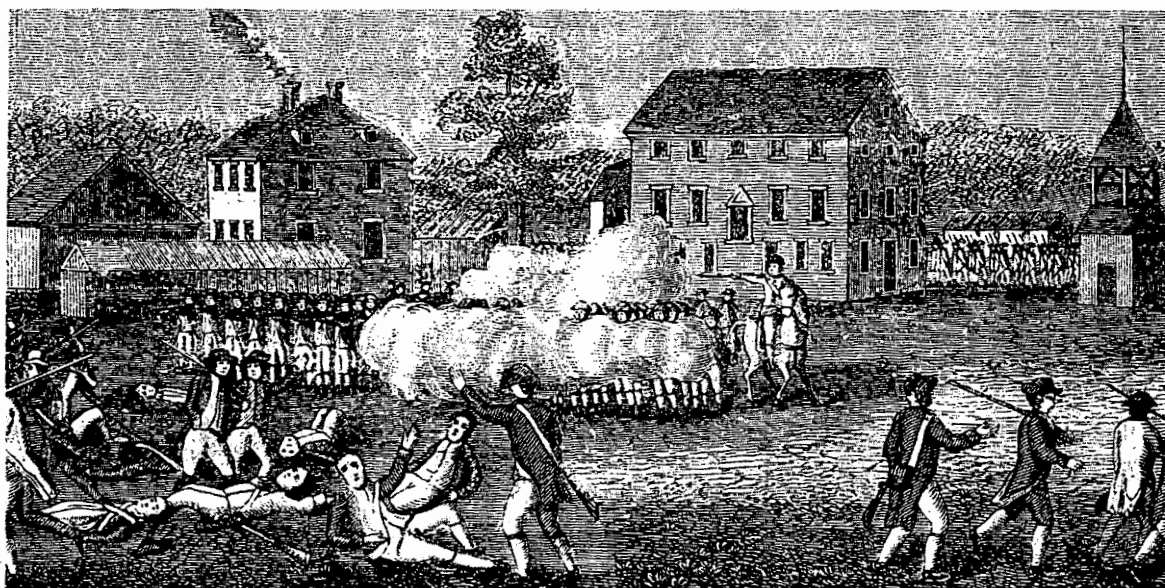
Hostile action soon followed against the rebels by the irate George III and his cabinet. The New England Restraining Act, passed by Parliament on March 20, 1775, prohibited Massachusetts from trading with any country except England and the West Indies and also barred them from using the Newfoundland fisheries. Later these provisions were extended to five other colonies.

Meanwhile, the heightening tensions began to assume a distinct military character. When General Gage called for 20,000 more troops, British ministers were shocked. They were convinced that the colonists could not stand against the disciplined British regulars and that only one or two battles would bring the rebels to terms. The colonists began to mount cannon, collect munitions, enlist militia officers and train volunteers. Given the rising temper of both sides, one match could ignite the entire continent.

OUTBREAK OF WAR

That match was struck in the early morning of April 19, 1775, on the village green at Lexington. Marching up the road from Boston to search out hidden arms in the neighboring village of Concord, an advance guard of the 700-man British force under Lt. Col. Francis Smith was met by some 70 minutemen and militia. The colonists had been alerted at midnight by Paul Revere, and the rebel leaders Samuel Adams and John Hancock, fled to avoid certain capture. Although scholars disagree as to who fired the first shot, Smith's men easily dispersed the rebels, killing eight Americans and wounding ten.

But the day was far from over, and, as the British continued on to Concord, they soon found they had tipped the hornet's nest. The colonists there, having been warned by Dr. Samuel Prescott, had had time to remove most of the military supplies. An inconclusive skirmish occurred at North Bridge which forced the British to fall back to the village. That afternoon the 16-mile march back to Boston through the aroused countryside proved disastrous to the British. All along the route hundreds of colonial sharpshooters, perhaps as many as 3,700 men, harried the royal troops, firing from behind trees, stone walls and barns with devastating effect. Gage dispatched 1,200 men as a relief force to protect the retreating troops. When the weary British remnants stumbled into the Boston defense, there were 273 British and 95 American casualties. Militia were beginning to move in from all over New England, putting Boston under a state of siege.



The fight at Lexington, April 19, 1775. Wood engraving from *Harper's Monthly* (1860). Courtesy Library of Congress.

The American position was strengthened early in May when 193 militiamen and a number of officers under Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen captured the British posts of Fort Ticonderoga and Crown Point on Lake Champlain. Strategically important, the forts also supplied needed cannon, arms and powder, some of which was used for the siege of Boston.

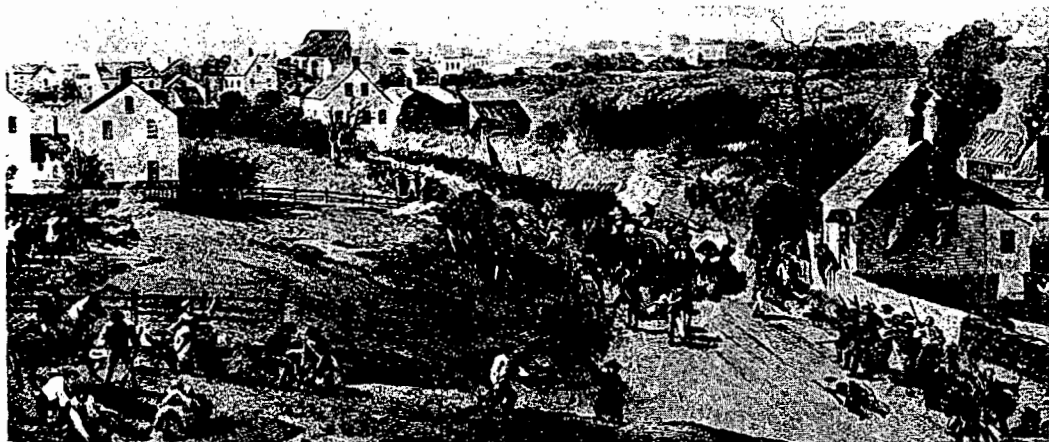
As more and more colonial troops reached Boston, the British garrison's position grew steadily more dangerous. Reinforced by sea with 1,100 regulars and three major generals, William Howe, John Burgoyne and Henry Clinton, Gage decided to roll back the siege. On the night of June 16, the Americans, forewarned of his plans, marched 1,200 men to Breed's Hill, just south of Bunker Hill from which the ensuing

action received its name, overlooking Boston from the north. By morning, when 400 more joined them, they had dug a formidable redoubt.

That afternoon General Howe set out with 2,200 men to displace the rebels from their position. Since Breed's Hill was on a peninsula, Howe could have cut the Americans off by landing a force at their rear. Instead, he bombarded nearby Charlestown at the end of the peninsula and launched a frontal assault. American fire at pointblank range twice shattered the British ranks as they marched up the hill. Then, as the Americans ran low on ammunition, the redcoats, reinforced with 700 men, ejected them with bayonets in a desperate third assault. The Americans retreated slowly, leaving 140 of their dead, 271 wounded and 30 captured. Howe's victory had cost him 226 killed and 828 wounded. The will and ability of the American militia to fight had been proven, and the British never again underestimated the men they were fighting.



The Battle of Concord Bridge. Engraving by J. W. Steel from paintings by J. P. Frankenstein. Courtesy Library of Congress.



The Retreat from Concord. Courtesy National Archives.

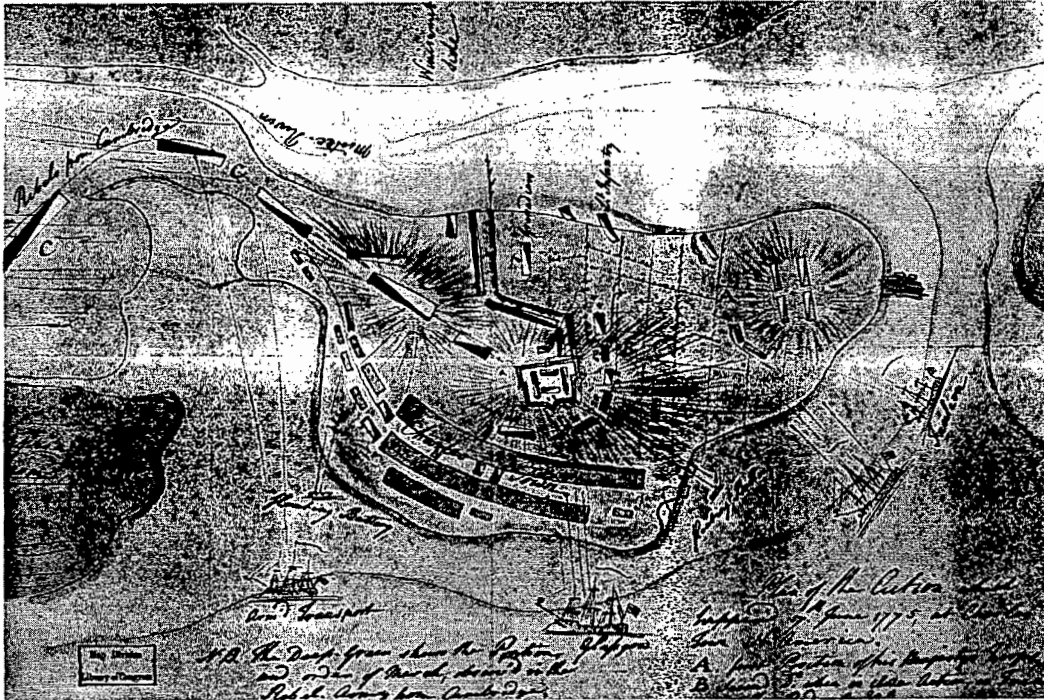
While nearly 16,000 New England militia pinned down the British forces in Boston, other Americans were taking steps to support the war. Royal authority was collapsing everywhere, as new, especially chosen delegates formed provincial congresses separate from the still-existing colonial assemblies. These new congresses began to act as independent governments, raising troops and issuing paper money as legal tender to pay them. The difficulties presented by this transition in government were minimal, because many of the representatives to the provincial congresses were former assemblymen and simply conducted business as usual.



Battle of Bunker Hill. Engraving from painting by John Trumbull. Courtesy National Archives.



Sir William Howe. Mezzotint published by John Morris, May 10, 1778. Courtesy Library of Congress.

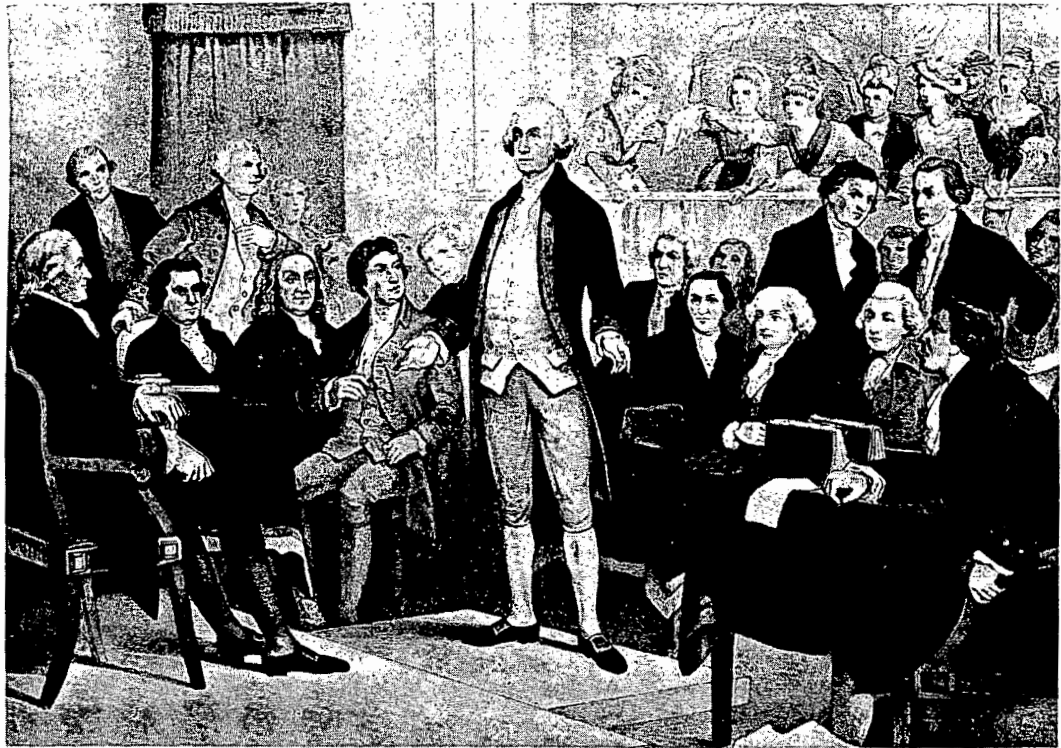


A rough draft map of the Battle of Bunker Hill, drawn shortly after the fighting by Lt. Thomas Page, aide-de-camp to General William Howe. Courtesy Library of Congress.

A NEW GOVERNMENT

The delegates assembled at Philadelphia for the Second Continental Congress on May 10, 1775, were faced with a more formidable task. Fighting had just broken out, and the colonists were already deeply committed to a common cause. Instead of devoting themselves to hammering out agreements of principle as had been done at earlier intercolonial meetings, the delegates found themselves conducting America's first "national" government. On June 14, they assumed responsibility for the provincial militia besieging Boston and ordered their transformation into the Continental Army with George Washington as Commander-in-Chief. Paper money was issued to support the troops. A secret committee was appointed to establish relations with foreign governments to solicit aid and supplies. On June 25, they directed that the second Continental Army be formed at Crown Point and Fort Ticonderoga under the command of Philip Schuyler.

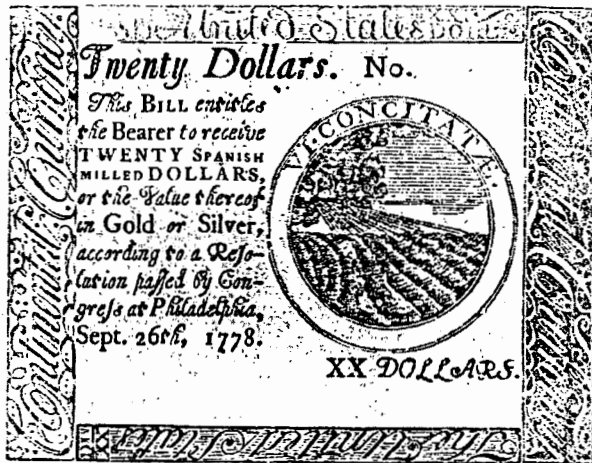
Although the Congress assumed many of the powers of an independent government in taking these actions, the members still did not intend to establish an independent nation. In their eyes, a repudiation



Washington appointed Commander-in-Chief, June 15, 1775. Lithograph by Currier & Ives, 1876. Courtesy Library of Congress.

of Parliament was not a repudiation of England, and they felt that Englishmen on both sides of the Atlantic could retain their brotherhood in loyalty to a common king. On July 6, 1775, the Congress issued a "Declaration of the Causes and Necessity for Taking up Arms" in which they voiced their conviction that they had been forced to choose between unconditional submission to the tyranny of the British Parliament or resistance by force. At the same time, they made a final reconciliation attempt in the so-called "Olive Branch Petition." In this document, they appealed to the King asking him personally to protect their rights and to promote the repeal of the Coercive Acts. As soon as England acknowledged their rights, they promised to lay down their arms.

Although some Americans had already begun to promote the idea of independence, these declarations did not represent the feelings of the vast majority of colonists. The repeal of the Coercive Acts and the restriction of Parliamentary legislation to the regulation of trade might have kept the colonists in the empire even at this late date. But George III and Lord North were determined to force the rebellious colonists into submission. The King rejected the American petition, and Parliament reacted to their "Declaration" by voting to send 25,000 more troops to North America, bringing British military strength there to 40,000. In August 1775 the King issued a proclamation declaring the



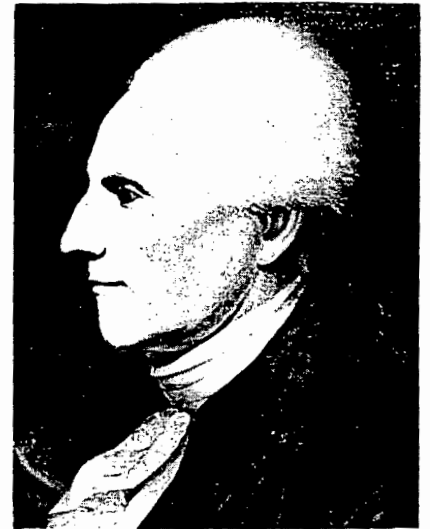
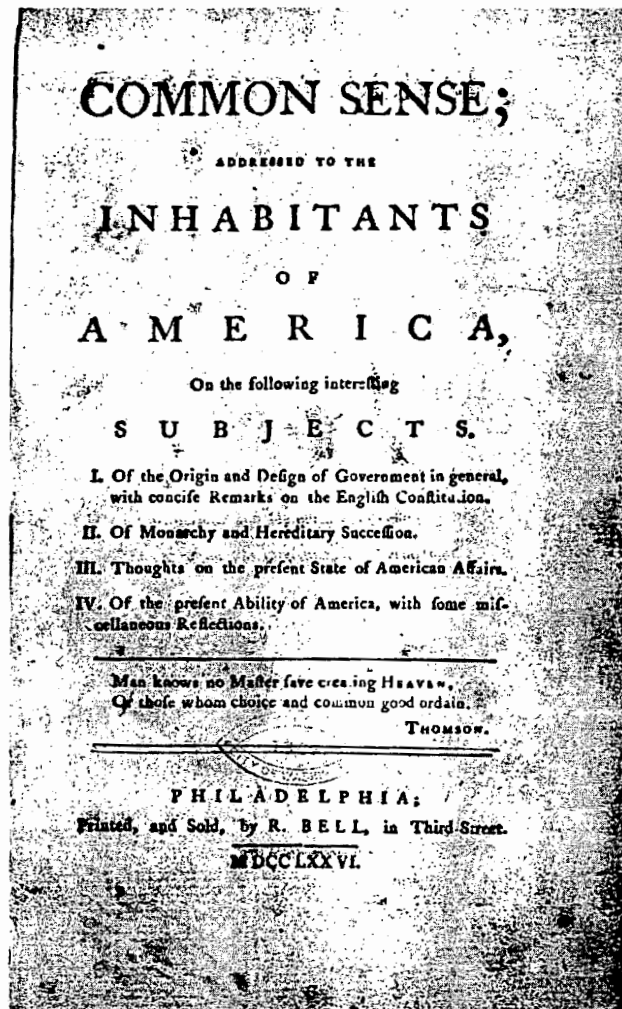
Continental currency, 1778.
Courtesy Library of Congress.

colonies to be in a state of rebellion, and in October he announced plans to hire foreign mercenaries to fight the colonists. In December, Parliament passed an act outlawing all American trade and subjecting ships and goods to confiscation, effective March 7, 1776.

The new image of George III as a tyrant was presented to the colonists in January 1776 by Thomas Paine, an Englishman who had arrived in America less than two years earlier. In a widely-read pamphlet called *Common Sense*, Paine argued that it was foolish for Americans to stake their lives simply to obtain the repeal of Parliamentary legislation. Furthermore, it was not logical to remain loyal to a king who sanctioned the spilling of American blood. By asserting that the colonies had little to gain by staying in the empire and urging the Americans to cast off monarchy altogether, Paine kindled a latent enthusiasm for independence and representative government.

Sentiment in favor of cutting the ties with England grew rapidly in the six months that followed the publication of *Common Sense*. The Continental Congress itself began acting more and more like an independent national government. In March it authorized privateering against British ships, and the following month it stopped the importation of slaves and declared other trade open to all the world except Great Britain. In May, at the urging of John Adams, it recommended that the 13 colonies that had not already done so should form new state governments with written constitutions and should suppress all vestiges of royal authority within their borders.

By this time, many of the delegates from New England and the southern colonies were prepared to make an outright declaration of independence. They were restrained only by the reluctant rebels of the middle colonies. Although a great majority of the congress had by now concluded that Parliament had no constitutional authority at all in America, some colonists still felt bound to England by a sentimental attachment to the common cultural traditions they shared with the



Richard Henry Lee. Painting by C. W. Peale. Courtesy National Archives.

Title page of the first edition of *Common Sense* (1776). Courtesy Library of Congress.

English people. By June, these feelings had been worn too thin to sustain the weight of continuing war. On June 7, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia introduced a motion "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be free and independent states." A Committee of Five was appointed on the 10th to draw up the Declaration of Independence: Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman of Connecticut and Robert R. Livingston of New York. As adopted on July 4, the Declaration, the language of which was practically all Jefferson's, was an eloquent application of the ideas that had emerged from a century and a half of American experience. It expressed the underlying theories that buttressed the American will to fight: the origin of government in the consent of the governed, its obligation to protect the inherent rights of men and the duty of a people to alter a government that failed to fulfill its obligation.

Drafting the Declaration of Independence. Engraving by Johnson, Fry & Co. from a painting by Alonzo Chappel. Courtesy Library of Congress.

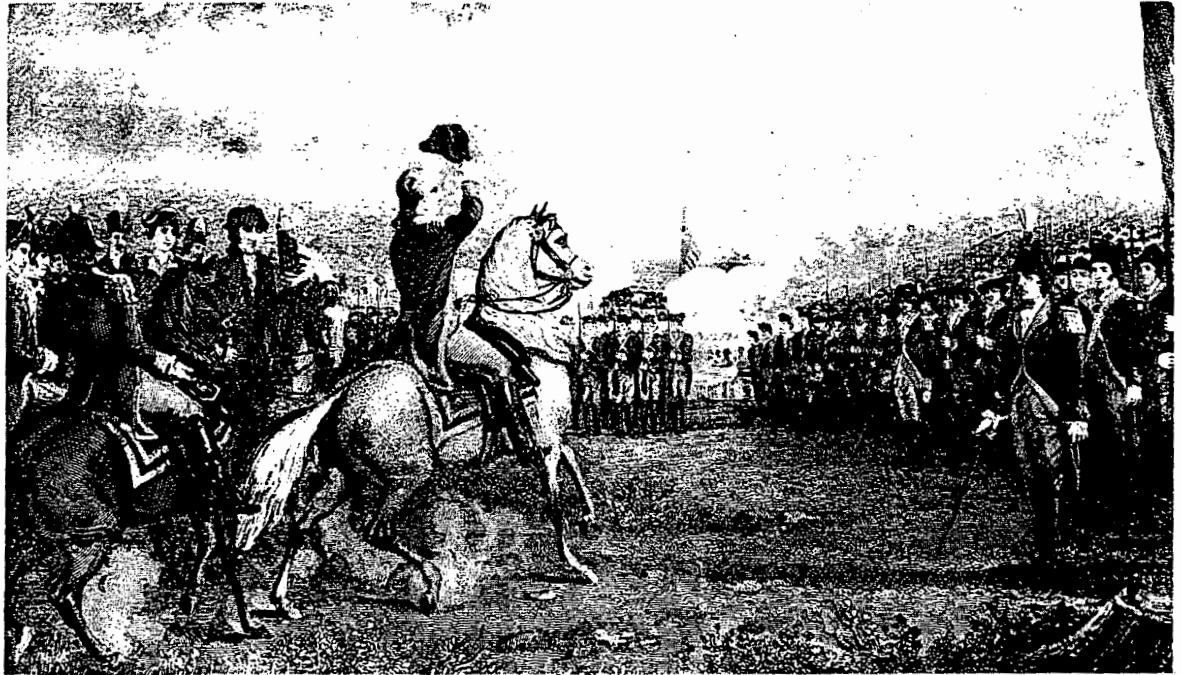
Thomas Jefferson. Charcoal drawing. Courtesy National Archives.



MILITARY OPERATIONS: 1776-78

After the rout at Lexington and Concord on April 19 and the slaughter at Bunker Hill on June 17, the Americans were confident that their militia could handle any force that the British sent against them. The men encamped around Boston had spirit and marksmanship, but they were not an army. To make them into a disciplined fighting force was George Washington's first concern after taking command at Cambridge on July 3, 1775.

This job was a difficult one for the new commander. The New England colonies had already organized 39 regiments of infantry, all volunteer soldiers, under their own officers before Washington arrived. Now these militia units had to be reorganized under a corps of officers appointed from above. With the appointment of generals by the Conti-



Washington taking command of the American Army at Cambridge, 1775. Engraving by C. Rogers, from a painting by M. A. Wageman. Courtesy National Archives.

mental Congress for the army, many of the old militia officers lost rank and stalked off embittered. Furthermore, the independent-minded militia were used to electing their officers and were touchy about taking orders from higher up, and particularly from officers from another colony. They were also accustomed to short terms of service and eager to get home to harvest their crops. Wherever an enemy force appeared, Americans from the surrounding countryside would turn out to fight, but they were not interested in joining an army that would take them from their homes. The pay was low, and no pension system existed to compensate a man or his family for the loss of life or limb. It therefore took all of Washington's diplomacy to persuade 20,000 militiamen to enlist until the end of 1776 as regular soldiers in the Continental Army. In addition, the provincial governments supplied him with about 5,000 short-term enlistments.

The total was less than Washington had hoped for. Throughout the war, Congress was unable to provide him with an ample supply of men. Congress was dependent on requisitions to the states for raising money and drafting men, and when the states lagged in supplying their assigned quotas, Congress could do nothing to coerce them. The collection of adequate supplies faced similar difficulties, and Washington had to spend much of his time pleading for both.

While Washington spent the latter months of 1775 creating an army in the Boston siege lines, an ambitious colonial project began for the

conquest of Canada. It was a two-pronged attack. One army under Philip Schuyler, with Richard Montgomery in personal command, would advance up Lake Champlain, while Benedict Arnold would lead another force up the Kennebec River in Maine and thence down the Chaudiere to Quebec. It was a bold gamble, but Canada was lightly garrisoned and the Americans hoped to forestall a future British attack from that direction. Montgomery moved swiftly and, despite hunger, fatigue and sickness, captured Montreal on November 13. Arnold, after an epic march through the Maine wilderness, reached Quebec about the same time, but his army was too weak to take the refortified city alone. Furthermore, the Canadians showed no disposition to help them as the Americans had hoped. Montgomery joined Arnold, and the combined forces which amounted to only 1,500 men attacked on December 31. The assault failed after Montgomery was killed and Arnold badly wounded. The Americans continued to besiege the city throughout the bitter winter, but smallpox and hunger so thinned their ranks that in the spring they retreated to Ticonderoga. The Americans made no further military efforts to draw Canada into their union.

In the South where the British were cooperating with strong Tory factions, the Americans had more success. Josiah Martin, Royal Governor of North Carolina, was attempting to hold the colony with the help of loyalists. On February 27, 1776, at Moore's Creek Bridge, 1,100 militia overwhelmingly defeated 1,600 loyalists and captured a badly needed £15,000 in cash. Several months later, General Henry Clinton and Admiral Sir Peter Parker arrived off Charleston, South Carolina, with 50 ships and an army of 3,000 men to capture the city as a British base of operations. Because of the defeat at Moore's Creek, few loyalists, who had been expected to cooperate with the British expedition, came to their aid. After a four-week siege that began on June 1, the British naval attack on June 28 was beaten off by the determined resistance of a seemingly impregnable fort constructed of palmetto logs and dirt and defended by William Moultrie's small force on Sullivan's Island. When the 10-hour duel subsided, the British withdrew and left Charleston alone for the next four years.

Meanwhile, Washington had built a force strong enough to close in on Boston. Reinforced with nearly 70 cannon from Fort Ticonderoga, brought over the snowy mountains on oxen-drawn sledges by Colonel Henry Knox, Washington began by occupying and fortifying Dorchester Heights which overlooked the city on the south. This time the British did not try to storm the American position as they had done at Breed's Hill. Instead, on March 17, 1776, they departed by sea for Halifax, Nova Scotia, taking over a thousand loyalists with them.

A few months after the British evacuation of Boston, when Americans declared their independence, they appeared to be in a strong

position. Although they were challenging the world's greatest military and naval power, they had fought off a number of British assaults. But the British war machine soon began to grind into action. Parliament had authorized an army of 55,000, and when recruiting lagged in England the government hired 30,000 German mercenaries.

With Boston evacuated, British and American eyes turned to New York, strategically valuable in any British attempt to split the American colonies in two. Anticipating such a move, Washington moved his army to New York City in April and May 1776, posting a part on Long Island and the rest on Manhattan. General Sir William Howe and his brother, Admiral Lord Richard Howe, were given command of the



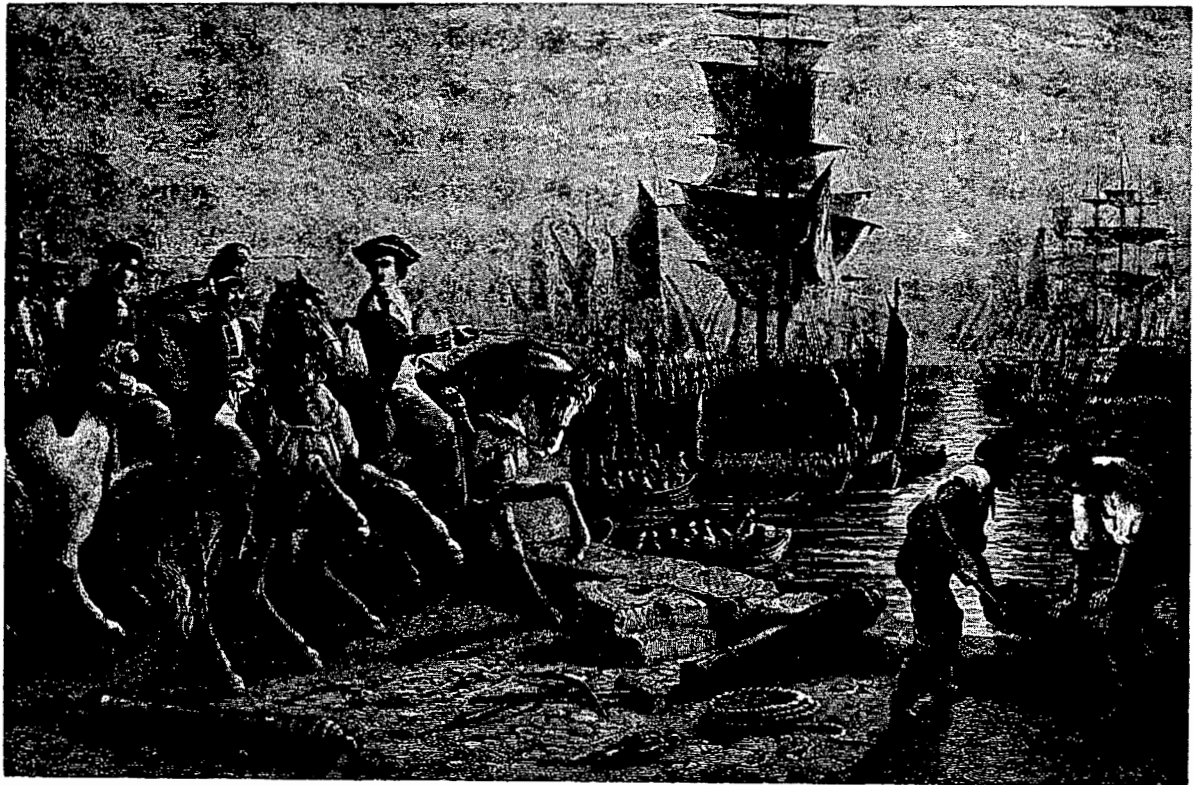
Defense of Fort Moultrie, S. C. Engraving by G. R. Hall from a painting by Johannes A. Oertel. Courtesy Library of Congress.

British forces that were to occupy New York City and thus separate the colonies. They would move on New York City by sea from Halifax, while another British force would descend from Canada by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson River. Once they had taken New York and thus cut off communications and reinforcements between the rebels in the North and those in the South, the British could deal with each separately.

The Howes were authorized to end the war as soon as the colonists submitted. Hoping to end it before they began, they addressed a con-

ciliatory letter to "George Washington, Esq.," thus ignoring his military status. But General Washington refused to receive the letter, because it did not recognize American independence. The Howes therefore proceeded according to plan. On August 12, 1776, they arrived in New York Harbor with 32,000 troops and 10,000 seamen (the city's normal population was just over 21,000) aboard 400 transports and 30 warships. Ten days later, 20,000 of the troops landed on Long Island near Brooklyn.

By August 20, Washington had 30,000 men in the New York area, but most of them were inexperienced local militia. When Howe launched both frontal and flank attacks on Long Island on August



Lord Howe Evacuating Boston, March 17, 1776. Engraving by J. Godfrey from a painting by M. A. Wageman, 1861. Courtesy Library of Congress.

27, Washington's forward line was outflanked and the remnants of his army driven back to the Brooklyn Heights fortifications. Howe then began siege operations, and Washington, seeing the danger of his position, skillfully evacuated his troops to Manhattan on the night of August 29-30.

Thinking that this taste of British power might have humbled the Americans, Howe offered to confer about a settlement before any more fighting occurred. On September 11, Congress sent Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and Edward Rutledge to deal with Admiral Richard and



Pulling down the statue of George III in New York City, 1776. Engraving by John C. McRae from a painting by Johannes A. Oertel. Courtesy Library of Congress.

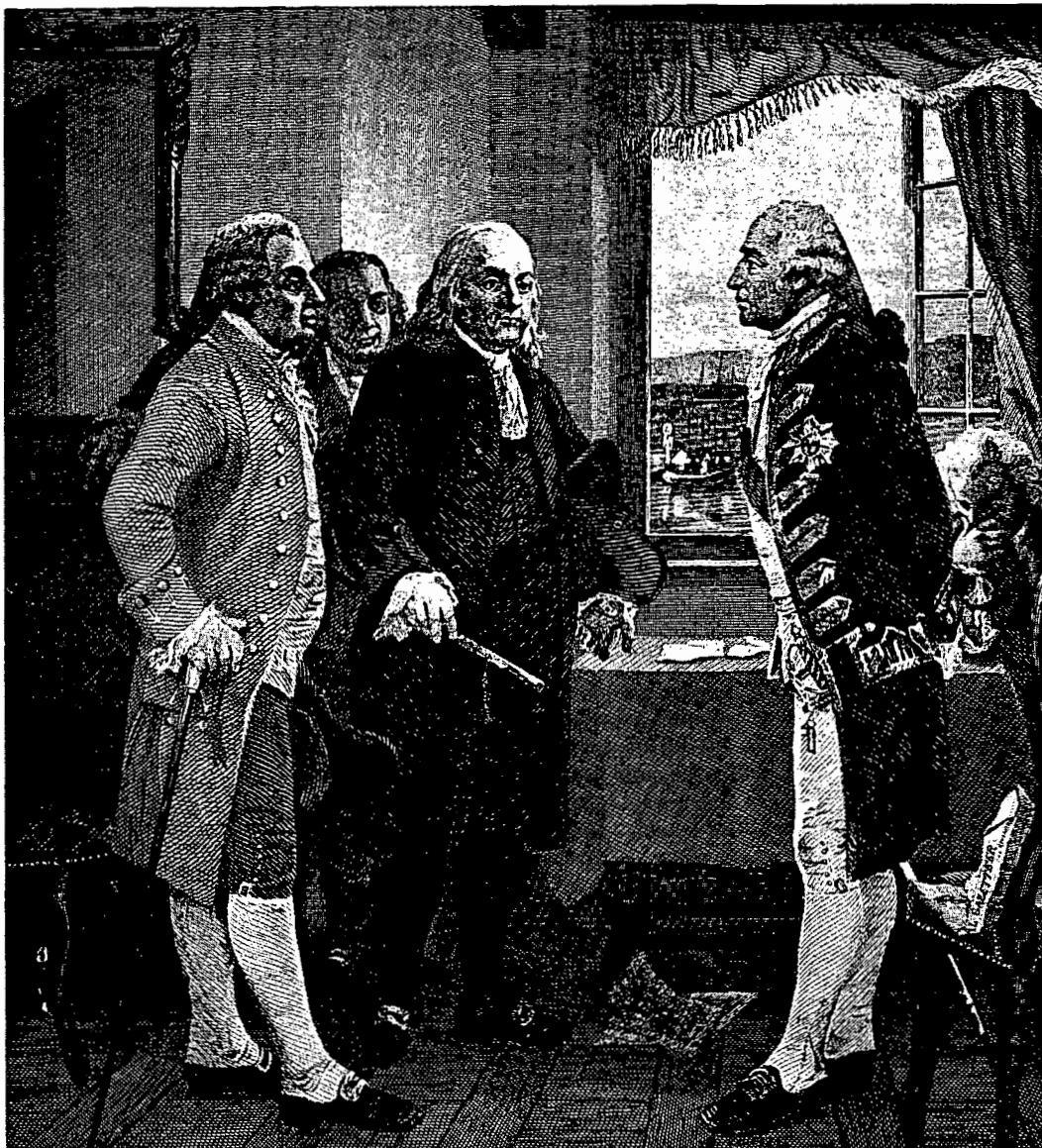
General William Howe at Conference House on Staten Island. The resulting conference was made fruitless, however, when the Howes insisted on the revocation of the Declaration of Independence as a prior condition of agreement.

Four days later, General Howe's army landed at Kip's Bay on Manhattan Island and forced Washington to abandon New York City. As they fell back to the northward, the Americans won a small but encouraging victory at Harlem Heights. In mid-October, the British crossed to the mainland in Washington's left rear, forcing him back to White Plains. After a sharp action there on October 28, Washington again withdrew.

The American situation now deteriorated rapidly. Washington had left a part of his force to hold Forts Washington and Lee on opposite sides of the Hudson River at the upper end of Manhattan Island, and another part to hold the highlands of the Hudson while he crossed the Delaware River into New Jersey with the rest. Howe quickly attacked the forts, capturing Fort Washington with its entire garrison on November 16 and forcing General Nathanael Greene to evacuate Fort Lee three days later. Depleted by captures and desertions, the Continental Army began a rapid retreat across New Jersey with the British advances under Cornwallis closely following his disintegrating army. The American commander's difficulties were compounded by the refusal of General Charles Lee, who lacked confidence in Washington's military ability, to join him with a major portion of the American army despite repeated orders to do so.



Battle of Long Island. Engraving from painting by Alonzo Chappel. Courtesy National Archives.



Interview between Lord Howe and Committee of Congress. Engraving by Johnson, Fry & Co., 1866, from a painting by Alonzo Chappel. Courtesy Library of Congress.



Horatio Gates. Engraving from painting by Gilbert Stuart. Courtesy National Archives.



Philip Schuyler. Engraving from painting by John Trumbull, 1792. Courtesy National Archives.

While Washington was facing these myriad discouragements, events on Lake Champlain had taken a turn for the better for the Americans. On June 17, General Horatio Gates was ordered to take personal command of the army that had retreated from Canada, and he quickly withdrew the force from Crown Point to Fort Ticonderoga. Learning that Sir Guy Carleton, the British commander in Canada, was assembling a fleet for a drive through Lake Champlain, General Philip Schuyler, Commanding General of the Northern Department, ordered Benedict Arnold to build an American fleet. The British delayed their campaign until later in the season, giving the energetic Arnold additional time to build his boats. On October 11, Arnold's small "navy," manned by landlubbers, gallantly met Carleton's advance at Valcour Bay. In two days, Arnold lost most of his vessels, but the further delay caused by the British advance convinced Carleton that he could do nothing decisive before winter. Early in November, he retired to the north end of Lake Champlain.

In early December, Washington crossed the Delaware River into Pennsylvania with what was left of his army. Here, with the river between him and the enemy, he prepared plans for his next move. The outlook was bleak. While pursuing him across New Jersey, Howe left garrisons at Princeton, Trenton, Bordentown, New Brunswick and Perth Amboy, and withdrew the rest of the army to winter quarters at New York City. Simultaneously, the British also sent 6,000 men under Henry Clinton to Rhode Island where on December 8 they occupied Newport, the fifth largest city in the colonies, where they

remained in garrison. Washington's force was down to fewer than 12,000 effective fighting men, most of them exhausted and demoralized. By the end of December, all but 1,500 would have completed their term of enlistment, and with winter coming they would be anxious to go home. While he still had them, Washington prepared plans for a stunning surprise attack. He knew he must win a victory if he hoped to boost morale and recruit his army for another year of service. On Christmas night 1776 in a sleet storm, he shuttled 2,400 of his men back across the Delaware River, marched them nine miles to Trenton and caught the Hessian outpost asleep. At a cost of only four casualties, he forced the garrison to surrender and quickly recrossed the river with his 900 prisoners, 6 captured cannon and other booty.

Although the enlistments of his troops expired with the old year, Washington persuaded most to serve for six weeks longer. With them and some militia reinforcements, he again reentered New Jersey on the night of December 30. A British force under Cornwallis confronted them, and the American position appeared hopeless. But Washington, by a swift night march, eluded Cornwallis and struck the British supply base at Princeton on January 3, 1777. Here he dealt the British another smashing blow, and they pulled back to New Brunswick for the winter. The brilliant reversal so cheered the troops that Washington was able to persuade many to reenlist. With high spirits, the army moved into winter quarters at Morristown. Not only was morale lifted by these two victories, but new life was injected into the American cause, and confidence was restored in Washington's military leadership throughout the colonies.

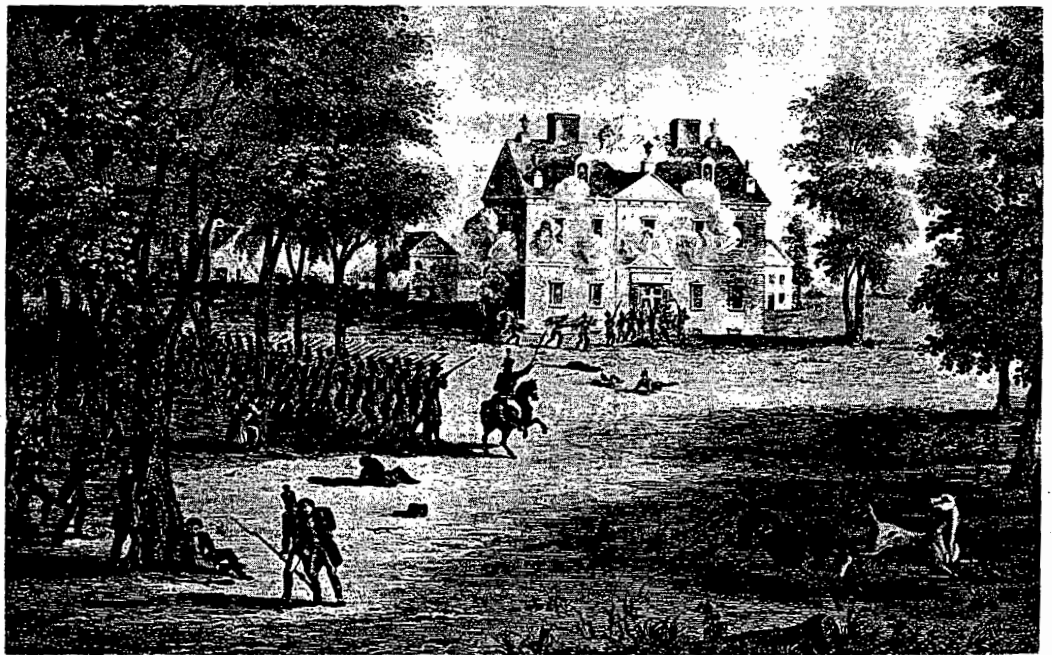
When active operations opened in the spring of 1777, General Howe decided to storm the rebel capital of Philadelphia, which, like New York, contained a large loyalist population. In July, he took 18,000 men from New York and sailed south, arriving after a long and circuitous voyage at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay in late August. From there, they marched north toward Philadelphia, the Hessians helping themselves to food and supplies along the way.

As the British advanced, Washington marched his army of 16,000 men across Brandywine Creek, taking post opposite Chadd's Ford southwest of Philadelphia. On September 11, the British advanced in two columns, the right under Baron Wilhelm von Knyphausen and the left under Cornwallis. While the former engaged in an artillery duel with the Americans at the forks of the creek, Cornwallis made a flanking march, attacking General John Sullivan's troops and forcing them into full retreat. Meanwhile, Knyphausen attacked General Anthony Wayne at Chadd's Ford and drove his troops back in disorderly flight. The outmaneuvered Americans lost 300 killed, 600 wounded (among them the Marquis de Lafayette) and 400 prisoners,

while the British loss was nearly 600 in killed and wounded. Washington withdrew, Congress fled to York, Pennsylvania, and the British entered Philadelphia on September 26.

After the occupation of the capital city, Howe stationed his forces across the Germantown road north of the city and east of the Schuylkill. On the evening of October 3, Washington devised a complicated plan to converge by four roads at dawn on the main British outpost at Germantown. At sunrise, the British advance bodies were surprised and overwhelmed, but further American thrusts were hindered by fog and faulty intelligence. Reinforced by Cornwallis, the British took the offensive and the Americans were forced to retire. Although one regiment under Nathanael Greene was surrounded and captured, the Americans brought away several captured cannons as well as their own. The American loss in killed and wounded was 673; the British loss was 535.

Howe then turned his main attention to the American forts, Mifflin and Mercer, along the Delaware River below Philadelphia, in order to open that river so that British ships could bring supplies to the army at Philadelphia. On October 22 in the Battle of Red Bank, the garrison at Fort Mercer successfully repulsed a strong assault by German troops. After an intense siege from November 10-16, the heroic garrison of Fort Mifflin was forced to evacuate the post, but it was not until November 21 that 2,000 British under Cornwallis were able to force the Americans to evacuate Fort Mercer and thus formally open the Delaware to British vessels.



Battle of Germantown (Chew House). Engraving by Rawdon, Wright and Harch from a drawing by Koeltner. Courtesy Library of Congress.



Sir John Burgoyne. Engraving by S. Hollyer.
Courtesy National Archives.

On December 19, Washington encamped for the winter at Valley Forge, 20 miles northwest of the captured capital, and here his army remained until June 18, 1778.

These defeats discouraged the colonists, but in reality Howe's success was hollow. Though he had captured three of America's five largest cities and repeatedly defeated her generals, he had failed to destroy Washington's army and controlled only a small portion of American territory. To the north disaster was also brewing. General John Burgoyne, a brave and witty man, had been authorized by the high command in England to mount an expedition for a march south from Canada by the Lake Champlain route. He set out from Fort St. John's in June with 4,000 British, 4,000 Germans and 1,400 Indians. Another British force under Barry St. Leger was to move eastward along the Mohawk Valley from Fort Oswego. St. Leger, with 800 soldiers and about 1,000 warriors, besieged the fort on August 2 and four days later ambushed a relief force of 800 militia in a bloody battle at Oriskany. One week later on August 13, however, Philip Schuyler took a calculated risk and sent Benedict Arnold with a relief column that forced St. Leger to retreat to Canada.

Burgoyne advanced southward without difficulty, reaching Fort Ticonderoga on July 1 and quickly forced Arthur St. Clair's 3,000-man garrison to evacuate. Following the American retreat, the British were unable to advance because the horses and carts necessary to move supplies, cannon and ammunition had not yet arrived from Canada. Burgoyne's advance after July 8 was obstructed further by an American force under Philip Schuyler, who hampered the enemy by felling trees, destroying bridges and removing horses, oxen and carts that would be of use to the British army.

Meanwhile, the savage conduct of Burgoyne's Indian allies had aroused the New York and New England militia, a circumstance that led to his army's first defeat. On August 16 near Bennington, Vermont,

a force of New Hampshire militia under John Stark caught a German foraging party, seeking the horses and carts that had been assembled in Vermont. The German detachment and a second relief party numbered about one-tenth of Burgoyne's army and were nearly wiped out with over 200 killed and 500 prisoners taken.

As Burgoyne advanced, his supply lines lengthened and his difficulties increased. His Indian allies, quick to sense what was coming, quietly left him. American forces under Philip Schuyler and Benedict Arnold, gathered ever stronger before him, and each time they clashed Burgoyne lost several hundred more men.

Despite the increasing obstacles to his campaign, Burgoyne refused



Battle of Bennington. Engraving from painting by Alonzo Chappel. Courtesy National Archives.

to abandon his objective. Crossing the Hudson at Saratoga with 7,800 men on September 13, six days later he moved against the American army of over 10,000 under its new commander, Horatio Gates, at Bemis Heights. Burgoyne was stopped cold and then stood fast for the next three weeks, having received word that Clinton was advancing north from New York City. However, after taking two forts below West Point on October 6, Clinton halted his advance at Livingston Manor. Burgoyne's position was daily growing more desperate, and he made a

second unsuccessful attempt to break through on October 7. Defeated, he attempted to retreat, but he was surrounded by 22,000 Americans at Saratoga, and he surrendered his entire army of 5,800 men and 35 cannon to Gates ten days later.

Saratoga was the turning point of the American Revolution, but not because it turned back any threat to the American armies. Burgoyne's surrender did not seriously reduce the British margin of superiority in troops and equipment, but it did have a great psychological impact on the American colonists. The American victory injected new life into the rebel cause, and it also encouraged a hesitant France to intervene openly on the side of the colonists.



Surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga. Painting by John Trumbull. Courtesy Library of Congress.

FOREIGN RECOGNITION

In London, Parliament began to sense the possibility that England might lose the war. In February 1778, it authorized a commission headed by Lord Carlisle to offer the Americans the renunciation of Parliamentary taxation, repeal of the Coercive Acts and the suspension of every other objectionable act passed since 1763. Two years earlier,

such concessions would undoubtedly have kept the colonies within the empire, but by now the rebels were committed to the goal of independence. Britain's eagerness to have them back merely furnished them with the final weapon they needed to make their independence last: the recognition and assistance of France.

From the outset of hostilities, the Americans had hoped for help from England's traditional enemy, and in November 1775, Congress had appointed a secret committee to seek foreign aid. With France's encouragement, the committee sent Silas Deane, Massachusetts' colonial agent in London, to negotiate with the French government. Deane arrived in Paris on July 7, 1776, to find that the French foreign minister, the Comte de Vergennes, had already persuaded Louis XVI to help the American rebellion with a million livres' worth of munition and supplies. The goods were to be dispensed secretly through a fake trading company operated by Pierre Beaumarchais, a popular French playwright.

When news of the Declaration of Independence reached Paris, the Americans hoped that France would recognize their independence and offer open assistance. To help Deane push these more ambitious requests, Congress sent Arthur Lee, a Virginian who had been serving the American cause in London, and Benjamin Franklin, who arrived from Philadelphia in December 1776. The three men constituted a commission with power to make a treaty of amity and commerce and a treaty of alliance.

Aside from furnishing supplies to the colonists secretly and sometimes allowing American privateers to use French harbors, Vergennes and Louis XVI were hesitant in responding to these requests. They were reluctant to join in open war on England when the British armies, with the capture of New York City appeared to be winning. As the American military position worsened, Congress instructed the commissioners to seek the deeper commitment of an alliance. However, Vergennes wanted Spain as his ally before he took on Britain, and Spain refused to help the 13 colonies, fearing that she might encourage her own colonies to revolt. Spain finally went to war against England in May 1779 as an ally of France but not of the United States.

When news of Saratoga reached Paris on December 3, 1777, Vergennes perceived at once that the American victory might produce some conciliatory efforts by England, and he feared reconciliation between the rebellious colonies and the mother country. Franklin played upon his fears, and Vergennes finally informed the commissioners that France was ready to enter a treaty of commerce and amity and a treaty of alliance with the Americans. He required an alliance before entering the war in order to prevent the United States from making peace before England was humbled.

The terms of the alliance, signed on February 6, 1778, met the objectives that the Americans had set out to gain, although the generous terms were less the result of American diplomatic skill than of French determination to weaken England. The stated purpose of both parties was to maintain the independence of the United States. In case of war between France and England, which was an inevitable result of the treaty, neither France nor the United States was to make peace without the consent of the other. France renounced all future claims to English territory in North America and agreed that any such territory captured in the war would go to the United States.

Even before the alliance the Americans had depended heavily on French aid. For example, the victory at Saratoga would have been virtually impossible without French supplies. French financial support helped to bolster sagging American credit at a time when Congress, with no power to tax, was financing the war with money begged from the states or manufactured by the printing presses. When the alliance was signed, the hopes of Americans soared because France was the first nation to recognize their independence and she had the military and naval power to make that recognition meaningful.

THE WAR IN THE NORTH: 1778-79

After the Battle of Saratoga, the British fought a more cautious war. Howe, encamped in Philadelphia during the winter of 1777-78, did not attempt to attack Washington's wretched men, who were starving and freezing in their winter quarters at nearby Valley Forge. In the spring of 1778, Howe was replaced by Sir Henry Clinton as commander. The spring also brought France's entry into the war and American rejection of the Carlisle Commission's peace initiatives. France's entry into the hostilities, with her powerful fleet and armies, convinced the British that Philadelphia was untenable, and Clinton began moving his army of 10,000 men across New Jersey to New York on June 18. There he was to plan a major campaign in the South, where it was believed loyalists would offer decisive aid.

At Valley Forge, Washington's forces thawed out as mild weather came on. Washington reorganized his army command by appointing Nathanael Greene and Jeremiah Wadsworth as Quartermaster-General and Commissary-General, respectively, to improve the inefficient supply system which had contributed to the army's woes during the bitter winter. Baron Frederick von Steuben, a stern Prussian drill-



Frederick Von Steuben. Courtesy National Archives.

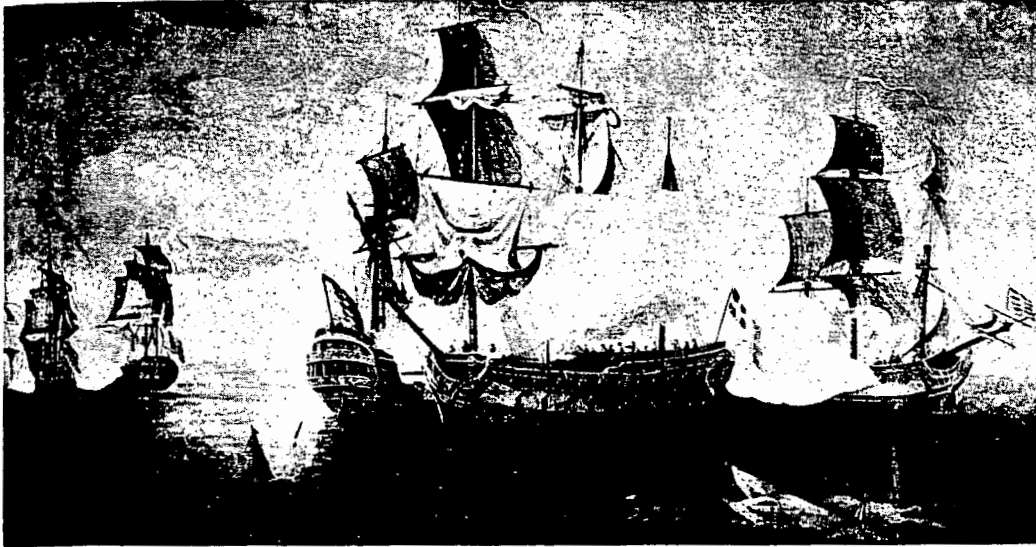


Count d'Estaing. Engraving by H. B. Hall's Sons. Courtesy National Archives.

master provided the army with disciplined tactical instruction. By June, von Steuben and the vast improvement in supply had transformed the haggard army into a competent fighting force.

When Clinton withdrew from Philadelphia, Washington, whose forces had swelled to 14,000, pursued him on a parallel route and watched for a chance to strike. On June 28 near Monmouth, General Charles Lee was assigned to attack the British rear, but upon advancing into a powerful British attack, he ordered a retreat into a safer position. This was a drawn battle in which the Americans gave a good account of themselves, repulsing heavy British counterattacks for nearly nine hours in 100-degree heat. During the night, Clinton continued his retreat, and the main body of his troops arrived safely in New York. Lee was subsequently dismissed from the service because of his misbehavior in ordering the retreat.

While the British and American armies were marching across New Jersey in the summer of 1778, a French fleet under Vice Admiral Comte d'Estaing with 16 ships and 4,000 regular troops arrived in America on July 8. Washington proposed to use them in a joint attack on New York City, but the French ships could not cross the sandbar blocking the entrance to New York Harbor. The American commander then persuaded the French to support an attack on the British garrison at Newport, Rhode Island. An American army of 9,000 men under John Sullivan landed on the island on August 9, just as a British fleet appeared. The French fleet put to sea to do battle, but on August 10-11, a storm scattered and damaged the French and British fleets. D'Estaing took



Bonhomme Richard and Serapis. Painting by Robert Dodd. Courtesy Library of Congress.

his ships to Boston to refit, and Sullivan's unsupported land forces withdrew after fighting the drawn Battle of Rhode Island on August 29 when British reinforcements arrived. The American army was saved, but, when d'Estaing sailed south to protect the French West Indies in November 1778, instead of further helping the Americans, relations between the new allies were severely strained.

The departure of the French fleet was a serious disappointment to Washington because the Americans had no means of their own to combat the British navy. It offered deadly support to British land troops along the coast, and it often sent raiding parties to devastate towns far from any army. Although the Americans commissioned over 2,000 privateers, which rendered invaluable service in disrupting the communications and supply lines of the enemy, they were too inadequate to engage the British warships in a sustained action.

The Congress had tried to create a navy in the fall of 1775, but, because of a scarcity of funds, it could scrape together only a few ships. Nevertheless, one of them, commanded by John Paul Jones, carried the war to the British Isles in the late summer of 1779. Jones raided coastal towns and seized British ships, but with the help of the French he hoped to do much more. The French navy preferred to fight its own war. In the only significant engagement in which American and French vessels fought side by side under his command, Jones got little help from his supporting force. On September 23, 1779, off the English coast in the North Sea, Jones lost his flagship, the *Bonhomme Richard*, but not before he had boarded and captured the 50-gun British *Serapis*.

Because the Americans could offer little resistance to the British navy, Clinton kept most of his troops near the coast within reach of naval assistance. Without naval help of his own, Washington dared not risk an all-out assault on the British army. After following it from New Jersey to New York, he had camped outside the city at White Plains and waited for the French fleet to return or to draw the British ships to other waters. For a year and a half, the war in the north became a stalemate while the fighting was carried on mostly by small forces remote from New York, the strategic center of the new nation.

Although Clinton spent most of the summer of 1779 in planning his southern campaign, he did venture a short distance from the New York City defenses to attack isolated American positions. In early July, he seized unfinished American works at Stony Point and Verplanck's Point on opposite sides of the Hudson River below West Point. In a daring attack at bayonet point on the night of July 15, a small force under Anthony Wayne recaptured Stony Point. The Americans could not hold the position, but the British did not thereafter reoccupy it in strength.

THE WAR IN THE WEST

While British armies were attacking the Americans along the Atlantic seaboard, the long inland frontier from Maine to Georgia was exposed to assault by Indians. Most sided with the British, and under the lead of British officers struck time and again at the frontier settlements. Fortunately for the American cause those outposts stood firm. Had they not, the coastal armies might have faced simultaneous attack from both sides. On the southwestern frontier, the Indian threat had been disposed of early in the war. Joint campaigns by Georgia, Carolina, and Virginia militia in the summer and fall of 1776 had crippled the power of the Cherokee Indians in that region and a second drive three years later completed the job.

In the north as a result of Philip Schuyler's negotiations with the Six Nations and the American invasion of Canada in 1775, the frontier was comparatively quiet until the Burgoyne campaign of 1777. The following year, the British sent a force of loyalists and Iroquois warriors to destroy settlements in the Wyoming Valley of Pennsylvania (July 3-6) and the Cherry Valley of New York (November 11). In retaliation, General John Sullivan led a 4,000-man punitive expedition into the Iroquois country in the summer of 1779, devastating 41 Indian villages and associated crops. Another force under Colonel Daniel



Anthony Wayne. Courtesy National Archives.

Brodhead marched north from Fort Pitt about the same time, destroying Seneca crops and 11 settlements around the west end of Lake Erie. These ruthless actions further escalated the cruelty of warfare in the Mohawk Valley in 1780 and the upper Hudson Valley of 1781.

In Kentucky, where settlement began simultaneously with the outbreak of hostilities, the situation was uneasy for four years. Daniel Boone's Wilderness Road became a tenuous supply line for the few Kentucky stations which stood off numerous Indian assaults. The frontiersmen realized increasingly that passive resistance would never stop the Indian attacks, but it remained for a 25-year-old Virginian, George Rogers Clark, to prove that offense was the best defense.

Clark had a bold plan for crushing British power in the Illinois Country above the Ohio River. Virginia, interested in bolstering her western land claims, agreed to support Clark's operations, though not to the extent necessary for their full realization. Setting out with less than 200 Virginia militiamen from Fort Pitt in May 1778, Clark moved west and captured the old French base of Kaskaskia on the Mississippi River on July 4. Marching northward, he took Cahokia, another British outpost on the Mississippi, four days later. Soon thereafter, Clark persuaded the inhabitants of Vincennes on the Wabash River to the east to switch their allegiance to the American cause. The British, fearful of losing their control of the old northwest, struck back in the fall of 1778 from their main base at Detroit and took Vincennes on December 17 without a fight. Clark, after a remarkable 180-mile winter march across the flooded Illinois prairie, recaptured Vincennes on February 25, 1779. While his daring subdued the northwest for a time, he lacked the men and supplies to take Detroit.



George Rogers Clark's attack on Fort Sackville. Courtesy National Archives.

THE WAR IN THE SOUTH: 1778-81

After Clinton's abortive Charleston expedition in 1776, the southern states had two years of comparative calm. Failure to win a decision in the north, however, caused the British to turn their attention southward in the fall of 1778. Two British armies, one of 3,000 men from New York City under Lt. Col. Archibald Campbell and the other of 2,000 under Gen. Augustine Prevost from East Florida, landed in Georgia in December and easily subdued the small population, many of whom were loyalists. Savannah fell on December 29, and the British quickly occupied Augusta on January 29, 1779. They abandoned the latter town within a month after an approaching North Carolina loyalist reinforcement from South Carolina was routed at Kettle Creek by American militia, under Col. Andrew Pickens, but reoccupied it a few weeks later.

General Benjamin Lincoln was sent to command American forces in South Carolina, but despite his efforts, the British, now under Prevost, temporarily besieged Charleston in May. The arrival of d'Estaing's French fleet off the Georgia coast in the fall of 1779 gave the Americans a temporary advantage, and Lincoln moved to retake Savannah. After a four-week siege, the impatient d'Estaing on October 9 ordered the combined Franco-American army of 5,500 men to attack that city garrisoned by 4,000 British troops, but was repulsed with heavy losses that included the Polish cavalryman Casimir Pulaski. For the second time d'Estaing sailed away to the West Indies. The Americans had lost the initiative again, and French and American relations were once more badly strained, as in 1778. Encouraged by the recapture of Georgia, Clinton now went ahead with the Southern campaign he had been ordered to conduct. Leaving an army equal to Washington's to hold New York, he pulled his troops out of Newport and in December 1779 sailed with an expeditionary force of 7,000 troops for Charleston, South Carolina. His army outnumbered Lincoln's 5,500-man force when it began siege operations on March 29. The American commander, bottled up within the city, surrendered his army and nearly 400 cannon on May 12, 1780. Most of the American officers, including Lt. Gov. Christopher Gadsden of South Carolina, were sent south and imprisoned at Castillo de San Marcos in St. Augustine, Florida.

The Charleston disaster left only one other organized American force in South Carolina, a small band of 380 Virginia continentals under Abraham Buford. When it was surprised and wiped out by Banastre Tarleton's British cavalry at Waxhaws on May 29, the British conquest of the south was nearly complete. But Clinton was still cautious. Departing for New York on June 8, he left Cornwallis in command, with instructions not to fan out beyond South Carolina. If the British forces were spread too thin, they might not be able to hold what they had gained.

By the time Charleston had fallen, a small force of Delaware and Maryland continentals under Johann Kalb had reached Virginia en route to reinforce Lincoln. Kalb advanced into North Carolina where on July 25 Horatio Gates the newly-appointed Commander of the Southern Department, appeared to take command of the continentals and any available militia. Gates almost immediately marched his 4,000-man army for the British base at Camden, South Carolina. Hearing of the advance, Cornwallis reinforced Camden and took personal charge of operations. When the two armies clashed a few miles to the north of Camden on August 16, Gates' poor disposition of his troops resulted in the almost complete destruction of his army. This collapse of organized American resistance, which marked a low point for the American cause in the south, brought bitter civil strife to South Carolina in



Death of De Kalb at the Battle of Camden. Engraving from painting by Alonzo Chappel. Courtesy National Archives.

which the partisan guerilla leaders Francis Marion, Thomas Sumter and Andrew Pickens were highly effective.

Cornwallis, disregarding Clinton's orders, invaded North Carolina in September, simultaneously sending Patrick Ferguson with his "American Volunteers" on a sweep through the South Carolina backcountry. Ferguson's march aroused the Virginia, Tennessee and Carolina frontiersmen, and 900 of them gathered on September 26 at Sycamore Shoals on the Watauga River in Tennessee to move across the mountains in search of Ferguson's force. When Ferguson heard of the American advance, he withdrew into South Carolina. By the night of October 6, he was encamped on the spur of King Mountain with a force totaling 1,100 men. The American army of mounted men commanded by Colonel William Campbell advanced unseen and surrounded Ferguson before the British were aware of their presence. In an hour of fierce fighting on the afternoon of October 7, the encircled loyalist volunteers put up a valiant defense but finally could resist no longer. Ferguson was killed in attempting to break through the American line, and his second in command, Captain Abraham de Peyster, soon capitulated. With losses of 28 killed and 62 wounded, the Americans captured Ferguson's entire force. After this loss, Cornwallis quickly fell back from Charlotte to Winnsboro, South Carolina. With the deteriorating situation in the south, Washington sent General Nathaniel Greene, his ablest commander, to pick up the pieces.

On December 3 when Greene reached Charlotte, North Carolina, to assume command of the southern forces, he found less than 2,500 men poorly equipped and without supplies. With the assistance of General Daniel Morgan, former leader of the Virginia riflemen, Greene built a mobile fighting unit which owed much to the southern militiamen who appeared whenever a fight was in the offing.

Greene now attempted to retain this initiative by luring Cornwallis into a series of traps, chewing off a bit of his force here and a bit there. He divided his force, advancing with one wing against the British right flank at Camden and sending Morgan with 1,000 men toward the British left at the fort known as Ninety Six. Cornwallis split his own army three ways, sending Tarleton after Morgan and reinforcing Camden while with his main body he marched northward to cut the American supply line.

On January 17, 1781, Tarleton rushed forward with characteristic impetuosity and came upon Morgan's men at the Cowpens just west of the Broad River on the North Carolina border. Morgan, on learning of Tarleton's approach, formed his men in three lines, the first two consisting of Carolina and Georgia militia and the third made up of Continentals and Virginia militia. As a reserve, he had Lieutenant Colonel William Washington's cavalry and 45 mounted militiamen under Major James McCall.

As the British closed the two forward lines of American militia each fired two volleys and then fell back as ordered, closely pursued by the British. Tarleton then made a flank attack on the third line as he simultaneously attacked it in front. When the Continentals drew back to face this flank attack, the British, mistakenly thinking them retreating, hurried forward. Just then Colonel Washington's cavalry charged the British rear and at the same time Morgan counterattacked with his reformed militia against both British flanks. The Continentals, only 30 yards off, poured in a withering fire and charged with bayonets. Doubly enveloped, Tarleton managed to escape with 200 cavalry, leaving behind 110 killed, 200 wounded and 550 captured out of an initial strength of 1,100.

Morgan, who had lost about 70 men, quickly rejoined Greene, and the American army retreated northward. Cornwallis, sternly determined that Greene should not escape, stripped his army of all non-essentials and pursued rapidly. Greene stayed just ahead of the British, meanwhile actively encouraging the guerilla leaders in Cornwallis' rear to disrupt his supply lines and harass his isolated outposts. The Americans barely won the race to the Dan River, crossing the swollen stream into Virginia only a few hours ahead of their pursuers.

Having lost his quarry, Cornwallis fell back to Hillsboro, collecting food and supplies. Greene, soon reinforced, returned to North Carolina



Charles Cornwallis. Courtesy National Archives.

to Guilford Courthouse, where he decided to make a stand. Learning early on March 15 that the British were approaching, Greene formed his 4,400-man army for battle using tactics reminiscent of those used by Morgan at Cowpens. The British attack drove back the first two militia lines, though the American volleys inflicted heavy losses. The continentals at the rear launched a counterattack, but Cornwallis' artillery fired into the mixed British and American lines, and the counter-attack ground to a halt. Greene then decided not to push his advantage, ordering a retreat rather than risking his army. Though Cornwallis held the field, more than one-fourth of this 2,000-man force were casualties and his army was so badly shattered that he moved it to Wilmington on the coast where the British navy could support and supply it.

In April 1781, the two generals turned their backs on each other. Greene headed south to pick off more British outposts in South Carolina and Georgia, while Cornwallis, again disregarding his instructions from Clinton, abandoned the Carolinas and Georgia and set out to conquer Virginia. The Americans were defeated in the Battle of Hobkirk's Hill on April 25, and a four-week siege of Ninety Six ended on June 19 in an American withdrawal when Lord Rawdon approached with British reinforcements. The Battle of Eutaw Springs on September 8, the last major engagement in South Carolina ended indecisively. Nevertheless, Greene's brilliant tactical operations led to strategic victory since by July he had pushed the British in Georgia back to Savannah and in South Carolina back to Charleston.

Meanwhile, Cornwallis had marched his army to Virginia late in May to join the British forces already there. Major British operations in Virginia had begun in October 1780 when an army under General Alexander Leslie landed at the mouth of the James River. Leslie planned a permanent occupation, but Greene's operations in South Carolina called him away within two months. Soon afterward Benedict Arnold arrived,

sporting his new insignia of a British brigadier general, with another invading army. Washington sent Lafayette with a small force to keep Arnold occupied. Although greatly outnumbered, the young Frenchman skillfully managed to keep close to Arnold without risking the loss of his men, while Arnold devastated the Virginia countryside.

When Cornwallis arrived in Virginia, he began a futile month-long pursuit of Lafayette. Having no success, the British commander withdrew to the coast. Lafayette, with 4,500 men and a gradually increasing strength, followed him closely. After fighting a brisk engagement on July 6 at Green Spring near Jamestown Island, Cornwallis crossed the James River and marched his army to Portsmouth. From there he moved to Yorktown on the Virginia Peninsula early in August. The two ports of Portsmouth and Yorktown both lay on the seacoast, the only safe place for a British army in America. But the coast would remain safe only as long as the British navy commanded the sea. Without naval support, Cornwallis could be cut off from his own forces in Charleston in the south, and, more importantly, from Clinton's forces in the north.

In New York, Clinton still watched Washington's waiting army and Washington still waited for word from the French navy. The French had sent 5,000 land troops under the Comte de Rochambeau to occupy Newport in July 1780, but the eleven warships that accompanied them under the Comte de Barras were soon bottled up inside the harbor by a superior British fleet.

VICTORY AT YORKTOWN

In May 1781, Washington learned that a French fleet of 20 warships under Admiral de Grasse was sailing from France for the West Indies and that he would detach part of his force to assist a campaign on the mainland. In conference with Rochambeau, Washington decided that this was his opportunity to close in on New York. But on August 14 word arrived that de Grasse was heading for Chesapeake Bay with his entire fleet, and would be able to stay only a short time. Washington decided immediately to give up the planned New York campaign and to dash south for a try at Cornwallis. He secretly moved his own and Rochambeau's French forces from New York to Virginia, leaving behind a part of his troops to guard West Point and watch Clinton's army in New York City. About 4,200 men under Anthony Wayne and Lafayette were already within striking distance of the enemy. DeBarras meanwhile managed to slip out of Newport and was sailing south loaded

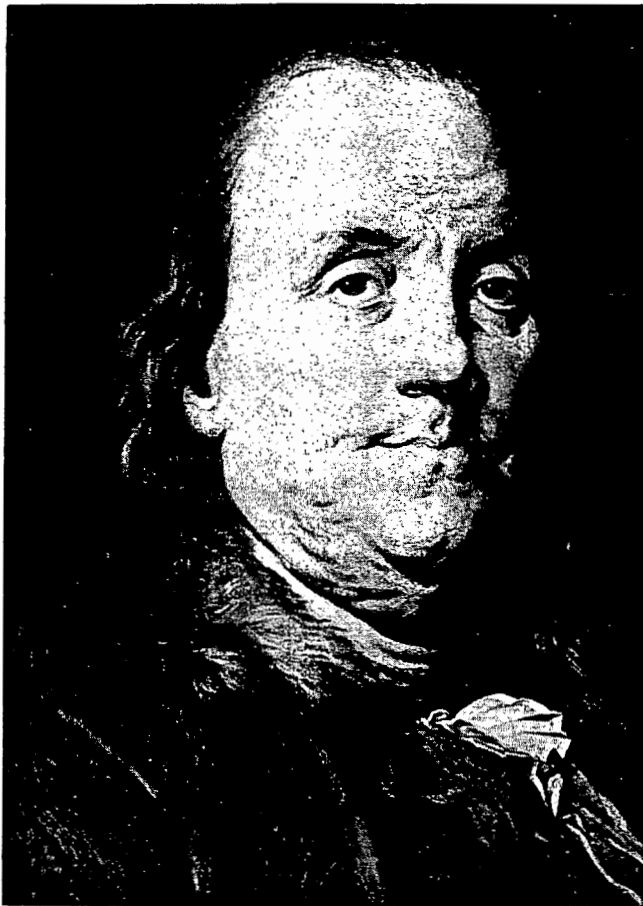
with siege guns. When the British naval squadron discovered what was taking place, they hurried to the Chesapeake to drive off Barras and de Grasse but found themselves hopelessly outnumbered and out-gunned.

Sensing that Cornwallis might soon be trapped, the British fleet went back to New York for repairs and reinforcements. Washington, with 5,700 continentals, 3,100 militia and 7,000 French troops began to close in on Yorktown. Siege operations began in late September, and Cornwallis soon recognized the hopelessness of his position. Heavy fighting occurred on October 14 in which a trusted aide of Washington, Lieutenant Colonel Alexander Hamilton, distinguished himself. On October 19, when a relief expedition was already under way from New York, Cornwallis surrendered his surrounded army. With the bands playing "The World Turned Upside Down," 7,000 Redcoats marched to a field outside Yorktown and stacked their arms in surrender.

The capitulation of Cornwallis marked the end of major military operations in America, although bitter small actions continued sporadically along the western frontier for two more years. After the defeat at Yorktown, most Englishmen were ready to give up the struggle for the colonies, though George III was still determined to continue it. On March 20, 1782, Lord North was forced from office, and the king was obliged to accept a ministry favorable to peace, which soon sent agents to get in touch with the American commissioners in Paris.

THE PEACE OF PARIS: 1783

In anticipation of a successful conclusion of the war in June 1781, the French ambassador to the United States, the Chevalier de la Luzerne, persuaded Congress to make arrangements for making peace. Congress accordingly appointed a five-man commission consisting of John Adams, John Jay (minister to Spain), Benjamin Franklin (minister to France), Henry Laurens (designated as minister to the Netherlands but captured by the British en route and imprisoned in the Tower of London) and Thomas Jefferson (who was unable to go because of the death of his wife). The three commissioners were instructed to insist on British recognition of American independence before undertaking peace negotiations, but they were free to accept any settlement that the mediating powers might direct. Furthermore, because of the Treaty of Alliance of 1778, they were not to negotiate without the knowledge and concurrence of the French.



Benjamin Franklin.
Painting by Joseph
Duplessis. Courtesy
National Archives.

These weak instructions put the commissioners under the direction of Vergennes, a position that limited their effectiveness. When secret information reached them that he would not support the American demand for prior recognition of independence, and that his secretary, Rayneval, had privately encouraged the British to think of a boundary well to the east of the Mississippi River with Spain and England dividing up the territory in between, they decided that it would be better to negotiate with the British separately. Violating their instructions, they negotiated secretly with British representatives without insisting on advance recognition of independence.

As the peace negotiations dragged on, many Americans became impatient and discouraged. The continental army encamped at New Windsor, New York during the fall and winter of 1782-83 was growing discontented with the slowness of the negotiations, spiraling inflation and lack of adequate pensions. Rumors of incipient mutiny were even heard among the officers, but Washington quelled the dissatisfaction in a dramatic personal appeal to his officers on March 15, 1783.

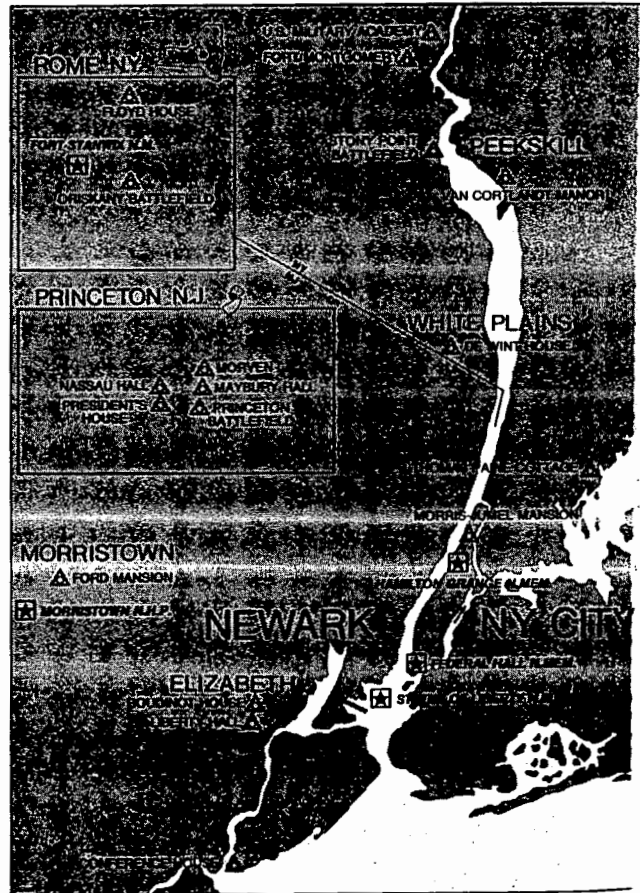
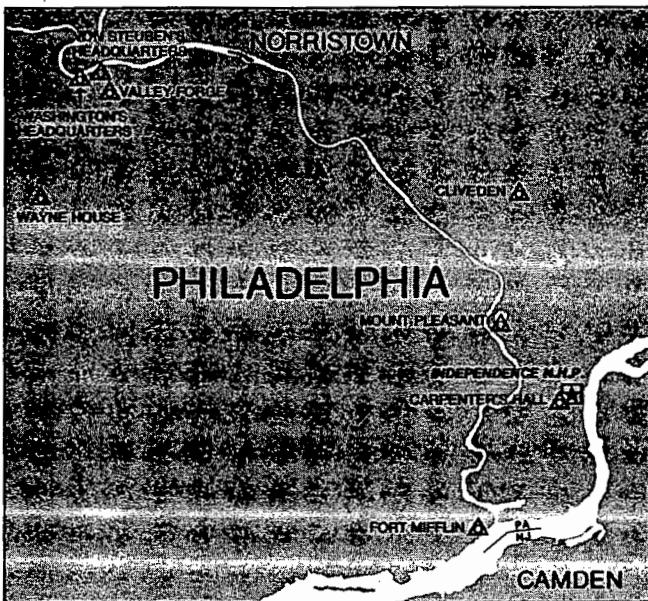
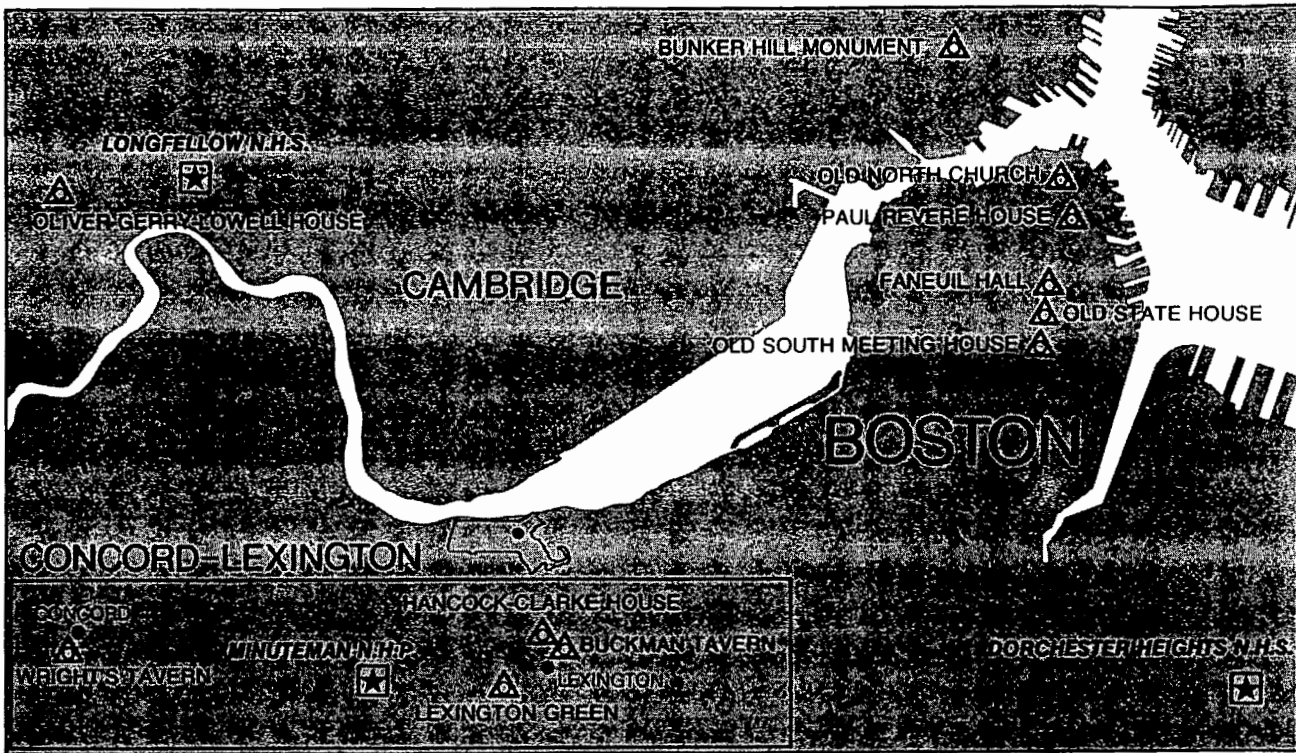
By playing on British desires to destroy the American alliance with France, the American commissioners were able to secure both recognition of independence and the boundaries that Congress had earlier

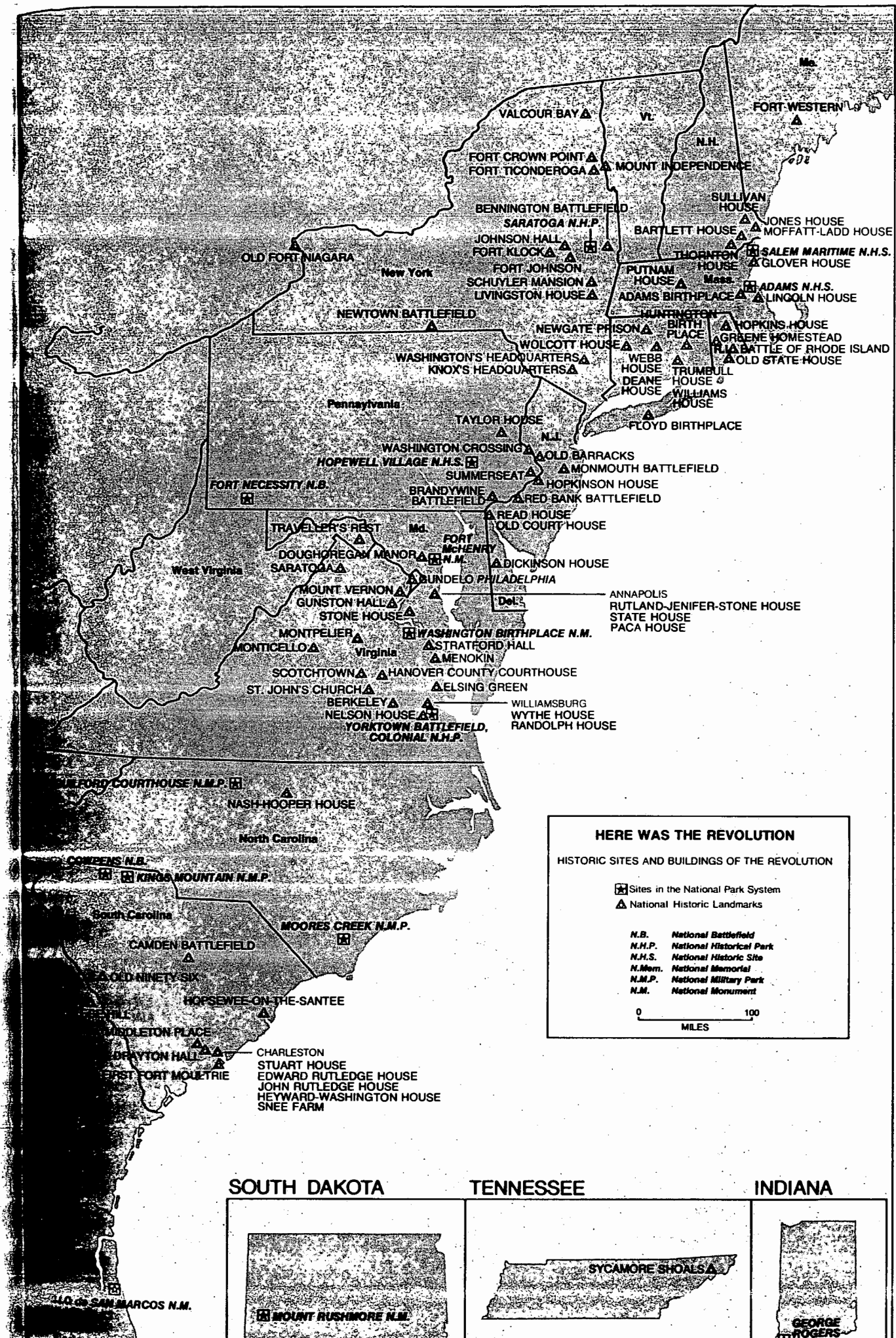
prescribed. The new nation was to be bounded on the west by the Mississippi River, on the south by the 31st parallel and the Flint and St. Mary's Rivers in Florida, and roughly the present boundary on the north. In preliminary articles signed on November 30, 1782, the commissioners presented this diplomatic triumph to Vergennes as an accomplished fact. Actually there had been no violation of the alliance, for the treaty based on the articles was not to go into effect until France and England had concluded a treaty of their own. The final treaties were signed at Paris on September 3, 1783, and the last British troops in the United States left New York City on November 25.

The Declaration of Independence was finally a statement of fact, not a wish. After more than eight and half years of bloodshed since the first shots had been fired at Lexington Green, Americans were at last able to explore the possibilities of freedom. Now Americans could formulate ideas and ideals that had been only half articulated, and they could search out ways and means to put them into practice.

Part 2

Historic Sites and Buildings of the Revolution





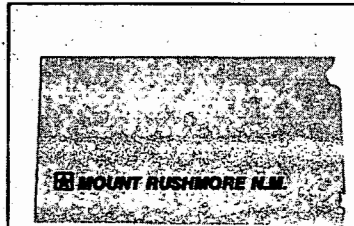
HERE WAS THE REVOLUTION
 HISTORIC SITES AND BUILDINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

[Square with 'X'] Sites in the National Park System
 [Triangle] National Historic Landmarks

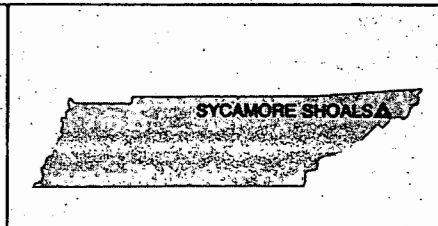
N.B. National Battlefield
 N.H.P. National Historical Park
 N.H.S. National Historic Site
 N.Mem. National Memorial
 N.M.P. National Military Park
 N.M. National Monument

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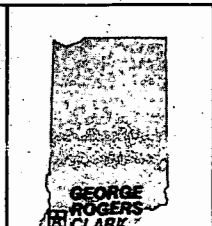
SOUTH DAKOTA



TENNESSEE



INDIANA



For the convenience of users of this volume, sites and buildings are listed alphabetically by State. The following code indicates site categories:

☒ NATIONAL PARK SERVICE AREAS

△ NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARKS

EDITOR'S NOTE

The following descriptions include information on those sites that are open to the public. Before visiting any of them, inquiry should be made to the owners or custodians concerning dates and hours of access and admission costs, usually nominal. Special permission must be obtained to visit privately owned sites.



Governor Jonathan Trumbull House. Courtesy Connecticut Department of Commerce.

Governor Jonathan Trumbull House, Connecticut ▲

Location: New London County, on the Common, Lebanon. Ownership: Connecticut Daughters of the American Revolution.

Built between 1735-40, this house was the residence of Jonathan Trumbull, Governor of Connecticut (1769-84), for nearly 50 years. When fighting broke out in 1775, he threw himself at once into the support of the Continental Army, and when independence was proclaimed, welcomed its declaration. Close to several major fields of military operations, Connecticut, under Trumbull's supervision, became a principal source of men and supplies for the American armies. When he was notified by General George Washington of the inadequacy of the army in August 1776, Trumbull called for nine more militia regiments of 350 men each, in addition to the five Connecticut regiments already supplied. These troops arrived at New York just in time to meet the British advance.

This house was also the birthplace and boyhood home of Governor Trumbull's three sons: Joseph, who served as Commissary-General

of the Continental Army from 1775 to 1777; Jonathan, Paymaster of the Continental Army in the Northern Department from 1775 to 1778; and John, Aide-de-Camp to Generals Washington, Gates, Arnold and Sullivan. A noted painter of the Revolution, John was employed by Congress in 1817 to paint four pictures for the rotunda of the Capitol: "The Declaration of Independence," "Surrender of Burgoyne," "Surrender of Cornwallis," and "Resignation of Washington at Annapolis."

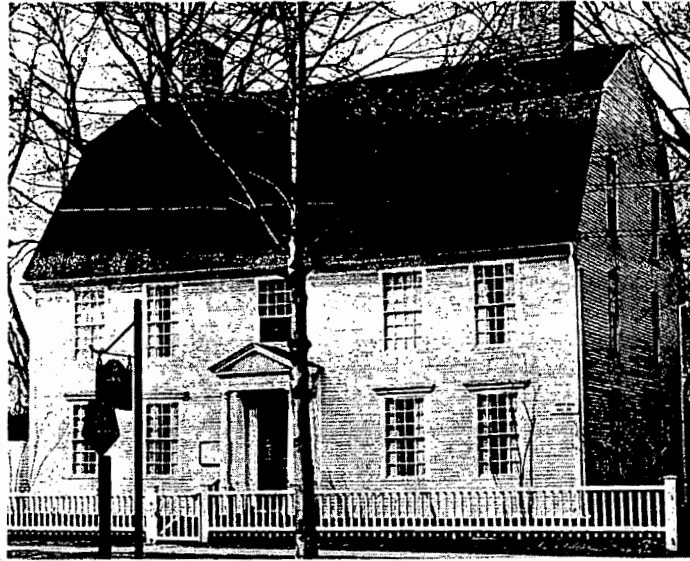
The Governor Jonathan Trumbull House is a two-story, five-bay-wide frame house of Georgian design with clapboarded walls, a gable roof and a central chimney. In 1830 the house was moved a short distance from its original site at the intersection of Town Street and Colchester Road. The little-altered structure was acquired by the Connecticut Daughters of the American Revolution in 1934. The restored house is open to visitors as a historic house exhibit and contains some of the original Trumbull furnishings.

Joseph Webb House, Connecticut ▲

Location: Hartford County, 211 Main Street, Wethersfield. Ownership: Connecticut State Society of the Colonial Dames of America.

In the spring of 1781, when the weight of active campaigning had shifted to Virginia and the Carolinas, Washington's army lay inactive in and around West Point. It was obvious that a combined offensive must be undertaken by the allies if the American cause were not to languish. War weariness had settled on the land, and much of the continental army was scattered along the frontier and in the south. The Webb House, in Wethersfield, Connecticut, was destined to be the scene of a conference that started the Americans and their French allies on the road to victory.

Washington learned in the middle of May that Count de Rochambeau, the French commander in America, desired a meeting to discuss the plan of campaign. Washington immediately accepted this opportunity to break the stalemate. The old Connecticut town of Wethersfield, lying about halfway between Washington's Hudson River headquarters at New Windsor and Rochambeau's headquarters at Newport, was selected as the place of meeting. On May 22, the French general confirmed that a French fleet was en route to the West Indies and would be off the American coast by midsummer. Here at last lay an opportunity for concerted action. Rochambeau, however, gave Admiral de Grasse, the French naval commander, the option of joining the allied forces against the British in New York or in Virginia.



Joseph Webb House.
Courtesy Connecticut Department of Commerce.

As a result of the conference Rochambeau brought his forces, numbering nearly 5,000 men, to join Washington in New York. Part of the original plan of attack by the allies was aimed at the British forts on Manhattan Island, but after thorough reconnaissance of the British fortified lines the effort was abandoned, and Washington turned his attention to the developing situation in the south. On August 14 Rochambeau heard from Admiral de Grasse that the fleet, with a strong land force aboard, would sail from the West Indies for Chesapeake Bay, where it would be available only until October. Washington acted quickly to take advantage of this substantial reinforcement. He notified de Grasse that the Franco-American Army would march south to cooperate with the fleet in cornering Cornwallis in Virginia. If the trap failed, an attack on Charleston could be undertaken. This decision bore fruit in the entrapment and surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Although it is too much to say that the conference in the Webb House laid the specific plans for the victorious Yorktown campaign, it nevertheless marked the implementation of the Franco-American alliance in terms of actual field operations. The American and French armies were united in time for them to move south and operate in conjunction with the French fleet from the West Indies.

Built by Joseph Webb in 1752, the main house is a large frame, two-and-one-half story structure with a steep gambrel roof. The building's impression of height is increased by the graduation of its clapboards, which are very narrow at the bottom. The foundations are of brownstone, and the simple but well-proportioned facade has only a narrow central pedimented porch supported by two round Tuscan columns. The small frame two-story service ell located at the southwest corner of the main house was built in 1678 as a dwelling.

The house has the typical central floor plan for a Georgian residence with two interior chimneys. The south parlor, to the left of the front door, is identified traditionally as the 1781 conference room. The house is excellently furnished, mostly by gifts from the members of the Society of Colonial Dames. Several items of furniture, silver and china belonged to the Webb family. The Webb House is open to visitors as a historic house museum and is the headquarters of the Connecticut State Society of the Colonial Dames of America.

Newgate Prison, Connecticut ▲

Location: Hartford County, Newgate Road, East Granby. Ownership: State of Connecticut.

Used from 1775 to 1782 as a prison for British soldiers, loyalists and other political offenders, Newgate Prison and Copper Mine was undoubtedly the most horrible of its kind in British North America. The Copper Hill Mines, variously called the Granby Copper Mines and the Simsbury Mines, were chartered in 1707 and worked until 1745. This is believed to be the first operating copper mine in the British North American colonies. In 1773 the mine was purchased by the Colony of Connecticut and put to use as its first prison. The prisoners were housed largely underground, and, from 1775 to 1778, they were employed to work the mine. When this venture proved unprofitable, the mining effort was abandoned. The prison was abandoned in 1827, when the new State Prison was opened at Wethersfield.



Newgate Prison.

The mines were revived briefly in 1830-37 and again in 1855-57. Since that time the property has passed between private and public ownership several times. Newgate Prison and Copper Mine was acquired by the Connecticut Historical Commission in 1968, and the property is undergoing an extensive program of restoration and stabilization.

The State Historic Site consists of about five acres of land. The mine and the tunnels in which the Revolutionary War prisoners were incarcerated deep underground have survived virtually intact. Most of the existing stone and brick buildings were constructed in the period 1790-92, and the great wall enclosing the prison was erected in 1802. The structures include a smith and cooper's shop; a brick house formerly occupied by the prison guards; a two-story building formerly occupied by the cabinet, wagon and shoemaker shops, together with the prison kitchen; and a four-story building erected for a treadmill and cell blocks.

The mine consists of a vertical shaft sunk into the western side of Talcott Mountain. A number of additional shafts also were sunk. These were subsequently used as ventilation shafts and walls. Horizontal tunneling from the base of the main shaft created a series of inner-connected caverns, each about five feet high, in which the prisoners were housed. Since the mine opened in 1707, the only access has been a ladder attached to the side of a vertical shaft more than 20 feet deep. It was by this means that prisoners and guards entered and left "Hell," as the shaft and tunnels were known in Revolutionary War times.

Oliver Wolcott House, Connecticut ▲

Location: Litchfield County, east side of South Street, nearly opposite its intersection with Wolcott Avenue, Litchfield. Ownership: private.

This structure was the home of Oliver Wolcott from 1753 until his death in 1797. He was a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Connecticut. After graduating from Yale College in 1747, he studied medicine for several years. In 1751 he moved to Litchfield, where his father owned property, and became its first sheriff, an office he held for 20 years.

Wolcott was elected deputy for Litchfield in 1764, 1767-68 and 1770. He was a member of the Connecticut upper house from 1771 to 1786, during which time he also served as Judge of the Court of Probate for Litchfield (1772-81) and Judge of the County Courts in Litchfield (1774-78). As a delegate to the Continental Congress from October



Oliver Wolcott House.

1775 to 1783, except for the year 1779, he participated in the early debates over the Declaration of Independence, but left Philadelphia because of illness at the end of June. His substitute, William Williams, signed the document in his stead, and when Wolcott returned on October 1 he also was permitted to sign. Throughout the Revolution, he attended the Continental Congress from three to six months every winter or spring. His summers usually were devoted to active military service in the militia.

Wolcott became a major in the Connecticut militia in 1771 and a colonel in 1774. In August 1776 he commanded as brigadier-general the 14 militia regiments sent to New York to reinforce General Israel Putnam on the Hudson River. That December he was put in command of the 6th militia brigade in northwestern Connecticut. On September 25, 1777, he led a force of 309 mounted volunteers from his brigade to reinforce General Horatio Gates' army on the Hudson in northern New York against Burgoyne. Arriving at Bemis Heights on October 4, Wolcott took command of a 1,200-man Connecticut militia brigade comprised of his volunteers and several other regiments. Thus, he was present at the Second Battle of Freeman's Farm on October 7 and at the surrender of Burgoyne's army at Saratoga ten days later. As a major general of militia in 1779, Wolcott had the task of defending the Connecticut seacoast against Tyron's raids.

After the treaty of peace was signed, Wolcott resigned from Congress, although in 1784-85 he did serve as one of its commissioners to negotiate a treaty of peace with the Six Nations at Fort Stanwix, New York. In 1787, he was chosen lieutenant-governor by the state legislature and on Samuel Huntington's death in January 1796, Wolcott succeeded to the governorship. In May of that year, he was elected governor in his own right and held that office until his death on December 1, 1797.

Built by Oliver Wolcott in 1753, this residence is a two-story rectangular frame structure with a gable roof, large central chimney and slight overhangs at the gable ends. A small one-and-one-half story frame wing with gambrel roof, built on the main axis, adjoins the south end of the main house. Added around 1783, a one-story porch with coved roof extends across the front facade of the wing, containing one room on each floor. The walls of the main house and wing are covered with clapboard, and the windows are adorned with exterior louvered shutters. While the front and end elevations of the main house have undergone few alterations, a large two-story frame service wing was added to the rear of the main house in the 1880's, thus giving the structure its present L-shape.

The main house has a typical central chimney floor plan with the rooms arranged in two tiers. A short central hall extends back to the center chimney and contains the original stairway. The dining room to the left and the parlor to the right both have fully paneled fireplace walls. Back of the parlor, an open hall leads on the right to the bedroom in the south wing, and on the left, to the original kitchen which contains a large fireplace. Upstairs there are four bedrooms, two of which have paneled overmantels, in the main house and one in the south wing.

The house was acquired by the present owner, a direct descendent of Oliver Wolcott, and restored about 1920. In excellent condition, the structure is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

Samuel Huntington Birthplace, Connecticut ▲

Location: Windham County, on Highway 14, .2 miles west of its junction with Conn. 97, Scotland. Ownership: private.

This home was the birthplace and boyhood home from 1731 to 1747, of Samuel Huntington, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Connecticut. In the latter year, at the age of 16, he was apprenticed to a cooper and served out his term. Self-educated, Huntington was admitted to the bar and began a law practice in 1758. He took up residence in Norwichtown, Connecticut, in 1760 and married Martha Devotion

of Windham (now Scotland) in 1761. They had no children of their own but adopted two children of his brother.

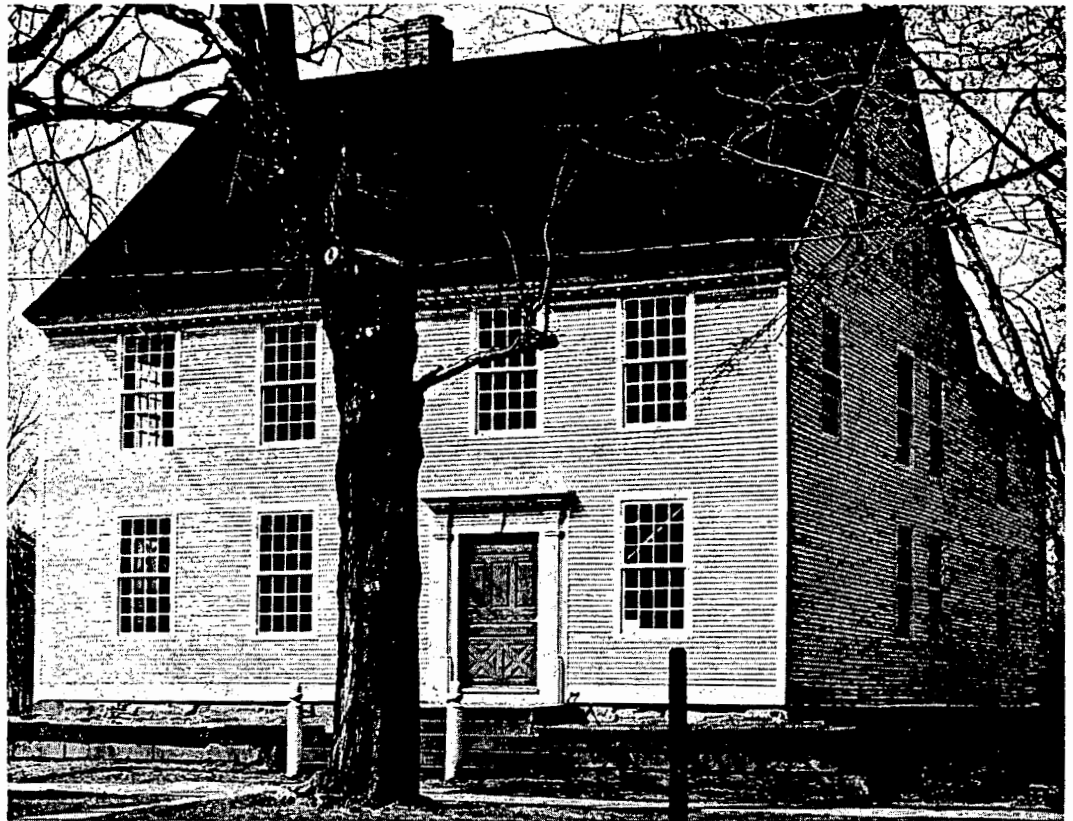
In 1764, Huntington represented Norwich in the Connecticut General Assembly. From 1765 to 1774, he was the king's attorney for Connecticut and from 1765 to 1775 a justice of the peace for New London County. From 1773 to 1783, he served as a judge of the superior courts. Huntington was elected to a seat in the upper house of the Connecticut legislature in 1775 and served as a member in that body until 1784. In 1775, he was a delegate to the Second Continental Congress, and he remained in Congress until 1784. During this time, he served as president of the Continental Congress from September 1779 until July 1781, when he resigned from this latter position because of ill health.

Following the Revolutionary War in 1784, Huntington was appointed chief justice of the Superior Court of Connecticut. In 1785, he was chosen lieutenant governor and from 1786-96 he served as governor of his State. He died at Norwichtown, Connecticut, on January 5, 1796, and was buried in the cemetery of the First Congregational Church of Norwichtown.

Built in the period 1700-1722, the Samuel Huntington Birthplace is a large two-story frame house of salt-box design with a gable roof sloping steeply in the rear and a large stone central chimney. The exterior walls are clapboarded, the windows are topped by projecting cornices and the center door is surmounted by a rectangular transom. A small one-story kitchen wing was added to the east end of the main house early in the 19th century. The little altered house has never been restored. In good condition and still used as a farmhouse, it is not open to visitors. A State highway historical marker in front of the house identifies the structure as the Huntington birthplace.



Samuel Huntington
Birthplace.



Silas Deane House. Courtesy Connecticut Department of Commerce.

Silas Deane House, Connecticut ▲

Location: Hartford County, 203 Main Street, Wethersfield. Ownership: Connecticut State Society of the Colonial Dames of America.

This house was the residence from 1766 to 1783 of Silas Deane, the first envoy of the United States abroad. As a "commercial agent" of the Continental Congress, he did important work in France in 1776-78 by fitting out privateers and securing military aid for the struggling colonies, and particularly in helping to create the machinery for later assistance.

A wealthy lawyer, Deane began his public career in 1769 as a chairman of a local committee to enforce a non-consumption agreement to help defeat the Townshend Acts. He was a member of the Connecticut General Assembly in 1772-76 and of the Continental Congress in 1774-76. Just before leaving for Philadelphia in May 1775, Deane, with two other Connecticut men, assumed the responsibility of sending the force under Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold which resulted in the capture of Fort Ticonderoga.

On March 3, 1776, the Continental Congress selected Deane to go to France with instructions to secure military and financial assistance and sound out the French government on the possibilities of an alliance. Be-

fore he landed in France on May 4, the French king had already decided to encourage the American rebels with secret shipments of sorely needed munitions, money and supplies. Pierre Augustin Caron de Beaumarchais, working for the French government and with Silas Deane through the bogus private firm called the Roderique Hortalez et Compagnie, succeeded in sending eight shiploads of military supplies, the first reaching Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in March 1777. These reached the colonies in time to be of decisive help in the Saratoga campaign of 1777. Besides sending these supplies, Deane commissioned and sent over a large number of European military officers, some of whom, especially Lafayette, DeKalb, von Steuben and Pulaski, gave valuable help to the American cause.

Congress appointed the first official commission, composed of Deane, Benjamin Franklin and Arthur Lee, on September 26, 1776. Aided by the capture of Burgoyne's entire army at Saratoga on October 17, 1777, these commissioners signed two treaties with France on February 6, 1778, one of commerce and the other providing for an alliance.

Deane soon returned home to answer accusations against him by Arthur Lee that he had personally profited by his transactions with the French government. Unable to get an audience in Congress or effect a settlement for the recovery of his own funds that he had invested in the American cause, Deane went to Europe in 1781 where he wrote a series of letters to friends in America urging them to work for reconciliation with England. Despised by the Americans and unrewarded by the British, Deane lived as an exile, financially bankrupt and broken in health, for a short time in Ghent and for a few years in Great Britain until his death in 1789.

The Silas Deane House is a large frame two-story, L-shaped dwelling with a gable roof and two interior chimneys, asymmetrically arranged. Built by Deane in 1766, its plan is believed to have been based on that of a Philadelphia townhouse. The Georgian structure has a simple exterior and elaborate interiors. The front facade is asymmetrical, with the entrance door located in the second bay from the right hand corner. Inside a fine stairway with elaborate balusters rises against the north wall. The family room, parlor and library on the first floor all have Portland marble mantels flanked by pilasters and their fireplace walls are fully paneled. Other walls are plastered, with wainscoting and exposed corner posts. Upstairs there are four bedrooms in the main house and one over the large kitchen in the rear ell.

The Silas Dean House was donated to the National Society of the Colonial Dames of America in the State of Connecticut in 1959, and the structure was restored in 1963-65. The house, which is open to visitors, contains some original Deane pieces as well as original portraits of Silas Deane and his wife.



William Williams House.

William Williams House, Connecticut ▲

Location: New London County, intersection of State routes 207 and 87, Lebanon. Ownership: private.

William Williams, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Connecticut, graduated from Harvard College in 1751. He took part in the military operations at Lake George, New York, during the French and Indian War in 1755. At the conclusion of this campaign, he returned to Lebanon and soon set up in business as a merchant.

Williams held many offices during his career of public service. From 1760-95, he was a selectman for Lebanon and town clerk during 1752-96. He served as a member of the Connecticut lower house from 1757 to 1776 and from 1781 to 1784, and he was a member of the governor's council from 1784 to 1803.

Williams threw himself into the Revolutionary cause, composing many state papers for Governor Trumbull and also using his own assets to raise money to cover the cost of sending troops to aid in the capture of Ticonderoga in 1775. During 1776-78 and 1783-84, Williams attended the Continental Congress, where he signed the Declaration and assisted in framing the Articles of Confederation. In 1788, he was a delegate to the Connecticut Convention at Hartford and voted to ratify the new Federal Constitution. From 1776 to 1805, he was judge of Windham County Court, and from 1775 to 1809 was judge of probate for the Windham District.

The Reverend Solomon Williams purchased this house in 1748 and gave it to his son William seven years later. It is a rectangular two-story frame structure with gable roof and two interior chimneys set back of the ridge. A long one-and-one-half story frame service wing projects from the center of the rear elevation of the house. The original exterior clapboard siding, covered over with asbestos shingles since the 1930's, has recently been exposed again. The central doorway, located in the front facade and Greek Revival in style, is framed by a pair of pilasters and sidelights and crowned by a cornice with a wide, wooden elliptical arch carved on its face. This entranceway was inserted around 1830.

The house has a center hall plan; the hall extends through the house and there is one room on either side. The original stairway is set against the left wall of the hall. To the right of the hall is the living room, and to the left is the parlor, where original paneling still covers the entire fireplace wall. Of the six original fireplaces in the house, all but the one in the kitchen have been closed up, although their original mantels are still in place. The original wide board floors also extend throughout the house. Upstairs there are two large bedrooms, each with a fully paneled fireplace wall. The first floor of the rear service wing contains the dining room and kitchen and above there are four small bedrooms.

Still in good condition, the house has never been restored. The structure is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

George Read House (Stonum), Delaware ▲

Location: New Castle County, Ninth and Washington Streets, New Castle: Ownership: private.

George Read, born in Maryland and educated in Philadelphia, became one of the two or three most significant figures in Delaware political affairs from the late 1760's until the 1790's. He served Delaware in a great variety of ways during the Revolutionary period, especially when morale fell dangerously low after the capture of Wilmington. It was Read who, in James Peeling's words, succeeded in gradually "injecting a new spirit into the state." A moderate in the face of deteriorating relations with England, Read protested the Stamp Act and advocated nonimportation for New Castle County, but in the Second Continental Congress he declined to vote for the Declaration of Independence. Nevertheless, once it was adopted, he signed the document and became a stalwart partisan of separation from England. A primary figure in the Delaware Constitutional Convention, he played a leading role in



Stonum. Courtesy Historical Society of Delaware.

drawing up the new State constitution in 1776. Thereafter, he served in the Legislative Council and then as vice president and president of the State. During the troubled times after the capture of Wilmington in 1777, Read was active in raising troops, clothing and provisions for the American troops.

Although Read had reservations about certain aspects of the Articles of Confederation, he drafted the act authorizing the Delaware delegation to sign. In 1782, he returned to the Legislative Council and also began sitting as a judge in admiralty cases which came before the Court of Appeals. In 1786, he represented Delaware at the Annapolis Convention and the following year attended the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia. After playing a leading role in persuading Delaware to ratify the Constitution, he served in the United States Senate until 1793. In that year, he resigned to become chief justice of Delaware, a post he held until his death five years later.

Stonum, which is Read's only home now extant, served as his country retreat in the late 1750's and 1760's. The oldest portion of the structure, the part to the right-rear which is now occupied by the kitchen, dates from around 1730. The front portion of the house was built sometime prior to 1769, when Read sold his country property.

Two-and-one-half stories with a four-bay facade, Stonum was basically L-shaped, though with a rather unconventional floor plan. There is no staircase in the axial hall, perhaps because it is uncommonly narrow. Instead, the stairs run on the interwall of the east corner room, the foot being to the right of the original front door. These stairs have an open stringer, moulded handrail and balusters, and paneled wainscoting. In 1850, a room was added in the northwest corner in the crook of the "L." Most of the original brick superstructure has been stuccoed and painted yellow, and a large cinderblock front porch was added in the 1920's. Noteworthy original features of the main wing include the



John Dickinson House.

corner fireplaces, the detailed woodwork and elegant mantles, the 1½-inch red pine flooring, the wooden cornice with its modillion course and the exceptionally high “nine-over-nine” windows of the facade. The house, which has never been restored, is still used as a private residence and is closed to visitors.

John Dickinson House, Delaware

Location: Kent County, 5 miles southeast of Dover, .3 mile east of U. S. 113 on Kitts Hummock Road. Ownership: State of Delaware.

John Dickinson is known as the “Penman of the Revolution.” One writer has said, “in the literature of that struggle, his position is as pre-eminent as Washington in war, Franklin in diplomacy, and Morris in finance.” Thomas Jefferson commented that “his home will be consecrated in history as one of the great worthies of the Revolution.” The restored John Dickinson House in Dover is the surviving structure most intimately associated with him.

The house was built in 1740 by his father, and young Dickinson lived there until he was 18 in 1750, when he left for Philadelphia to study law. Dickinson lived here at various times after 1750, although his role in public life kept him most of the time in Philadelphia, Wilmington and elsewhere. The house was also the boyhood home of Dickinson’s brother, Philemon, who became a major general and the commander-in-chief of the New Jersey militia during the revolution.

Dickinson’s career is briefly summarized: He read law with John Moland in Philadelphia, studied at London’s Middle Temple and in 1757 began the practice of law in Philadelphia. He was a prolific writer of political pamphlets, then the chief medium of argument and exposi-

tion and he served in the colonial assemblies in both Delaware and Pennsylvania. His convictions were generally conservative and he disliked violence, but as a member of the Stamp Act Congress in 1765 he helped draft the Declaration of Rights and the Petition to the King adopted by that body.

In 1768 he published *Letters from a Farmer in Pennsylvania to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies*, denying the authority of Parliament to levy both internal and external taxes but suggesting force only as an ultimate remedy. As leader of the conservative faction which opposed both British colonial policy and the radicals' drive for independence, and because he was fearful of a war in which Americans would have neither allies nor a central government, Dickinson refused to sign the Declaration of Independence. Nevertheless, he headed the committee which made the first draft of the Articles of Confederation in July 1776, and he was one of the few members of Congress who entered upon active duty with the army during the war.

After the conflict ended Dickinson continued in the public affairs of both Delaware and Pennsylvania until his death in 1808. He headed the Delaware delegation to the Annapolis Convention in 1786 and was elected chairman. In this capacity he presented the report recommending the Constitutional Convention to be held in Philadelphia in 1787, where he was a leader in fighting for the rights of small States and in urging prompt ratification of the Constitution. Delaware was the first State to ratify.

The Dickinson mansion near Dover, its Flemish-bond front facing south, is one of the most interesting architectural examples of the plantation house of the region. Cultivated fields all around it produce a scene similar to that of the plantation period.

As originally built in 1739-40, the main structure was brick, Georgian in design and three full stories high over an elevated basement with hip roof. Two, two-story wings were added to the west end in 1752 and 1754. A fire gutted the house in 1804, leaving little but the four walls, after which it was restored under Dickinson's close supervision. The main house was reduced to its present two stories and covered with a gable roof. The interior of the rebuilt house was substantial but plain in keeping with its intended use from this time as a tenant house.

The National Society of Colonial Dames of America presented \$25,000 to the State of Delaware in 1952 to preserve the Dickinson House when it was threatened with destruction. The State matched this donation with a similar amount, the house and surrounding tract were acquired, and the house was restored to its appearance as Dickinson last knew it. The reconstruction was based on Dickinson's correspondence and written instructions during the period 1804-06.

Materials of the original structure were reused when found in good condition. A furnishing committee provided the interior with items typical of the region, some of which once belonged to the Dickinson family. A garden adjacent to the house has been developed with the aid of garden clubs and by private donations. The house has been open to visitors since 1956.

Old Court House, Delaware ▲

Location: New Castle County, Delaware Street, New Castle. Ownership: State of Delaware.

Old Court House served as the seat of the colonial and revolutionary governments of the assembly of the three lower counties of Delaware from 1704-77. Here on September 10, 1776, a convention framed the first State constitution and adopted the name of "Delaware State." The following month on October 28, the first State legislature under the new constitution assembled here. On May 12, 1777, the seat of government was transferred from New Castle to Dover, where it remains to this day. From 1777 to 1881, the structure was the headquarters of the New Castle County courts and administration.

The large two-and-one-half-story central section of the early Georgian courthouse was built about 1730. Its walls are constructed of Flemish bond brickwork with glazed headers, and it has a symmetrical five-bay-wide facade with a central doorway topped by a pediment and flanked by pilasters. There is a small balcony over this entrance. At the second floor level, there is a decorative belt course of brick which is



Old Court House. Courtesy State of Delaware, Department of State.

“stepped” at the corners. The present gambrel roof and arcaded octagonal cupola both date from 1771 and were built to replace the originals that were destroyed by fire in that year.

The right wing was built prior to 1704 and is a two-story brick structure four-bays wide with a gable roof and end chimney. The left brick wing, five bays wide, was erected in 1845 and is also two stories high with a gable roof and end chimney.

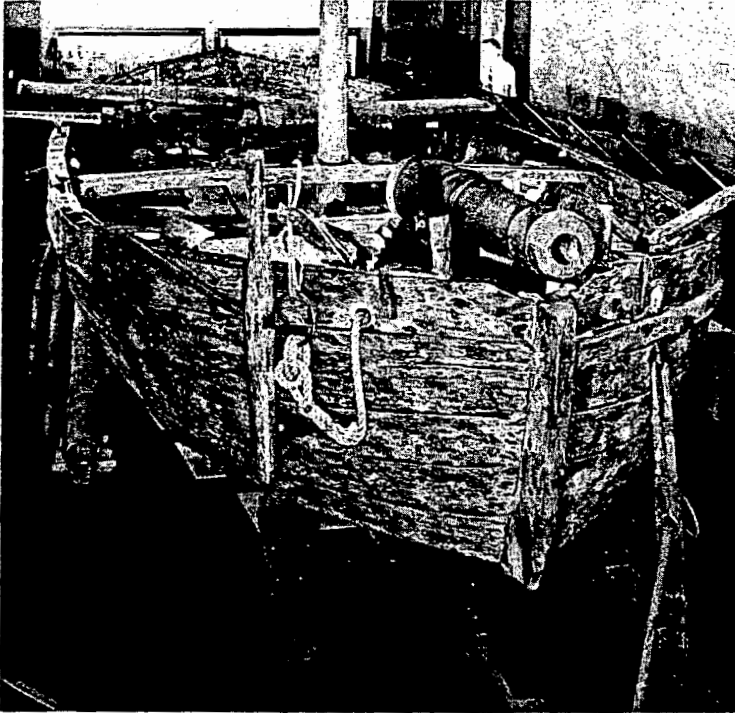
The interior of Old Court House has undergone many alterations since 1881 when the county courts were transferred to Wilmington. The structure was restored in the period 1955-63 to its 18th-century appearance both in its interior and exterior. The central portion has been restored as a courthouse and serves as a museum and information center for visitors. The right wing contains the mayor's office, and the left wing has two small shops.

Gundelo Philadelphia, Washington, D.C. ▲

Location: Museum of History and Technology, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C. Ownership: U. S. Government.

The U.S. Gundelo *Philadelphia* is the only surviving gunboat built and manned by American forces during the Revolutionary War. Moreover, the vessel is one of the 15 small craft with which Benedict Arnold fought 29 British vessels in the battle off Valcour Island, Lake Champlain, on October 11, 1776. The year of grace won by the building of Arnold's "fleet," and the battle off Valcour Island paved the way for the decisive American victory at Saratoga in the autumn of the following year.

Little more than a rowboat compared with modern vessels, the *Philadelphia* was one of the hastily built fleet constructed in the early summer of 1776 at present Whitehall, New York. In late September 1776, the fleet took station in a small bay west of Valcour Island, about seven miles south of what is now Plattsburgh, New York. The sound between the island and the mainland was about three-quarters of a mile wide, divided by a high bluff projecting from the west side of the island. Arnold's fleet formed a line south of the bluff and in this position on October 11 fought the heavier British fleet to a standstill. The American force was badly damaged in the action, and only with considerable luck did Arnold elude the enemy and escape southward during the night. The *Royal Savage*, the former American flagship, was lost, and the *Philadelphia* was sunk on October 11, and only four of Arnold's vessels managed to escape the British pursuit during the next two days. Fifty Americans were killed and 104 captured. The British had two vessels sunk and 26 men killed or wounded.

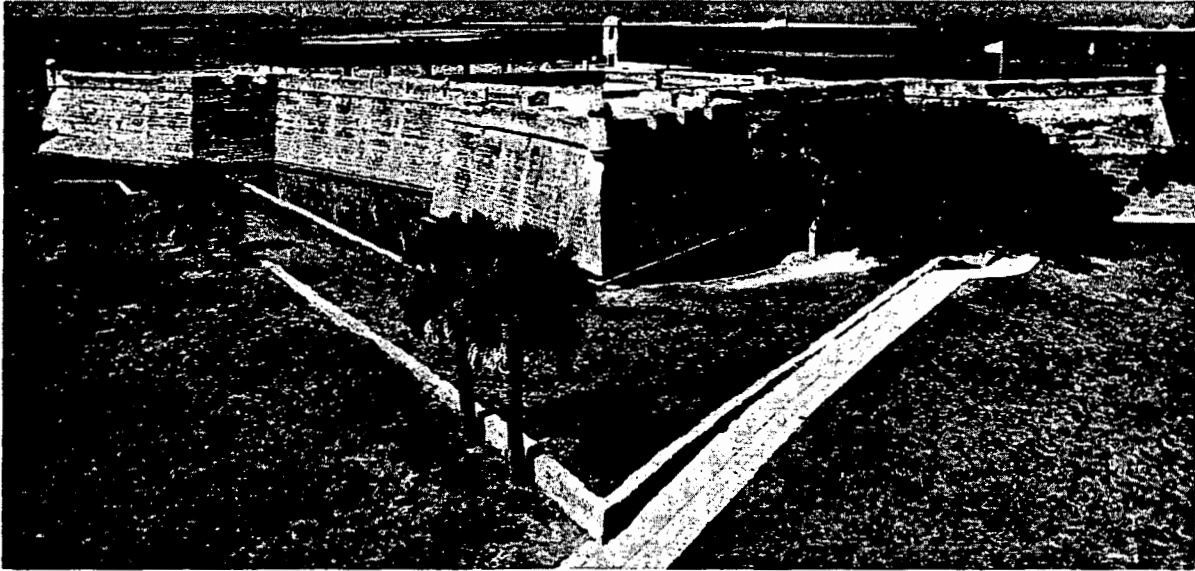


The gundelo *Philadelphia*. Courtesy Smithsonian Institution.

Arnold's action on Lake Champlain wrecked the plans of Gen. Sir Guy Carleton, British commander in Canada, to push down the Hudson River. Carleton moved on to Crown Point after the battle off Valcour Island, but the time lost in building his fleet to oppose Arnold, together with the hard fight with the Americans, led him to reconsider his plans. Deciding that it was now too late in the season to prosecute the invasion to a successful conclusion, Carleton withdrew to Canada on November 4.

In 1934, the wreck of the *Royal Savage* was recovered and the pieces saved. In the following year the *Philadelphia*, remarkably well preserved by the cold water, was identified and salvaged from the sandy lake bottom near the mid-channel of Valcour Bay. After her guns were lifted, a 12-pounder and two 9-pounders, the hull was raised 57 feet to the surface and towed to the beach. In addition to her guns, hundreds of other relics were found on the vessel—shot, cooking utensils, tools, buttons, buckles and human bones. The vessel was exhibited at various places on Lake Champlain and the Hudson River and finally, in 1960, was placed at the Smithsonian Institution.

The *Philadelphia's* hull is 54 feet in length, 15 feet in beam and approximately 5 feet deep. Construction was almost entirely of oak. The mast, nearly 36 feet high, was found intact except for the top section, and the oaken hull timbers were still in place. Three shotholes were visible in the hull, and in one of them a cannonball remained lodged. Considering the punishment it took in battle and its long years under water, the *Philadelphia* is exceptionally well preserved.



Castillo de San Marcos National Monument.

Castillo de San Marcos National Monument, Florida ★

Location: St. Johns County, St. Augustine, Fla. Address: 1 Castillo Drive, St. Augustine, Fla. 32084.

Built by the Spanish in the period 1672-1756, Castillo de San Marcos was the seat of British Government and military power in the colony of East Florida from 1763 to 1783. From this fort, known during this period as "Fort St. Marks," came the British troops in 1779 that completed the subjection of Georgia and then engaged in the campaign against South Carolina. On May 12, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton took Charleston and its defending American Army of 5,466 men prisoners. Many of the American officers were sent as prisoners of war to Fort St. Marks, where they were held until exchanged in July 1781 for British prisoners. Among the Americans thus held captive at Fort St. Marks were three signers of the Declaration of Independence for South Carolina: Thomas Heyward, Jr., Arthur Middleton, Jr., and Edward Rutledge.

Castillo de San Marcos is a quadrangular, four-bastioned fortress constructed of blocks of coquina limestone, a soft gray-white stone, and cemented with an oyster-lime mortar. The plan includes an open courtyard about 100 feet square, surrounded by casemates with heavy vaulted ceilings to support the artillery platforms above. In the casemates are 31 rooms; these include a chapel, barracks, magazines, officers' quarters, a council chamber, storerooms and several dungeons. The outer walls are 25 feet high and 14 feet thick at the base, sloping to 9 feet thick at the top.

In the southeast corner of the courtyard was originally a wide ramp, now converted into a flight of steps up which artillery was drawn to the top. The roof platform, 40 feet wide, is surrounded by a parapet pierced with openings for 64 cannon. At the four corners are triangular-shaped "Vauban" bastions with sloping sides to deflect cannonballs, and around the whole is a moat 40 feet wide and filled with sea water. On the northeast corner is a two-story stone watchtower, and on the other three corners are one-story stone sentry boxes. The only entrance, a sallyport through the south wall, is protected by an outer triangular-shaped stone ravelin, a drawbridge, a heavy timber and iron door and a portcullis. The three exterior walls facing landward are further protected by an encompassing covered-way with a sloping earthwork, which is located on the outer side of the moat. Except for the addition of 19th-century gun positions along the seawall in the moat just outside the fortress, Castillo de San Marcos has survived into the 20th century with little modification of the 1756 plan.

Castillo de San Marcos National Monument consists of approximately 20 acres within the city limits of St. Augustine, established in 1565 as the first permanent settlement by Europeans in the continental United States. Besides the fort itself, the acreage encompasses a city gate that was once part of the town wall.

College Hill (George Walton House), Georgia ▲

Location: Richmond County, 2216 Wrightsboro Road, Augusta. Ownership: private.

College Hill was the home from 1795 to 1804 of George Walton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence. Born near Farmville, Virginia, in the 1740's, he was left an orphan at an early age and raised by an uncle. Apprenticed to be a carpenter and largely self-taught, he moved in 1769 to Savannah, Georgia, where he studied law.

During the summer of 1774, Walton became active in the revolutionary cause and played a key role in the provincial congress formed the following year. In February 1776, the Georgia congress elected Walton a delegate to the Continental Congress, and, with the exception of 1778-79, he served continuously in this body until September 27, 1781.

Walton was commissioned a colonel of the First Regiment of the Georgia militia in January 1778. During the siege of Savannah in December 1778, he was wounded and captured by the British. He was exchanged in September 1779 and returned to Georgia where he was elected governor two months later. While he was attending the Continental Congress in 1780, the Loyalist Assembly, meeting in Savannah,



College Hill.

disqualified Walton from holding any office in Georgia, but the revolutionary legislature immediately appointed him commissioner of Augusta and authorized him to lay out the town of Washington, Georgia.

In 1783 Walton acted as a commissioner for the Continental Congress and negotiated a treaty with the Cherokee Indians in Tennessee. Thereafter, he held a number of influential positions in his state: Chief Justice (1783-89); Governor (1789-90); and Judge of the Superior Court (1790-95, 1799-1804).

In 1795 Walton built this house on the western outskirts of Augusta on land that had been granted him by the State of Georgia eight years before. The handsome, two-story, frame structure features weatherboarded and clapboarded walls, a gable roof and a brick chimney at each end. Of special interest is the two-tiered veranda extending across the entire main facade. At its front and sides on both levels are a series of segmental arches supported by delicate square columns on high pedestals. The balustrade is composed of delicate, sheaf-like balusters. Central double doors, framed by pilasters and topped by segmental fanlights, are located on the front of both stories. A one-story kitchen, added in 1898, extends from the southwest rear corner of the house.

The central hall, which contains a U-shaped stairway, divides the main section of the structure into two pairs of rooms. The larger front two are equipped with fireplaces and have original mantels decorated in the Adam style. The hall walls are plastered, and the board walls of the principal rooms are covered with paper and wainscoting. Five bedrooms occupy the second floor. The original kitchen was situated in a separate building that is no longer standing.

Known today as the Walton-Harper House, College Hill has been owned since 1885 by the Harper family, descendants of Walton. Little altered but never restored, it is a private residence and is not shown publicly.

George Rogers Clark National Historical Park, Indiana

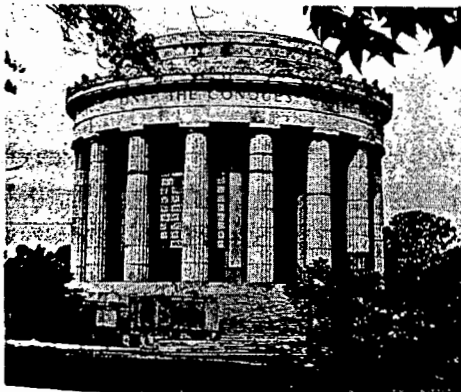
Location: Knox County, U. S. 50 near Lincoln Memorial Bridge (Wabash River), Vincennes. Address: 115 Dubois Street, Vincennes, Ind. 47591.

The George Rogers Clark Memorial, a Doric temple surrounded by landscaped grounds, stands on the site of Fort Sackville, surrendered to Clark by the British Colonel Henry Hamilton on February 25, 1779, to mark the triumph of the American invasion of the Old Northwest. Commissioned by Governor Patrick Henry as a lieutenant colonel of Virginia militia in the winter of 1777-78, Clark was authorized to raise 359 men for the defense of Kentucky. Secret instructions ordered him to mount an attack against the British base of Kaskaskia on the Mississippi River and, if possible, Detroit at the west end of Lake Erie.

Clark proceeded to Kentucky, raised 175 men and on June 26, 1778, began his march from Corn Island near the present Louisville. He arrived at Kaskaskia early in July, and in rapid order secured the capitulation of that post, nearby Cahokia and Fort Sackville at Vincennes. The only Americans occupying the garrison at Vincennes were a captain and one enlisted man, who in their turn surrendered when Colonel Hamilton arrived with a force from Detroit on December 17, 1778.

Clark left Kaskaskia with 127 men on February 5, 1779. In a daring march through 180 miles of flooded countryside he laid Fort Sackville under siege on February 23. Two days later, the British garrison surrendered, assuring American access to the Old Northwest.

George Rogers Clark National Historical Park, authorized in 1966, consists of nearly 23 acres within the city limits of Vincennes. Its most prominent feature is the large circular doric George Rogers Clark Memorial designed by Hirons and Mellor of New York and dedicated in 1936. Various related historic sites include the St. Francis Xavier Church, the Indiana Territorial Capitol Building, the home ("Grouseland") of William Henry Harrison, first governor of the Northwest Territory; and the First State Bank of Indiana.



George Rogers Clark Memorial.



Fort Western. Courtesy Fort Western Museum.

Fort Western, Maine ▲

Location: Kennebec County, Bowman Street, Augusta. Ownership: City of Augusta.

Built in 1754 as a fortified fur trading post, Fort Western was the starting point and main supply base of Colonel Benedict Arnold's unsuccessful expedition against Quebec in September 1775. On September 19, Arnold's force, 1,050 men and including such men as Daniel Morgan, Nathanael Greene, Henry Dearborn and Aaron Burr, sailed from Newburyport, Massachusetts, to Gardinerstown (now Pittston, Maine) on the Kennebec River. Here the men transferred to batteaux and rowed six miles up river to Fort Western, arriving at this latter post on September 24. Over the next several days, the troops began moving northward in divisions. In 1779 American survivors of the ill-managed expedition sent out by Massachusetts to dislodge a British force from Fort George at Castine, Maine, stopped at Fort Western. These troops were struggling southward overland through the wilderness toward Boston.

As originally constructed, Fort Western was comprised of an oblong-shaped log stockade, with two two-story log blockhouses located at opposite corners of the palisade and a large two-and-one-half-story log main building located within its walls. The main building 100 feet long and 32 feet wide, has a gabled and dormered roof and four large brick chimneys spaced out at intervals. The square, hand-hewn timber walls are 13 inches thick and are covered on the exterior by wood shingles. When first built, the main building had officers' quarters at each end, and the large space in the center contained a kitchen, mess, barracks and storage rooms. Later this central area became the large fur trading room and store, while the north and south ends of the



Doughoregan Manor.

building were refurnished as the 18th-century living quarters of the Howard family, owner of the fur trading post for many years.

Restored in 1920, the main building is largely original. The two adjacent log blockhouses and the stockade are complete reconstructions. Fort Western is open to visitors, and the main building is furnished as an 18th-century fur trading post. The living quarters are also furnished, and other rooms contain exhibits and artifacts that illustrate the naval, military and Indian history of the region.

Doughoregan Manor, Maryland ▲

Location: Howard County, on the west side of Manor Lane, about 1 mile south of Md. 144 and 8 miles west of Ellicott City. Ownership: private.

Doughoregan Manor was the country home from 1766 to 1832 of Charles Carroll III of Carrollton, signer of the Declaration of Independence for Maryland. Born into a wealthy Roman Catholic family at Annapolis, Carroll was educated in Catholic colleges in France. In 1765, at the age of 28, he returned to Maryland and took up the development of the 10,000-acre Carrollton Manor tract in Frederick County near the mouth of the Monocacy River.

In 1773, Carroll entered politics when he published a series of letters in Annapolis newspapers. In 1774-75, he was a member of the Annapolis Committee of Correspondence, the first Maryland Convention, the Provincial Committee of Correspondence and the Committee of Safety. Because of his standing among American Catholics and his knowledge of French, the Continental Congress, in February 1776, appointed Car-

roll a member of a commission to visit Canada "to promote or form a union" between Canada and the colonies. When the mission failed, he returned to Maryland where he served as a delegate to the Maryland Convention of 1776 and supported a resolution calling for independence. Carroll was appointed a delegate to the Continental Congress on July 4, 1776, and he went to Philadelphia almost immediately, voted for the engrossment of the Declaration on July 19, and signed the document on August 2. He was a member of the Continental Congress from 1776 to 1778 and a state senator from 1776 to 1804. After the adoption of the new Federal Constitution in 1787, he was chosen a U.S. Senator from Maryland from 1790 to 1792, when he retired from public service to manage his large landholdings which had grown to nearly 80,000 acres. At the time of his death in 1832, he was the last surviving signer of the Declaration and believed to be the wealthiest citizen of the United States.

Charles Carroll I acquired the 10,000 acres comprising the original Doughoregan Manor in 1717. His son, Charles Carroll II, is believed to have constructed the main section of the mansion about 1727, and on his death in 1765 Doughoregan Manor passed to his son Charles Carroll III of Carrollton.

The main house was originally a one-and-one-half-story gambrel roofed brick building with two pair of end chimneys. To the north stood a small detached one-story brick family chapel and to the south, a brick kitchen, with servants' quarters. Both of these outbuildings were probably erected around 1780. In the 1830's, Charles Carroll V enlarged and revised these three buildings into their present form. He raised the main house half-story to a full story, making it a two-story structure. The new gable roof was cut off at the top to form a flat deck which was balustraded and surmounted by an octagonal cupola. The center door of the front facade was sheltered by a new one-story portico with four Doric columns. A similar new portico on the rear elevation had a room above it, and on either side a long one-story covered veranda with iron columns and marble floor extended the length of the main house. The chapel to the north was enlarged, and its height raised and the remodeled building was joined to the main house by means of a two-story passageway. The kitchen to the south was similarly enlarged and connected to the central block. The resulting new five-part composition was unified by the addition of wooden walkways to the roofs of the wings and the installation of an octagonal cupola on the central block.

The central house has a center hall plan. The main hall, paneled in oak, extends through the structure from front to rear. On the first floor are a library, two parlors and a dining room. The second floor bedrooms, remodelled in the 1830's, were completely renovated and redecorated

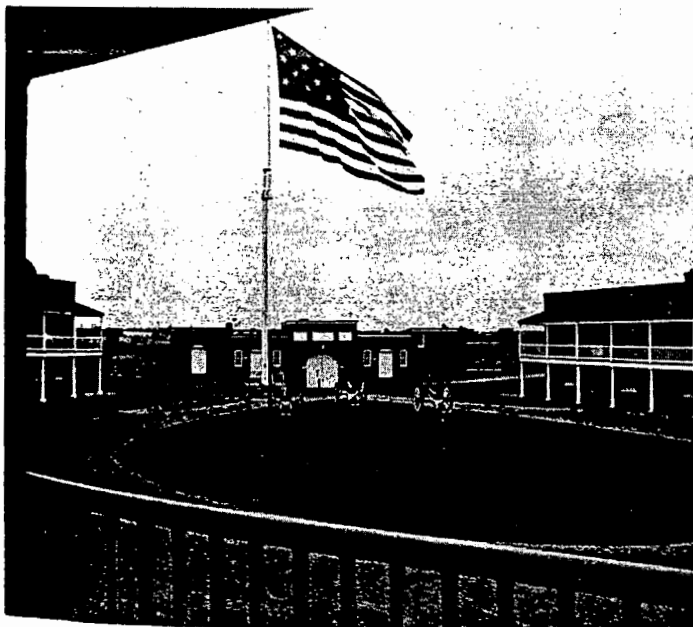
around 1915. The estate, containing about 2,800 acres, and house are in excellent condition. Still owned by the Carroll family, the mansion is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

Fort McHenry National Monument and Historic Shrine, Maryland ★

Location: Baltimore City, about 3 miles from the center of Baltimore, off Md. 2, on East Fort Avenue. Address: Baltimore, Md., 21230.

This national shrine, where the flag flies day and night by Presidential proclamation, commemorates that surge of inspiration that impelled Francis Scott Key to create the classic expression of U.S. ideals contained in our national anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner." The morning after a day and night, British bombardment of Fort McHenry in 1814, during the War of 1812, the inspired Key, glimpsing the U.S. flag above the embattled ramparts of the fort, penned his immortal lines.

As early as the War for Independence, military authorities recognized the strategic importance of the Baltimore peninsula, located on the Patapsco River. In 1776, to protect Baltimore Harbor, they constructed Fort Whetstone, a temporary fort. In the 1790's when war with France seemed imminent, both the Federal government and the citizens of Baltimore contributed funds for the construction at the same site of a permanent harbor defense, consisting of outer batteries and a star fort. It was named Fort McHenry, in honor of James McHenry, Secretary of War between 1796 and 1800.



Fort McHenry.

Late in the War of 1812, following Napoleon's defeat in 1814 and the temporary restoration of peace in Europe, the British sent large numbers of troops to the United States. While most of them moved into the Great Lakes area, some, before participating in an attack on New Orleans, were sent to the Chesapeake Bay area. After the easy capture of Washington the British army moved toward Baltimore, larger and of more commercial significance, where it planned to join naval forces for a joint attack. On September 14, after a 25-hour bombardment of the fort, British attempts to take the city were frustrated and the Battle of Baltimore was over.

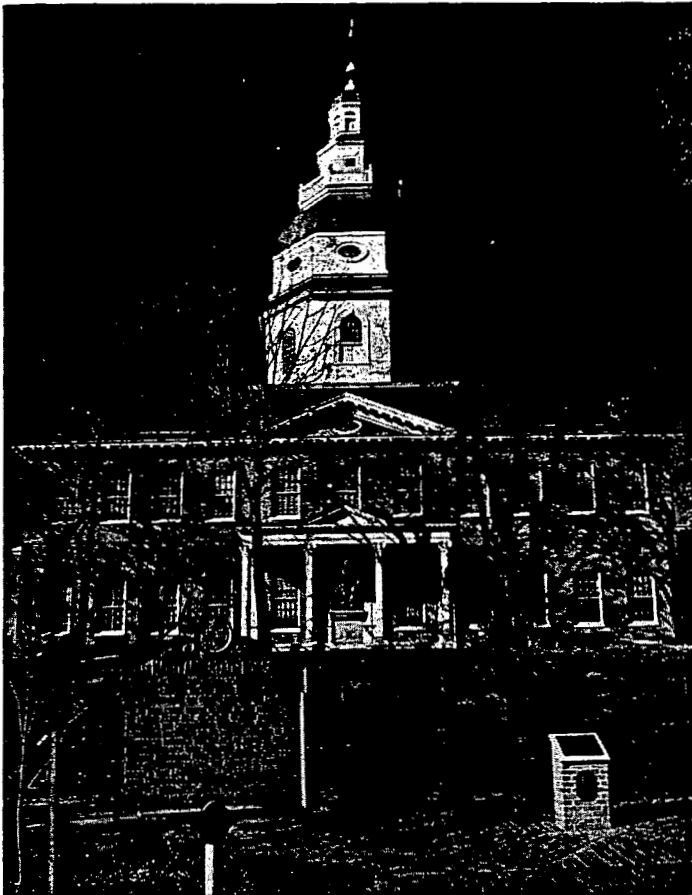
"The Star Spangled Banner" reflects the emotions of Francis Scott Key as he watched the 25-hour attack on Fort McHenry from the decks of a U.S. truce ship, detained by the British fleet. During the day, able to see the flag waving defiantly over the ramparts, he was assured. As long as the British continued to fire, he knew the fort was continuing to resist. Then shortly after midnight the firing ceased, and he feared that the fort had surrendered. He was unaware that the bombardment had been halted to enable a landing force to storm the fort. Anxiously he waited for daylight, and at dawn saw the flag again. On the back of a letter, he penned the first version of the poem that became the national anthem. When released, he had a revised copy printed in handbill form. Soon people were singing the poem to the music of a popular English song, "To Anacreon in Heaven." As time passed, the song increased in popularity. In 1931 Congress made "The Star Spangled Banner" the official national anthem.

Fort McHenry was first established in 1925 as a National Park and redesignated by Congress in 1939 as a National Monument and Historic Shrine. It includes the pentagonal brick fort and surrounding area of slightly more than 43 acres. The visitor center interprets the history of the site. Buildings within the fort serve as museums. Of special interest are exhibits of the flag and its evolution. A numbered self-guiding tour of the fort includes all principal features.

Maryland State House, Maryland ▲

Location: Anne Arundel County, State Circle, Annapolis. Ownership: State of Maryland.

The Maryland State House, the oldest still in daily use, is one of the most historic buildings in the Nation, located in one of the most historic cities. In this building the Continental Congress ended the War for Independence by ratifying the Treaty of Paris, accepted George Washington's resignation as commander-in-chief of the Army and ratified



Maryland State House.
Courtesy Maryland Division of Tourist Development.

the appointment of Thomas Jefferson as minister plenipotentiary. The Annapolis Convention, a forerunner of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, also met in the statehouse.

For nearly nine months in 1783-84 (November 25-August 13), the statehouse was the seat of the Federal government under the Articles of Confederation. For six months the Continental Congress met in the room known today as the Old Senate Chamber, where on January 14, 1784, it ratified the Treaty of Paris, ending the War of Independence. A few weeks earlier on December 23, 1783, George Washington had appeared before Congress to resign his commission as commander-in-chief of the Army; in doing so he reaffirmed the old English principle of the supremacy of civil over military authority and the democratic ideal of a government in which no man would become too powerful. On May 7, 1784, Congress appointed Thomas Jefferson as minister plenipotentiary, and he then departed for Paris to join John Adams and Benjamin Franklin in negotiating treaties of commerce with other powers. After the main body of Congress adjourned on June 3, 1784, a "Committee of States" in charge of government affairs remained in the Old Senate Chamber until August 13. In November the Congress reconvened in Trenton, New Jersey.

In September 1786 the Annapolis Convention met in the Old Senate Chamber. This convention, in which only five States participated, discussed the formulation of a commercial code to govern all the states and finally recommended to Congress that it call another convention to begin at Philadelphia in May 1787 to consider means of strengthening the government under the Articles of Confederation. Congress acted favorably on this recommendation; the Constitutional Convention was the result.

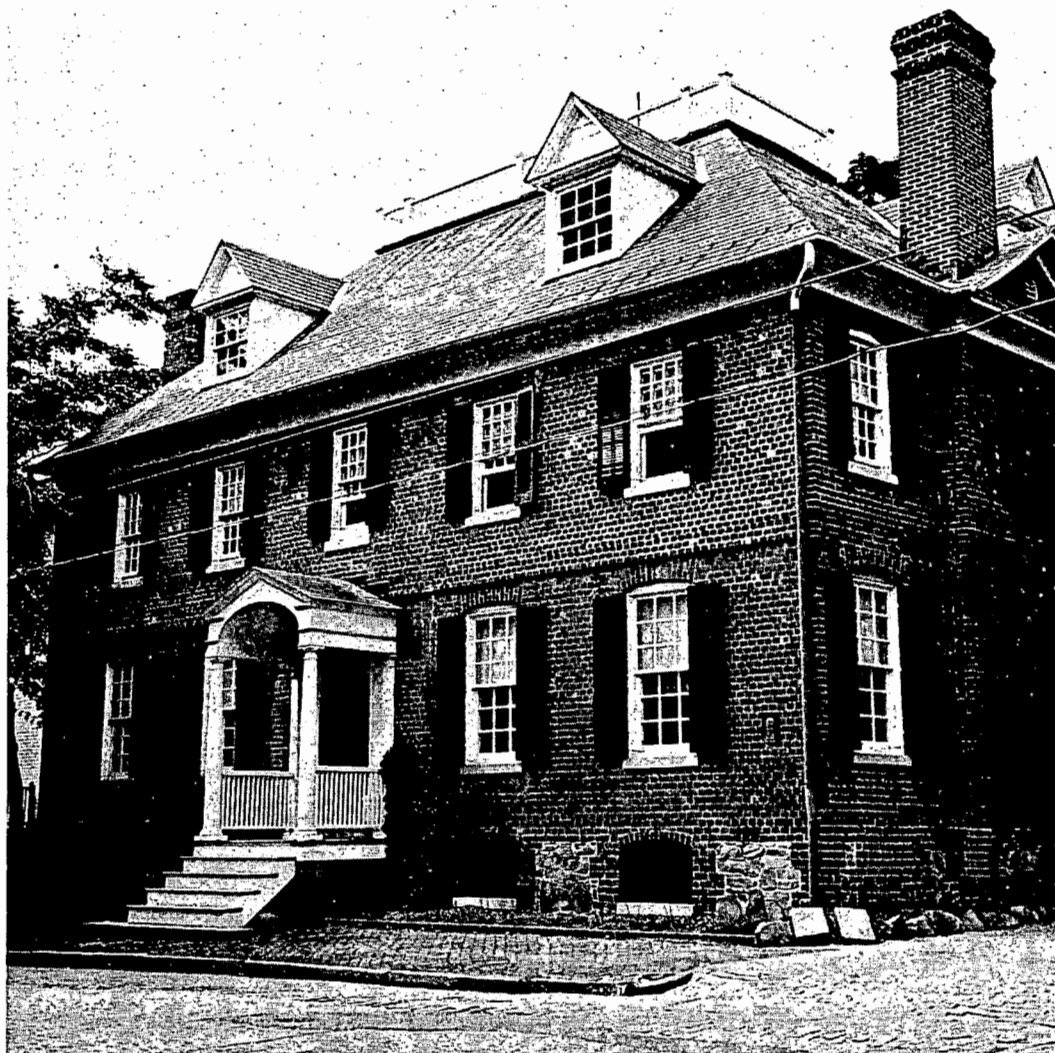
The Maryland State House was built in the late Georgian style by Joseph Clarke, probably from a plan prepared by the Annapolis architect, Joseph Horatio Anderson, in 1772-73. The two-story brick building, with walls of Flemish bond, is 120 feet wide and 82 feet deep. The heavy octagonal wood-and-plaster dome and cupola, 40 feet in diameter at the base and rising from the hipped roof to a height of 200 feet above the ground, was not added until 1784-90.

The main entrance, set in a projecting pedimented central pavilion, is covered by a one-story Corinthian portico that is also pedimented. The portal opens into a wide arcaded hall under the central dome. The hall exhibits arched and oval windows and delicate plaster interior ornament. To the right, the Old Senate Chamber has been restored to its historic appearance, including six original pieces of furniture. Over the entrance is a curved, balustraded spectators' gallery, supported by fluted Ionic columns. Facing the entrance is a circular speaker's platform. Surrounding the room are 24 sash windows which have deep paneled reveals and window seats. A classically trimmed fireplace adorns the room. Opposite the Old Senate Chamber is the Old Hall of Delegates, next to which is the Historic and Flag Room, which contains relics of Maryland's part in the nation's wars. The statehouse today includes a rear State-office annex, constructed in 1902-05, slightly larger than the original building. The historic parts of the statehouse are open to the public.

Rutland-Jenifer-Stone House (Peggy Stewart House), Maryland ▲

Location: Anne Arundel County, 207 Hanover Street, Annapolis. Ownership: private.

The Rutland-Jenifer-Stone House, more commonly known as the Peggy Stewart House, is the best extant structure that has significant associations with Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer, a Revolutionary political leader and a signer of the Constitution. Built about 1761-64 by Thomas Rutland, the townhouse served as Jenifer's residence during 1779-83 and 1787-90.



Rutland-Jenifer-Stone House.

Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer was born in 1723 on his father's plantation, "Coates Retirement" (now called Ellerslie), in Charles County, Maryland. Never marrying and possessing considerable wealth, Jenifer made his country home on a large estate known as "Stephney," which was located several miles from Annapolis. Besides serving as agent and receiver-general for the last two lord proprietors of Maryland, he held many offices of public trust. As a young man, he was justice of the peace for Charles County, and later, of the western circuit of the province. In 1766 he was made a member of the provincial court, and from 1773-75 he sat upon the governor's council.

Though at first inclined to be conciliatory and desirous of peace with Great Britain, Jenifer at length took a stand for independence. In 1775, he was chosen president of the Maryland Council of Safety and became active in securing aid for the Revolutionary cause. When the State gov-

ernment was established in 1777, he was made president of the Maryland Senate. The following year, he was elected to the Continental Congress where he served from 1778-82. Beginning in 1782, he was for some years intendant of the Maryland revenues and financial agent of the State. During this time, he also served as one of the commissioners from Maryland, who, in 1785, met first at Alexandria and then at Mount Vernon to settle with Virginia the question of navigation of Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac River. In 1787, Jenifer was sent as a delegate from Maryland to the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia where he signed the completed document. He died in Annapolis in 1790 and was buried on the Ellerslie plantation where he was born.

Jenifer bought this house in January 1772 and in July of the same year sold the residence to Anthony Stewart, an Annapolis merchant. Because Stewart paid the tea tax on the cargo of his vessel, the *Peggy Stewart*, radicals in Annapolis forced him to burn his own ship on October 19, 1774. Stewart fled to England in 1779 and his wife sold the house back to Jenifer that same year. In 1783, Jenifer sold the townhouse to Thomas Stone, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Maryland. When Stone died on October 5, 1787, Jenifer again acquired the house, making it his residence until his death on November 16, 1790.

The Rutland-Jenifer-Stone House is a two-and-one-half story over-elevated basement Georgian brick house. The facade is constructed of all-header bond and the end walls of English bond. The central pavilion projecting from each end contains a chimney in its front corner and a window near the rear corner. Each end pavilion also features a pediment and a round window. Basement and first-story windows have segmented brick arches and second-story openings have flat arches. The entranceway, located in the center bay of the street facade, is comprised of a paneled door topped by a rectangular transom and is sheltered by a small modern pedimented wooden porch.

In 1837 the house, as described in the *Maryland Gazette*, had 12 large rooms, eight with fireplaces, newly paved dry cellars, four outbuildings and a large garden. Extensively remodelled in 1894, the house received its existing hip roof with cut-off deck and balustrade, and the end chimneys were also rebuilt in their present form. There are two gabled dormers on the front and one at each end of the existing hipped roof.

The structure has a center hall plan, with the hall running through the house to the rear. On the first floor are a large living room, parlor and dining room. There are five bedrooms upstairs. The interior of the house has undergone considerable remodelling in recent years. Only the southeast front chamber on the second floor still has its original mantel in place on the fireplace. In excellent condition, the house is still used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.



Habre-de-Venture. Courtesy Baltimore Sunpapers.

Thomas Stone House (Habre-de-Venture), Maryland

Location: Charles County, Rose Hill Road, Port Tobacco. Ownership: private.

Built in 1771, Habre-de-Venture was the principal home from 1771 to 1787 of Thomas Stone, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Maryland. Stone was born on "Poynton Manor" in Charles County in 1743. He went to Annapolis where he studied law in the office of Thomas Johnson. Stone was admitted to the Maryland bar in 1764 and went to Frederick to practice. In 1768 he married Margaret Broun, the 15-year-old daughter of Dr. Gustavus Broun, who brought Stone a dowry of £1,000. In 1771 he bought land near Port Tobacco, Maryland, and built a country house which he called "Habre-de-Venture."

Stone took his seat in the Continental Congress on May 13, 1775, and, except for a part of the year 1777 when he declined reelection, he served until October 1778. He was again elected a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1783, but declined reelection the following year and resumed his law practice. Stone also served as a State senator for Charles County from 1776 to 1787. In the latter year, he was chosen as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, but declined to serve on account of the illness of his wife, who died in June. Stone died on October 5, 1787, at Alexandria, Virginia, while waiting for a ship to take him to England. He was buried in the family graveyard at Habre-de-Venture.

Habre-de-Venture is a Georgian brick and frame, five-part composition, with its wings and hyphens extending to the rear on either side to form a semicircle. The main block is a one-and-one-half story over elevated basement brick structure with a gambrel and dormered roof. The walls are laid in Flemish bond with glazed headers, and there is an exterior end chimney at either end. A center hall extends through the

house with the dining room on the right and a large living room on the left. In 1928, the original and elaborate hand carved paneling of the living room was removed by the Baltimore Museum of Art, which replaced it with a fairly exact replica of the original.

The kitchen wing to the west is a low two-story gable-roofed structure with brick ends and frame sides built at right angles to the main axis. Its second story, added about 1820, contains two bedrooms. This wing is joined to the center house by a hyphen. Originally gable roofed, one story in height and containing the breakfast room, this passage has had its height increased to one-and-one half stories by the addition of a gambrel roof with dormers to provide bathrooms on the second floor of the main house. The east wing is a low gambrel roofed one-and-one-half-story frame structure which served as Stone's law office. The house has been restored and is in excellent condition. Used as a private residence, Habre-de-Venture is not open to visitors.

William Paca House, Maryland ▲

Location: Anne Arundel County, 186 Prince George Street, Annapolis.
Ownership: Historic Annapolis, Inc.

The second son of a prominent planter-landowner, William Paca received his early education from private tutors and at the age of 15 enrolled at the College of Philadelphia (later part of the University of Pennsylvania). Upon graduating, he studied with an attorney in Annapolis and read law in London. In 1763, the year before initiating his practice in the former city, he married a local girl from a wealthy family and began building a home, completed two years later.

In 1768, Paca won a seat in the colonial legislature, where he soon joined in protesting the powers of the Proprietary Governor and in opposing the poll tax, used to pay the salaries of Anglican clergy, representing the established church. In 1773, he attended the first provincial convention and received an appointment to the First Continental Congress.

Although he sat in Congress until 1779, Paca's most noteworthy efforts were on the State level. When the provincial convention refused to authorize its congressional delegates to vote for independence in the spring and early summer of 1776, he gathered enough support on the home front to persuade the convention to change its mind. Several months after signing the Declaration, he helped draft a State constitution. The next year he began a two-year term in the Maryland senate and saw militia duty, spending large amounts of his own money outfitting troops.



William Paca House. Courtesy Maryland Division of Tourist Development.

Between the years 1778 and 1782, Paca distinguished himself first as chief justice of the State Superior Court and then as chief judge of the Circuit Court of Appeals in admiralty and prize cases. As governor of Maryland (1782-85), he concerned himself with the welfare of war veterans and other postwar problems. A delegate to the State convention to ratify the Federal Constitution in 1788, he urged its adoption along with a list of proposed amendments. In 1789, President Washington appointed him as Federal district judge, a position he held until his death in 1799.

Paca built this townhouse in 1763-65 as his principal residence and occupied it until 1780. At that time, he sold the house and moved to Wye Plantation, a country estate in Queen Anne's County he had acquired about 1760.

The Paca House is a large, five-part Georgian structure, today part of Colonial Annapolis Historic District. Two brick wings (kitchen and office) sit at right angles to the main axis of the central house, to which they are connected by brick passageways. The central unit is a gable-roofed brick structure of two-and-one-half stories over an elevated basement. The front facade is laid in all-header bond, and the ends in Flemish bond. The window arches, of rubbed brick, are flat. A small, one-story frame porch, which is pedimented and done in modified Roman Doric style, provides access to the central entrance. Large brick chimneys rise from both ends of the central house, and smaller ones from the wings. Three gabled dormers are situated in the front of the main roof and two in the rear.

On each side of the center hall in the main house are two rooms. The interior has been greatly altered over the years, and portions of the original wood and plaster finish remain only in the center hall, the stair

hall behind it, and the parlor. The main stairway is equipped with the original Chinese Chippendale balustrade.

In 1899 the Paca House became the Carvel Hall Hotel, enlarged in 1906 by rear additions that completely hid the back of the original house. When the structure faced demolition in 1964, Historic Annapolis, Inc. purchased the Paca House portion and the State of Maryland acquired the entire property the next year. In 1967-69, the 1906 hotel additions were razed and the gardens restored. The residence is currently undergoing an extensive restoration program, and Historic Annapolis, Inc. plans to utilize it as a guesthouse for visiting dignitaries. The first floor will be open to visitors.

Adams National Historic Site, Massachusetts ☒

Location: Norfolk County, bounded by Adams Street, Furnace Brook Parkway, and Newport Avenue, Quincy. Address: 135 Adams Street, Quincy, Mass. 02169.

This site, which features the Adams Mansion, is a memorial to four generations of the Adams family, distinguished in American politics and intellectual life. In the mansion resided Presidents John Adams and John Quincy Adams; Charles Francis Adams, U.S. Minister to Great Britain during the Civil War; and the celebrated writers and historians Henry and Brooks Adams.

John Adams (1735-1826) was the first Vice President and second President of the United States. He was graduated from Harvard College in 1755, a decade or so later actively opposed the Stamp Act, and in 1774 represented the colony of Massachusetts as a delegate to the First Continental Congress. After fighting began at Lexington, he took a leading part in the Second Continental Congress, was one of those involved actively in the movement for independence, and helped choose Washington as commander-in-chief of the Army. Adams was also one of the Committee of Five, which drafted the Declaration of Independence.

After Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga, in 1777, Adams was appointed commissioner to France and with his 10-year-old son, John Quincy, sailed for Europe in 1778. Later he served as minister plenipotentiary to Holland, from which country he obtained loans. Together with Benjamin Franklin and John Jay, on September 3, 1783, he signed the peace treaty with Great Britain that recognized the independence of the United States. In 1785 he served as envoy to Britain, where he remained until 1788.

Together with Franklin and Jefferson he selected the motto *E Plur-*



Old House, Adams National Historic Site.

ibus Unum (One Out of Many) for use on the Great Seal of the United States. In the government under the Constitution, he held the office of Vice President (1789–1797) and President (1797–1801). In the latter years, he retired to his home in Quincy, but never lost his avid interest in public questions. He lived to see his son elected to the presidency, and died on July 4, 1826, the same day as Thomas Jefferson.

The Adams Mansion, named “Peacefield” by John Adams but known to some as the Vassall-Adams House and later to the Adams family as the “Old House,” was dear to all four generations of the Adams family. In 1730-31, Major Leonard Vassall, a wealthy West Indian sugar planter who had come to Massachusetts some eight years before, built the oldest part of the house. Comprising the front western section of the present residence, it was a two-and-one-half-story frame structure of Georgian design with clapboard walls and gambrel roof. The first floor contained two rooms separated by a central stair hall; the second floor, two bedrooms and center hall; and the dormered attic, three smaller chambers. The kitchen and servants quarters were detached.

John Adams, while still minister to Great Britain, bought the house in September 1787 from Vassall’s grandson, Leonard Vassall Borland,

and on his return the next year took possession. At that time, he apparently attached the kitchen and servants' quarters to the rear corner of the main structure. In 1800, he doubled the size of the residence by adding a large, two-and-one-half-story, L-shaped wing of frame at the east end. It was constructed in the same Georgian style as the original house and contained on the first floor a second entry hall and staircase and the "Long Room" to the east of the hall. Adams' large study-library was located on the second floor.

Other additions were made in the 19th century. In 1836 John Quincy built the passage along the back side of the structure connecting the two rear service ells. In 1869 Charles Francis added 30 feet to the kitchen ell for additional servants' quarters; the following year, a detached stone library overlooking the garden; and in 1873, the stone stable. Brooks constructed the present entrance gates in 1906.

After retiring from the presidency in 1801, John Adams lived in the house year round until his death in 1826. Subsequently, until Brooks' death in 1927, other family members resided in it full time or spent their summers there. The furnishings, to which each generation contributed, reveal the continuity of life in the residence and the tastes of the Adams family.

In 1946, the Adams Memorial Society donated the property to the Federal government. Consisting of almost five acres, it includes the well-maintained house, library, garden and stables. It may be visited from spring until the fall.

Buckman Tavern, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Middlesex County, opposite east side of Lexington Green, Lexington. Ownership: Town of Lexington, administered by Lexington Historical Society.

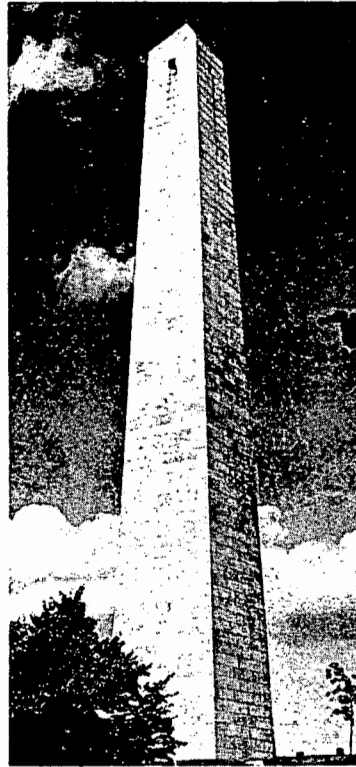
Buckman Tavern is an integral and important part of the historical setting of the first conflict of the War for Independence. It appears in the background of nearly every illustration depicting the brief fight on April 19, 1775, between the British light infantry and the Minutemen at Lexington Green. One of Lexington's better hostelries, it was built about 1690 by Benjamin Muzzey, who in 1693 received a license to maintain a public house. In 1775 it was owned and operated by John Buckman, a member of the Lexington Minuteman Company, and was a favorite gathering place for the citizen-soldiers on days when they trained on the Lexington Green. Captain John Parker's Minutemen assembled at the tavern during the night and early morning as Lt. Col. Francis Smith's British regulars approached from Boston, and the



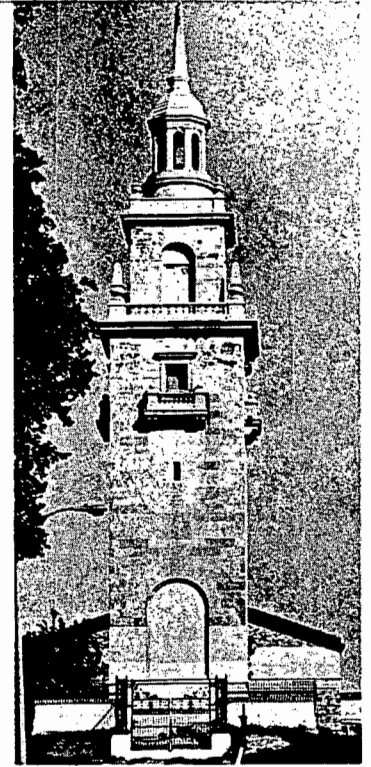
Buckman Tavern. Courtesy Massachusetts Department of Commerce and Development.

building still exhibits scars left by British musket balls fired at Parker's men drawn up on the Green. Buckman Tavern housed the first village store in Lexington, and later, in 1812, the first town post office.

Some structural changes were made in Buckman Tavern between 1690 and 1775, but it appears today virtually the same as at the time of the battle on Lexington Green. A two-story white clapboard building with hipped roof, the tavern retains its 18th-century taproom with large fireplace and central chimney. Acquired by the town of Lexington in 1913, it constituted a significant extension of the triangle formed by the Battle Green. The Lexington Historical Society, already the owner of the Hancock-Clarke House and the Munroe Tavern, made a generous contribution toward the purchase and, under a 99-year lease, assumed the task of furnishing the building and showing it to the public. The tavern is included in the area of about 40 acres afforded protection as the Battle Green Historic District created by an act of the Massachusetts legislature in 1956. Buckman Tavern is now maintained by the Lexington Historical Society as a historic museum. It also serves as headquarters for the Lexington Minute Men, Inc., an organization that perpetuates the traditions of Captain Parker's company.



Bunker Hill Monument.
Courtesy Massachusetts
Department of Commerce
and Development.



Dorchester Heights Na-
tional Historic Site.

Bunker Hill Monument, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Suffolk County, Breed's Hill, Charlestown. Ownership: Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

The Battle of Bunker Hill was actually fought on nearby Breed's Hill, June 17, 1775. It was the first full-scale action between American militia and 2,400 British regulars following the running fight at Lexington and Concord, two months earlier. The raw American army, numbering some 1,500 men, was driven from its fortified position after repulsing two frontal assaults, although the costly British victory did not alter the situation for the besieged Redcoats. The battle convinced the British command that defeating the rebellious colonists would not be an easy task, however, and in later years the American defeat was translated into virtual victory by the folklore that sprang from the fight. Actually, the struggle for Breed's Hill had a harmful effect in creating the myth that raw militia, suffused with patriotism, could always take the measure of professional troops. Indecisive as it was, the battle has remained in the American tradition as one of the key episodes of the Revolution.

The present monument marks the approximate center of the American redoubt on Breed's Hill and is surrounded by a four-acre park in a residential section of Charlestown. The monument itself possesses considerable interest as an example of early historical documentation. The Bunker Hill Monument Association was organized in 1823, a year after three acres of the battlefield had been purchased to keep it open. In 1825 an additional 15 acres was purchased. When the association ran short of funds, however, most of the land was sold in 1834 and the proceeds applied to completing the 220-foot obelisk. The cornerstone of the monument was laid in 1825, the 50th anniversary of the battle, although construction was not completed until 1842. The Bunker Hill Monument Association turned the property over to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts in 1919. A statue of Col. William Prescott, commander of the American redoubt on Breed's Hill, stands at the base of the monument. A small museum is open to visitors. Congress in 1974 authorized the addition of Bunker Hill Monument to the National Park System as part of the new Boston National Historical Park.

Dorchester Heights National Historic Site, Massachusetts ★

Location: Suffolk County, Thomas Park, South Boston. Address: Parks and Recreation Department, 33 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass. 02108.

The seizure and fortification of Dorchester Heights on March 4-5, 1776, was the first real stroke of military success enjoyed by the Continental Army at Boston in the War for Independence. Not only were the British forced to evacuate Boston by General George Washington's unexpected move, but this success served also to inspire hope and confidence in the leadership and capabilities of the Continental Army.

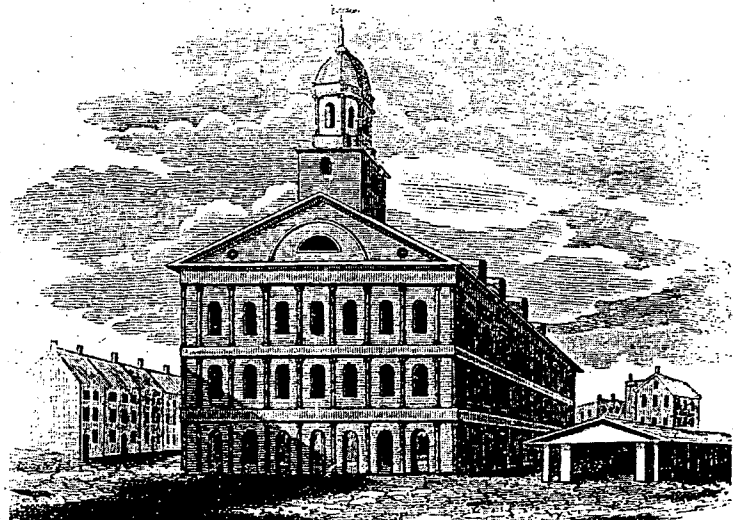
This masterful operation was launched from Dorchester and Roxbury, and was very carefully planned, utilizing about 2,000 troops and militia with a continual procession of 350 ox carts and wagons, screened partially by bales of hay, carrying long bundles of birch saplings (intended for fascines for building up breastworks on exposed ledges and on frozen ground) and other materials. The labor began on the night of March 4 under a bright moon. It proceeded so rapidly that by daylight the forts on the two highest hilltops of what is properly Dorchester Heights were well enough advanced to offer some defense against assault. When General William Howe looked on the redoubts from his bedchamber that morning, he is said to have remarked, "The rebels have done more in one night than my whole army would have done in a month."

Colonel Henry Knox had brought overland from Fort Ticonderoga 66 artillery pieces which, promptly placed on Dorchester Heights, rendered the city untenable by the British and threatened also the vessels in the harbor. Howe determined to attack immediately, and the Americans waited resolutely "in a position twice as strong as Bunker Hill, with a force more than twice as large, and under the immediate eye of the General-in-Chief." They were snug in their works, with rows of stone and sand filled barrels ready to roll down upon any attacking force. The intended attack never came. The British artillerists found that they could not elevate their guns sufficiently to reach the American parapets, and a storm prevented the movement of troops needed for a planned night attack. Washington worked all the while to perfect the fortifications, and soon made them, as far as Howe's army was concerned, impregnable. The British evacuated Boston on March 17—an army of 11,000 men, with 1,100 loyalist refugees, in their transports.

Every side of the heights is now built up, but the white marble monument at the summit looks sufficiently high even today to reveal a position that was naturally strategic and, with fortification, very formidable. The monument is 115 feet high, consisting of a tower and steeple reminiscent of a New England meeting house of 200 years ago. It was dedicated on March 17, 1902, the 126th anniversary of the British evacuation of Boston.

Under the terms of a cooperative agreement signed by the Secretary of the Interior and the Mayor of Boston on March 17, 1951, Dorchester Heights was designated a National Historic Site. Although a unit of the National Park System, the monument and Thomas Park, named for General John Thomas who commanded the troops on Dorchester Heights, are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Parks and Recreation, City of Boston.

Faneuil Hall. Engraving by A. Bowen from Snow's *History of Boston*. Courtesy The Bostonian Society.



Faneuil Hall, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Suffolk County, Dock Square, Boston. Ownership: City of Boston.

Often called "the Cradle of Liberty," Faneuil Hall was a focal point in the organization of colonial resentment and protest against acts of the British Parliament in the years immediately prior to the Revolution. Here James Otis, Samuel Adams and other leaders of opposition to the Crown built colonial dissent into powerful sentiment for American self-government. Faneuil Hall heard the voices of the most notable leaders in the fight for the abolition of slavery in the 19th century, and it remains today a significant symbol of the struggle for American freedom.

In 1740, a market house was offered to Boston by Peter Faneuil, "the topmost merchant in all the town." The question of fixed marketplaces had long been debated, the countrymen favoring competition-free, door-to-door peddling, and the city dwellers favoring a convenient central market. Faneuil's offer was accepted by a narrow margin, and on September 10, 1742, the building was completed. Perhaps to allay opposition to the market, Faneuil arranged for a long room above the marketplace to serve for town meetings and municipal purposes. The building was designed by John Smibert, a noted painter turned amateur architect for the project. Originally two stories high, 40 by 100 feet, the structure was Georgian in style, with open arcades to the public market on the ground floor. The large center cupola on the roof was topped by a famous weather vane, a huge grasshopper with green glass eyes and long antennae, turned out by Deacon Shem Droune in May 1742. The hall was destroyed by fire on January 13, 1761, and only its brick walls were left standing. It was rebuilt and opened again in 1763, becoming for several years thereafter the scene of many of the public meetings that foreshadowed the Revolution. By 1768 the size of the protecting crowds often made adjournments to the Old South Meeting House necessary.

Faneuil Hall's great role in the Revolutionary movement had not ended, however, for in a town meeting there on November 2, 1772, Samuel Adams succeeded in creating the extralegal Committee of Correspondence, the first of the bodies that produced the union of American colonies. During the siege of Boston, the hall was used as a playhouse for amateur theatricals offered by British officers and Tory ladies in the town.

As Boston grew in the years following the Revolution, an enlargement of the hall and market became necessary. This was accomplished during 1805-06 in accordance with plans drawn by Boston's Charles Bulfinch. The building was tripled in size by increasing its original

three bays to seven and adding a third story. The second-floor hall was thus expanded in area and in height, permitting the construction of galleries resting on Doric columns. Bulfinch moved the large cupola with the grasshopper weather vane to the east end, creating a more imposing effect. The attic of the enlarged building became the armory of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company.

The exterior of the original building had an applied order of brick pilasters in the Doric style on both stories and the second story was capped by a heavy entablature of stone at the eaves. Bulfinch retained the original entablature and from it ran an order of Ionic brick pilasters up the new and higher third story. A series of barrel-shaped dormers was placed on the new gable roof, lighting the attic. The arched open arcades that had provided access to the market area on the first floor were filled in with windows corresponding to the arched windows of the second floor. Faneuil Hall ceased to be the scene of town meetings after Boston obtained a city charter in 1822, but remained a popular meeting place and forum during the 19th century. From 1827 until 1858 there was no market activity in the hall, the space being given over to eight stores occupied by vendors of drygoods and hardware. After 1858, when the market was restored, the space was appropriated by butchers, as it is today.

The great hall on the second floor displays a collection of paintings, many of the portraits being copies of originals that once hung there but that are now protected in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The attic is still the armory of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company and contains a collection of military and other objects dating from the colonial period and afterward.

In 1898-99 the city of Boston reconstructed the hall, substituting iron, steel, and stone for wood, as far as practicable. In general, the Bulfinch plans were followed. Faneuil Hall is open to visitors. Congress in 1974 authorized the addition of Faneuil Hall to the National Park System as part of the new Boston National Historical Park.

General Benjamin Lincoln House, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Plymouth County, 181 North Street, Hingham. Ownership: private.

Major General Benjamin Lincoln, one of Washington's chief lieutenants, commanded the New England militia collecting in Vermont from July to October 1777 under the overall command first of General Philip Schuyler and then General Horatio Gates. Lincoln's force of 1,500 militia moved secretly through the forest to launch a raid



Benjamin Lincoln House.

against the British posts guarding Burgoyne's rear on Lake Champlain and Lake George. On the morning of September 18, at Fort Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, they took the British by surprise: 293 soldiers were captured, 100 American prisoners were freed, and 200 supply bateaux, 17 gunboats and one armed sloop were captured and destroyed. This destruction of vessels cut off supplies from Burgoyne and made any retreat almost impossible. On September 22 Lincoln rejoined Gates and the main American army and was placed in command of the right wing, about 6,400 men. Lincoln was present at the Second Battle of Saratoga, October 7, 1777, and on the following day was badly wounded in the leg while leading a force against the enemy.

In September 1778, Lincoln was placed in command of the American army in the Southern Department and arrived in South Carolina in January 1779. He maneuvered with his small army of some 3,600 men between northern Georgia and Charleston through the spring and summer. This culminated in the joint Franco-American siege of Savannah, September 12-October 20, with French naval support under Admiral Comte d'Estaing. The effort failed when the French sailed away and Lincoln was forced to retreat from Charleston.

In February 1780, Sir Henry Clinton landed British forces near Charleston and began the siege of that city. Lincoln held out until May 12, 1780, but finally had to surrender his entire army of some 5,500 men, one of the greatest disasters suffered by the Americans during the War for Independence.

Lincoln was paroled and allowed to proceed north where he was formally exchanged in November. Lincoln soon returned to the field

and joined Washington's army near New York City. At the end of August 1781, the main army, commanded by Lincoln, marched south to take part in the siege of Yorktown. On October 19, 1781, Lincoln, acting on orders from General Washington, accepted the surrender of the British army. From October 30, 1781, to October 28, 1783, Lincoln served as Secretary of War for the Continental Congress. His final military service came in January 1787 when he led State troops to suppress Shay's Rebellion in Massachusetts.

The General Benjamin Lincoln House is a rectangular-shaped, two-story frame structure with a gable roof, two interior fireplaces and clapboarded walls. Thomas Lincoln started the dwelling in 1637 by erecting that portion of the present house which now comprises the two rooms in the northeast corner. In 1715 the house was greatly enlarged and given an L-shape by the addition of a large kitchen on the main axis at the west end of the original house, and also, by building a new dining room and stair hall on the front side of the new kitchen. In 1790 General Lincoln added the present center stair hall and parlor in the southeast corner of the house. His additions brought the structure to its present rectangular shape, with the rooms arranged in two tiers.

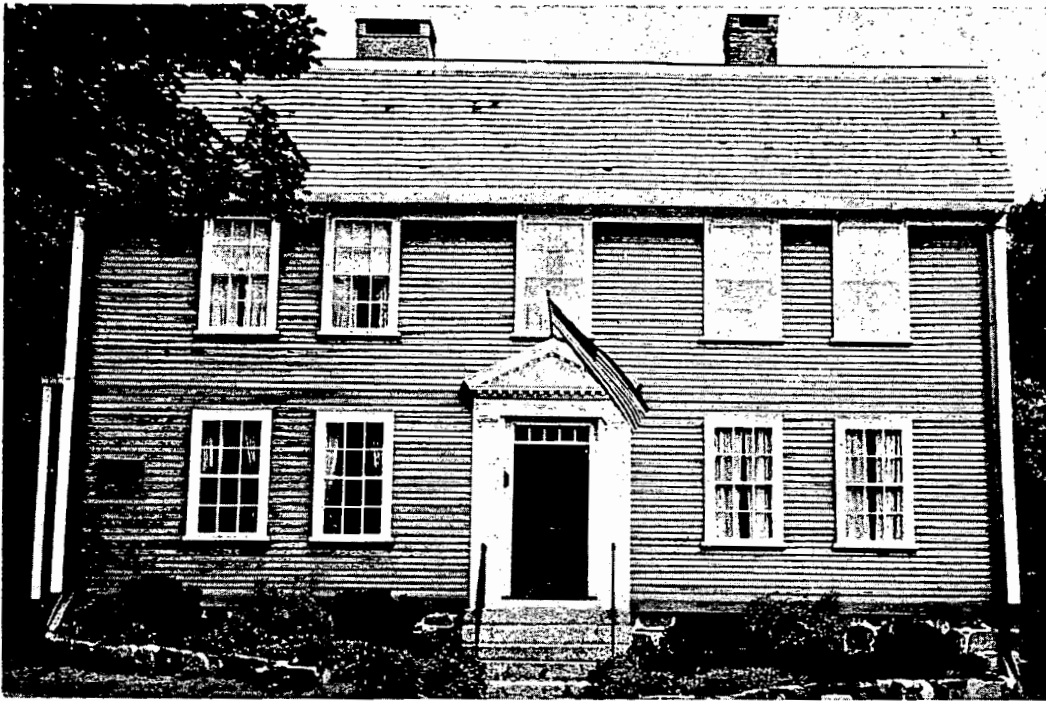
The center door, topped by a flat pediment, opens into the 1790 stair hall, which extends half way through the house. On the first floor are a kitchen, borning room, parlor and dining room, all of which have fully paneled fireplace walls. wainscoting on the other walls and wide board floors. There are seven bedrooms on the second floor.

The General Benjamin Lincoln House has been in the possession of the same family for more than 300 years, has undergone few alterations and has never been restored. The house is furnished with the original Lincoln furniture and contains many of the General's personal items. Still used as a private residence, the house is not open to visitors.

General John Glover House, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Essex County, 11 Glover Street, Marblehead. Ownership: private.

John Glover, an able and hard fighting brigadier general of the Continental Army, repeatedly made important contributions to the American military cause during the War for Independence. In July 1775, Washington placed Colonel Glover in charge of equipping and manning the seven armed cruisers that were fitting out at Beverly and



General John Glover House.

Marblehead, Massachusetts. These vessels represented America's first naval efforts during the war. When the retreat of Washington's defeated army from Long Island, New York, began on August 29, 1776, Glover was entrusted with the entire operation of vessels for transporting the troops to the mainland. Glover successfully saved 9,500 men and all their baggage, field guns and stores from capture, thereby possibly saving the Revolutionary cause from a complete and final defeat. On October 18, 1776, near Pell's Point, New York, Glover commanded a small brigade that delayed the advance of 4,000 British troops until dark and prevented Washington's retreating army from being cut in two.

Glover's next major service was the transportation of Washington's army across the Delaware River above Trenton, New Jersey, on Christmas night, 1776. His regiment then led the army in the advance on Trenton and also took part in the Battle of Princeton. In February, Glover was promoted to brigadier general. He and his brigade were present at the two battles of Saratoga in October 1777 and formed a part of the right wing of General Horatio Gates' army. During the siege of Saratoga, October 11, his prompt action in stopping an advance—based on an erroneous estimate of the disposition of Burgoyne's army—deprived Burgoyne of his last opportunity of escaping to Canada. Glover continued his active service until failing health forced him to retire from the army in July 1782.

Built by Glover in 1762, the General John Glover House is a two-

story frame L-shaped house with gambrel roof, clapboard walls and two exterior brick chimneys set back of the ridge against the rear wall. The center door, topped by a transom and a triangular pediment, opens into a center hall that extends through the house and opens on the kitchen in the rear. To the right of the hall is a large parlor, and to the left are a dining room and small stair hall with a side entrance. Both the dining room and parlor have fully paneled fireplace walls and elaborate mantels; the parlor also has an elaborate cornice. The two bedrooms on the second floor are separated by a center hall, and the third chamber is located in the ell above the kitchen. Little altered and largely original, the General John Glover House is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

General Rufus Putnam House, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Worcester County, 344 Main Street, Rutland. Ownership: private.

Rufus Putnam, largely self-educated and apprenticed to a millwright at the age of 16, became one of America's leading military engineers during the War for Independence. Entering the Continental Army as a lieutenant colonel, Putnam soon took charge of the defensive works being built around Boston. During the winter of 1775-76, when the ground was frozen so deeply that the usual earthen breastworks could not be constructed, he executed an ingenious plan to construct movable wooden parapets above ground to screen the batteries on Dorchester Heights on the night of March 4-5, 1776. Moving the 66 field pieces that Henry Knox had brought from Fort Ticonderoga into position on these fortified heights, Washington thereby rendered General Howe's position in Boston untenable and the British withdrew from the city on March 17.

Putnam next reconnoitered around New York as Washington's chief engineer and constructed defensive works, including Fort Washington, there. On August 6, 1776, Congress appointed him chief engineer with the rank of colonel and Putnam served in this capacity during the campaign around New York in the fall of 1776. Resigning his commission later that year, he accepted the command, as colonel, of the 5th Massachusetts Continental Regiment and served under Gates in the campaign against Burgoyne in 1777. He played a key role in the Battle of Saratoga, and his map, entitled "An Orthographical View of the American and British Armies on the 7th and 8th of October 1777," is the only known contemporary American map of the battlefield.



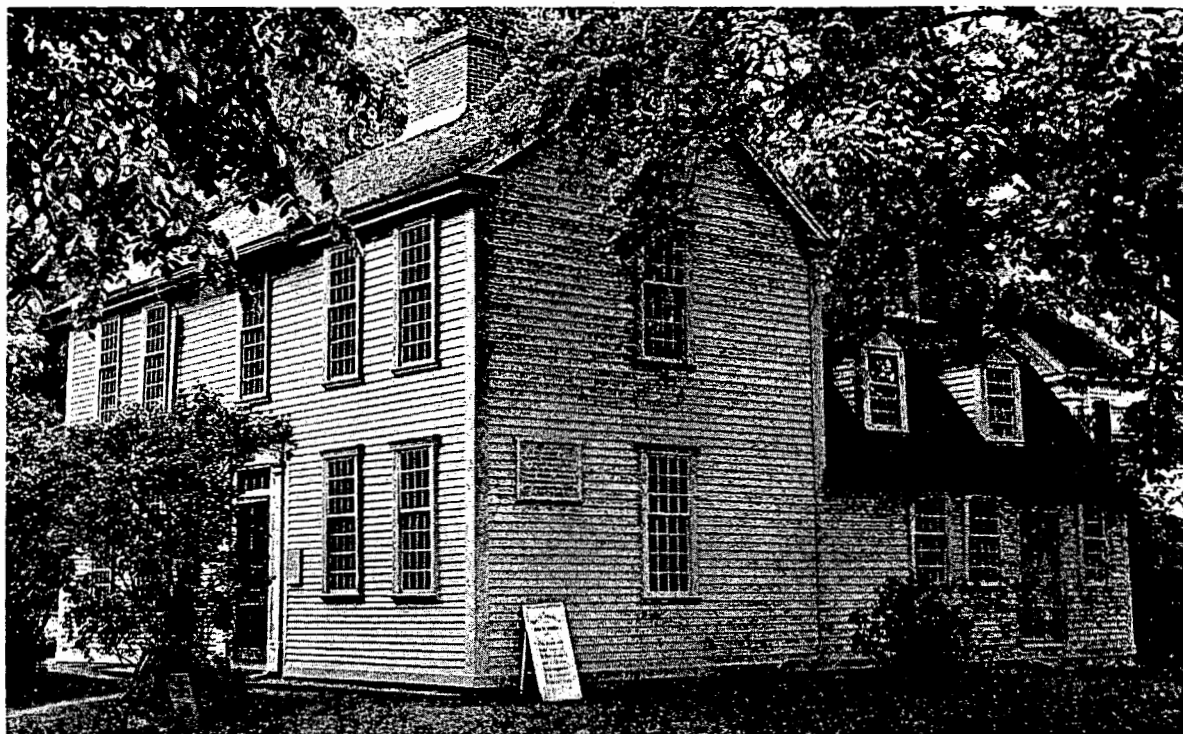
General Rufus Putnam House.

From 1778-81, Putnam, along with various foreign engineers including Colonel Thaddeus Kosciuszko, worked in constructing an elaborate system of fortifications at West Point. For his efforts in building this "key to the Continent," he was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general in January 1783.

Putnam resigned from the army in November 1783 to help promote the organization of the Ohio Company of Associates. Composed largely of Revolutionary veterans, this company contracted for an 1,800,000-acre tract in the Northwest Territory in 1786 to take advantage of the land bounties that had been promised to the Revolutionary veterans. After settlement of the colony increased, Putnam became a judge of the Northwest Territory (1790-92) and surveyor general of the United States (1796-1803).

The General Rufus Putnam House was built in the period 1760-65 by John Murray, whose daughter married Daniel Bliss. The Blisses became prominent loyalists during the Revolution, and the farmhouse was confiscated. Putnam acquired the house and 150 acres of land in 1781 and lived here until 1788 when he moved to the Northwest Territory.

The house is a two-story rectangular frame structure with hipped roof, two interior brick chimneys and clapboard walls. A two-story gable-roofed frame wing, added in the early 20th century, adjoins the main house in the rear. Each of the eight rooms has original pine paneled wainscoting and every fireplace wall is fully paneled. In excellent condition, the little-altered house is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.



Hancock-Clarke House.

Hancock-Clarke House, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Middlesex County, 35 Hancock Street, Lexington. Ownership: Lexington Historical Society.

The Hancock-Clarke House was for seven years (1744-1750) the boyhood home of John Hancock and is the only extant structure which can be associated with this signer of the Declaration of Independence. John Hancock and Samuel Adams were guests in this house on the night of April 18, 1775, when they were awakened by Paul Revere and hustled away from Lexington to avoid capture by the approaching British force.

The house was built by John Hancock's grandfather, the Reverend John Hancock, and on the death of the boy's father at Quincy in 1744, the seven-year-old lad came to live here with his grandparents. The future signer was adopted by his childless uncle, Thomas Hancock, the wealthiest merchant in Boston, and graduated from Harvard College in 1754.

When the Revolution broke out, John Hancock still had strong ties with the Hancock-Clarke House, for his cousin Lucy Bowes, the wife of the Reverend Jonas Clarke, was living in the parsonage. Clarke was an outstanding preacher and supporter of the American cause, and his house became a meeting place and refuge for leaders of the revo-

lutionary cause. On the night of April 18, 1775, John Hancock and Samuel Adams were guests in his house, which is located about a quarter of a mile from Lexington Green. Around midnight, after everyone had gone to bed, Paul Revere and later William Dawes, warning the countryside of the approach of British troops, galloped up and informed the household. A few hours later, Hancock and Adams fled northward to Burlington. They later moved from place to place, staying away from Boston, until they proceeded to Philadelphia to attend the Continental Congress, which convened the next month.

The Hancock-Clarke House consists of two parts which were erected at different times. The small gambrel-roofed frame ell, containing a common living room or kitchen and a tiny parson's study downstairs and two low-ceiling chambers above, was built in 1698 by Reverend John Hancock. The main or front part is a two-and-a-half story frame structure, with a large central chimney and two rooms on each of the two floors. This section was added in 1734 at the expense of Thomas Hancock, second son of the clergyman.

The Reverend John Hancock lived in the house for 55 years and his successor, the Reverend Jonas Clarke, for 50 years. The Lexington Historical Society bought the house in 1896 and moved it across the street from the original site to save it from demolition. In 1902 a brick addition was made at the rear of the house with a fireproof vault to protect the more valuable possessions of the Society. The house has been carefully restored to its 18th-century appearance and is well maintained. The structure serves as headquarters for the Society and is also open to visitors. Recently, the Society has purchased the original site of the Hancock-Clarke House on which can be seen the early foundations.

John Quincy Adams Birthplace, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Norfolk County, 141 Franklin Street, Quincy. Ownership: City of Quincy.

This house, directly adjacent to the John Adams Birthplace, was John Adams' law office and the birthplace of his son John Quincy Adams, sixth President of the United States. In 1761 John inherited the house, the oldest part of which may date from 1663, from his father. At the time of his marriage, in 1764, he moved from the neighboring house, his birthplace, to this one, in which he could house his growing library and set up a law office. For several years he used the kitchen as a law office. In the house, on July 11, 1767, John Quincy Adams was born. After 1772 John's growing law practice made it



John Quincy Adams Birthplace.

convenient for him to live in Boston most of the time, but his wife and son remained in the house until after the War for Independence. By 1783, when the family was in Europe, it was occupied by tenants. After returning to the United States in 1788, John Adams moved into the "Old House," now Adams National Historic Site, in another part of Quincy. In 1803 John Quincy purchased both birthplaces from his father, and from 1805 to 1807 occupied his birthplace house.

The John Quincy Adams Birthplace is well preserved. Like the John Adams Birthplace, it is of typical New England saltbox design, originally comprised of two upper and two lower rooms arranged around a huge central chimney, and has been extensively altered. John Adams added a lean-to of two rooms at the back of the house for use as a new kitchen during the time he used the original kitchen as a law office and library.

In 1897 the Quincy Historical Society, aided by the Adams heirs, restored and opened the John Quincy Adams Birthplace to the public. In 1940 the Adams family turned it over to the city of Quincy. Administered by the Quincy Historical Society, it is accessible to the public.



Minuteman Statue on Lexington Green. Courtesy Massachusetts Department of Commerce and Development.

Lexington Green, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Middlesex County, Massachusetts Avenue and Hancock Street, Lexington. Ownership: Town of Lexington.

On Lexington Green on the morning of April 19, 1775, occurred the short but momentous skirmish between the minutemen and the British expeditionary force from Boston that initiated the struggle for American independence. Maj. John Pitcairn, commanding the advanced guard of the British force of 600 to 800 men saw the minutemen confronting his column at Lexington Green and formed his troops in line of battle. Realizing the hopelessness of the situation, Capt. John Parker, commanding the 50-to-70 Americans, ordered his men to file away, but before they could do so a shot was fired—by which side is not known—and when the firing ceased eight of the American militiamen were dead and 10 more were wounded. This clash, which marked the beginning of the battle, continued intermittently as the British troops marched to Concord, seven miles distant.

Lexington Green is a triangular plot of two-and-one-half acres and forms the nucleus of an area of about 40 acres afforded protection as the Battle Green Historic District created by act of the Massachusetts legislature in 1956. On the east side of the common, facing the road by which the British approached, Henry H. Kitson's statue of a minuteman stands on a pile of rocks over a stone fountain. The historic Revolutionary Monument, erected in 1799 to commemorate the eight minutemen killed here, occupies the southwest corner of the green, and behind it is a tomb to which the remains of the dead were moved from the burying ground in 1835. Two inscribed boulders have also been placed on the green. One identifies the site of the old belfry, which was separate from the meetinghouse. The other, near the northwest corner, marks one flank of Capt. Parker's line. It bears, in addition to designs of musket and powder horn, Parker's immortal words: "Stand your ground. Don't fire unless fired upon. But if they mean to have a war, let it begin here." Lexington Green and its monumentation recall vividly the opening military event of the American Revolution.



Longfellow Home.

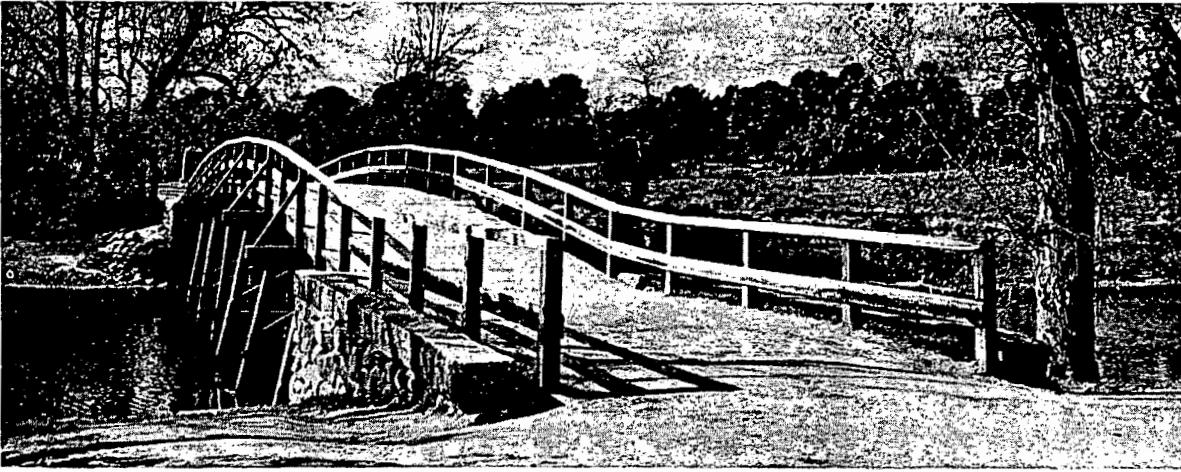
Longfellow National Historic Site, Massachusetts ☒

Location: Middlesex County. 105 Brattle Street, Cambridge. Address: c/o Boston Group, NPS, P.O. Box 160, Concord, Mass. 01724.

On July 2, 1775, General George Washington came to Cambridge to take command of the Continental Army besieging Boston. Two weeks later on July 15, he moved into this house and for the next 10 months he made this his headquarters as commander-in-chief of the Continental Army. On March 17, 1776, Washington finally forced the British to evacuate Boston by fortifying Dorchester Heights, and on April 4, 1776, he left Cambridge to take up the defense of New York City.

This home is also significant as the residence of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow from 1837 until his death in 1882. The furnishings reflect the period of the poet's residence. Before this house became a unit of the National Park Service in 1972, the property was owned by the Longfellow House Trust which had been formed in 1913 by members of the Dana and Longfellow families to preserve the structure.

Built by Major John Vassall in 1759, the home is an outstanding architectural example of a New England 18th-century two-story frame Georgian house. The structure is almost square and has a double-hipped roof, with four lower slopes crowned by balustrades which conceal four upper slopes of very low pitch. The front facade of this 18-room house features a central pedimental projecting pavilion, a prominent modillioned cornice and four giant two-story-high pilasters. The floor plan is of the usual 18th-century central hall type with two interior chimneys. Washington's office was located in the study to the right of the entrance door. The house is open to visitors as a historic house exhibit.



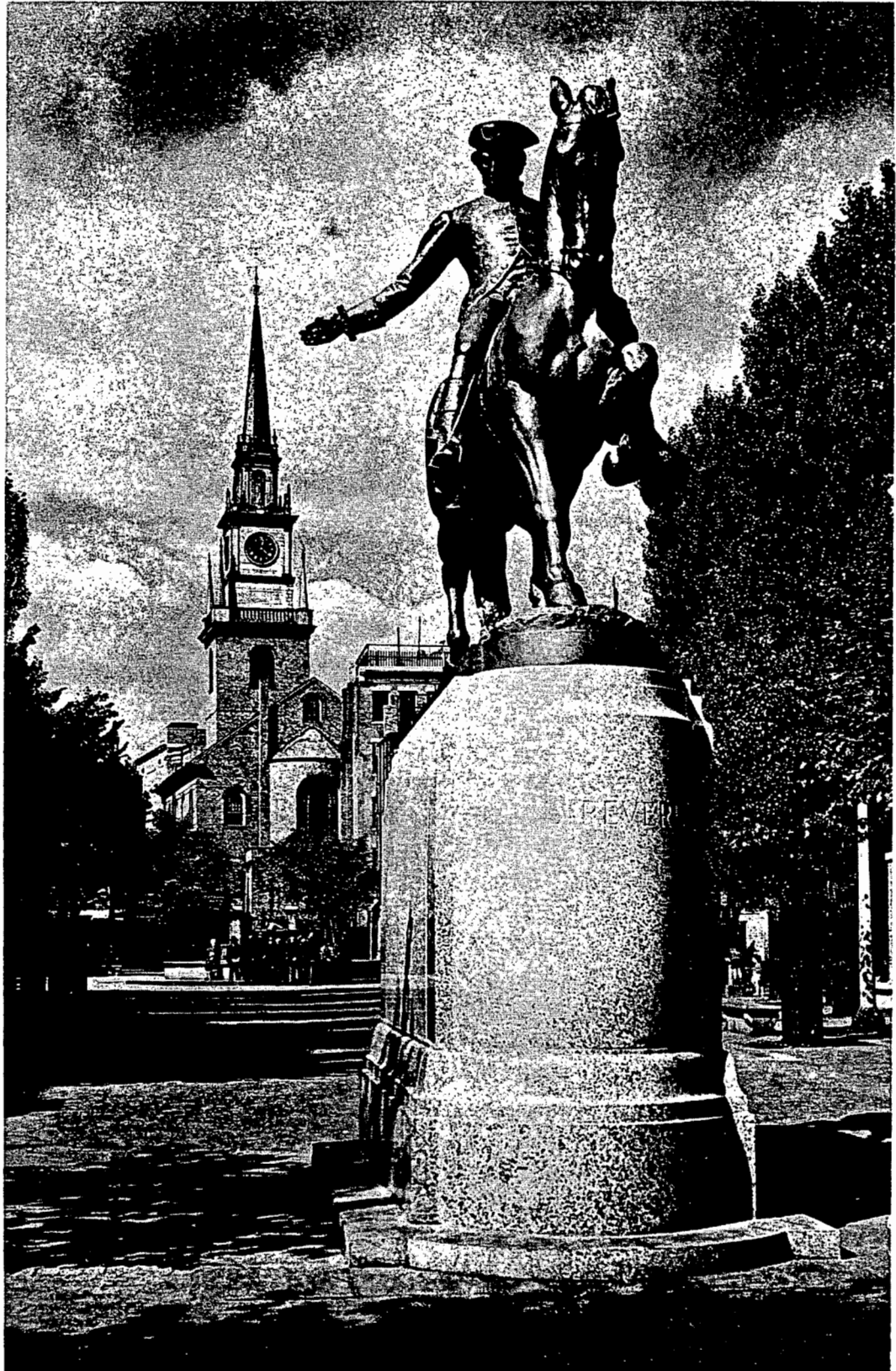
Old North Bridge.

Minuteman National Historical Park, Massachusetts

Location: Middlesex County; the Battle Road of 1775 and Mass. 2A, from Lexington on the east, westward through Lincoln to North Bridge in Concord. Address: c/o Boston Group, NPS, P.O. Box 160, Concord, Mass. 01742.

The military phase of the War for Independence began with the skirmishes at Lexington and Concord on April 19, 1775. British troops, marching out from Boston to seize a cache of colonial arms, came face to face with the Americans at Lexington Green. Firing broke out, the Americans dispersed and the British marched on westward to Concord. After an unsuccessful search for hidden arms and an exchange of fire between some 400 minutemen and 100 redcoats at the North Bridge, the British withdrew from Concord. By this time the aroused colonials had gathered from the surrounding countryside, harassing the retreating British column from behind fences and buildings until the King's exhausted troops retreated 18 miles into the haven of Boston. The British losses that day were 73 killed, 174 wounded and 26 missing, a total of 273 casualties out of about 1,800 men. The Americans lost 49 killed, 41 wounded and 5 missing, a total of 95 out of some 3,700 minutemen who turned out that day.

Minuteman National Historical Park consists of three units: the Battle Road, a four-mile corridor along the historic road along which the British advanced and retreated from Lexington to Concord on April 19, 1775; the North Bridge unit in Concord, where the minutemen attacked the redcoats and Daniel Chester French's well known minuteman statue stands; and "The Wayside," Nathaniel Hawthorne's home on Lexington Road in Concord. By the removal of modern buildings and the restoration of the landscape and historic farmhouses, the park scene is being gradually returned to its rural appearance in 1775.



Statue of Paul Revere and Old North Church. Courtesy Massachusetts Department of Commerce and Development.

Old North Church (Christ Church in Boston), Massachusetts ▲

Location: Suffolk County, 193 Salem Street, Boston. Ownership: Corporation of Christ Church in the City of Boston.

Old North Church was built in 1723 by William Price, a book and print seller of Boston, from designs based on Christopher Wren's great London churches. Historically and architecturally, it is one of the Nation's most cherished landmarks. The signal lanterns hung in the church belfry—"One, if by land, and two, if sea," as Longfellow put it—were not intended for Paul Revere, who had arranged for the signal. Nevertheless, despite the almost legendary quality of the story today, the lanterns did hang in the belfry on the night of April 18 to alert Americans on the opposite side of the Charles River that British troops were moving out of Boston by water. In addition to its role as a signal station on the eve of the Revolution, Old North possesses further distinction as Boston's oldest surviving church. With the adjacent equestrian statue of Paul Revere, it is a memorable evocation of the night when the call to arms went out and the War for Independence began.

Old North Church was the first example of the elaborate Georgian type of church structure to be erected in New England—a style characterized by a church tower topped by a lofty spire, a main entrance at one end of an oblong plan and long aisles separating the pews. The body of the church, was built of brick walls over two feet thick, laid in English bond (51 feet wide and 70 feet long) with two tiers of arched windows. A projecting square brick tower nearly 100 feet high was added to the original structure in 1724-37 and topped by a wooden steeple 191 feet high in 1740. This first steeple was blown down in 1804 and replaced several years later by a similar one, possibly designed by Charles Bulfinch. The second tower was toppled by a hurricane on August 31, 1954, and has since been replaced.

The interior is particularly valuable as an early example of the then-new "church" plan of a two-storied structure, with longitudinal aisles separating the groups of box pews, in contrast to the 17th-century "meeting-house" plan that had a raised pulpit on one long side of the building with galleries at the other three sides. The origin of the new plan in Wren designs is shown also by the use of superimposed pillars to support the galleries and the lower square.

The interior was restored in 1912-14, when a number of 19th-century alterations were eliminated. A stone tablet placed on the tower in 1878 identifies it as the place where the signal lanterns burned on the night of April 18, 1775. The active church is well maintained and is open to visitors. Congress in 1974 authorized the addition of Old North Church to the National Park System as a part of the new Boston National Historical Park.



Old South Meeting House. Courtesy Massachusetts Department of Commerce and Development.

Old South Meeting House, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Suffolk County, Milk and Washington Streets, Boston. Ownership: Old South Association.

Old South Meeting House—the “Sanctuary of Freedom”—belongs to two distinct triumvirates of historic buildings in Boston. The first group is made up of outstanding religious edifices from the colonial period, and includes Christ Church and King’s Chapel. The second group is made up of structures that gained a lasting place in the American heritage as scenes of public assembly and deliberations in the stirring period of the Revolutionary movement. In the latter group, Old South, because of its large seating capacity, shared distinction with the Second Boston Town House and Faneuil Hall. In many instances the last two could not accommodate certain mass gatherings that were the prelude to the final break with England. The mass protest meetings that gave Old South lasting fame took place during the tumultuous interval between the passage of the Townshend Acts in 1767 and the outbreak of war in 1775.

The first in the series of significant assemblies in Old South was held on June 14 and 15, 1768, when public feeling ran high immediately after the liberty riots and the ill-advised attempt by a captain of the British Navy to impress Yankee sailors in Boston Harbor. In this instance, the colonials were somewhat mollified by the intercession of the Governor and the assurance that the Navy would be more cautious in seeking men for service. Not quite two years later the Boston Massacre (March 5, 1770) brought an inflamed throng of citizens to the Old South Meeting House. A committee headed by Samuel Adams, fresh from a conference with British officials concerning the removal of the redcoats from Boston, reported to the people on the afternoon after the "massacre" in King Street. Master James Lovell of Boston Latin School delivered the first anniversary oration commemorating the Boston Massacre in Old South.

Perhaps, the most significant of the gatherings was the antitea protest meeting which led to the Boston Tea Party on the night of December 16, 1773. The 1775 anniversary observance of the Boston Massacre was the last and most eventful such assemblage in Old South. Dr. Joseph Warren is supposed to have entered through the window behind the pulpit to avoid the British officers who had crowded the aisles and seated themselves on the pulpit steps, presumably hoping to break up the meeting.

During the siege of Boston, the Old South congregation dispersed, many of the members seeking refuge outside the town. The church parsonage nearby was torn down by British troops and its material used as firewood. Old South's brick construction probably saved it from a similar fate, although most of its interior furnishings were used for fuel and, on General John Burgoyne's orders, the building turned into a riding school for British cavalry. This unhappy period ended with the evacuation of the British Army in March 1776. The congregation slowly reassembled and, in 1783, restored the interior much as it had been half a century earlier.

Old South, a large structure for its day, was built in 1729-30 for Third Church, the third body of Congregationalists to be organized in Boston. This group had gathered in 1669 to protest the narrower views of the congregation of North Church. In 1717 a new body of Congregationalists had taken the name "New South Church." To keep its identity clear, Third Church was called "Old South," the name it bears today. The new meetinghouse of brick, replacing an earlier wooden church, was designed by Robert Twelves and laid up in Flemish bond by Joshua Blanchard, a master mason who was later to win even higher recognition as the builder of the Thomas Hancock House on Beacon Hill and the original Faneuil Hall. The exterior of the new meetinghouse was designed in the new Georgian style. It had two tiers of

arched windows and a projecting tower in front, with a spire rising from an octagonal base. The interior plan, however, was typical of a 17th-century New England meetinghouse, consisting of a side entrance with a central aisle leading across the auditorium to a high pulpit at the middle of the opposite long side. Galleries extended around the other three sides, with a second gallery added over the first at the east end.

When the interior of the meetinghouse was restored in 1783, the original design was generally followed, although subsequent repairs and improvements reflected the styles and taste of the early Republic. A number of changes occurred during the 19th century until, in the great fire in 1872, a considerable area around the meetinghouse was burned, with some damage to the building itself. Because of the removal of many of its members to the developing Back Bay area, the congregation decided in 1874 to move to a new building at the corner of Boylston and Dartmouth Streets. Having no further use for the old church, the congregation decided to tear down the building and sell the valuable land on which it stood. When demolition started, however, public sentiment was aroused to save the structure. The outcome was the purchase of the meetinghouse for \$400,000 by a committee of citizens. In the next few years the growth of the Old South preservation fund assured the success of this early undertaking in the cause of historic preservation.

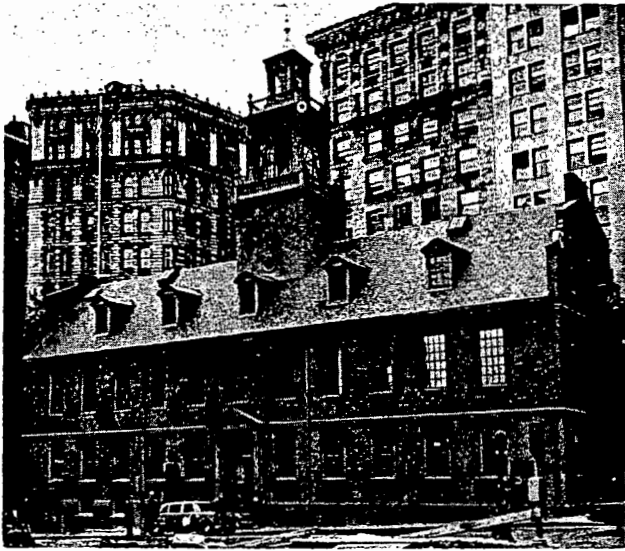
After necessary repairs had been made, Old South became a historical museum. Of particular note was its role as headquarters for the Old South work in history and the program of publication of the extensive series of Old South leaflets covering a broad range of American history.

Old South Meeting House has been maintained in a satisfactory state of repair and some efforts at restoration have been undertaken with the limited financial resources of the Old South Association. Box pews, for instance, have been installed again on the floor of the auditorium. Congress in 1974 authorized the addition of Old South Meeting House to the National Park System as a part of the new Boston National Historical Park.

Old State House (Second Boston Townhouse), Massachusetts ▲

Location: Suffolk County, Washington and State Streets, Boston.
Ownership: City of Boston.

In the troubled years prior to the Declaration of Independence in 1776, the Old State House was the scene of proceedings of the greatest moment. In February 1761, James Otis struck sparks here that helped



Old State House. Courtesy The Bostonian Society.

to ignite the Revolutionary movement with his impassioned argument against the legality of writs of assistance. Of this occasion John Adams wrote: "Then and there the Child Independence was born." The building figured prominently in the Stamp Act riots and in the affray called the Boston Massacre, March 5, 1770.

It was erected in 1712-13 to replace an earlier structure of wood completed in 1658 and destroyed in the great fire of October 2-3, 1711. The Old State House, like its predecessor, served as the second Boston townhouse and the seat of government of the Province of Massachusetts from 1713 until 1774 and of the Commonwealth from 1776 to 1798. The second building was itself destroyed by fire on December 9, 1747, and was rebuilt the following year, utilizing the walls that had survived.

Almost from the day of its completion, the Old State House was the center of political activity and controversy in the Province of Massachusetts Bay. Representatives of the Crown came into conflict here with the deputies of the people in the House of Representatives, whose membership was popularly chosen in the town meeting. In the Old State House, Gov. William Shirley worked out his plan for the expedition to capture the French fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island, one of the most notable military operations of the colonial period. Upon the return of the expedition in July 1745, its commanders were honored by a ceremony at the Old State House. In 1766, the House of Representatives voted to install a gallery for the accommodation of visitors, a noteworthy step forward in the democratic procedure of legislative assemblies opening their doors to the public. As the people of Boston grew increasingly restless, British General Gage was sworn into office as military governor in the council chamber of the state house. On June 7, 1774, Gage moved the final session of the general

court to Salem, and the state house ceased to be the seat of popular representation until legislators of the new State government returned in November 1776.

With the completion of Charles Bulfinch's new state house, the members of the legislature on January 11, 1789, marched in a body from the old structure to the new. In 1803, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts sold its interest in the building to the town of Boston, and the counties of Suffolk and Norfolk followed suit. For more than a quarter of a century the building housed private offices and served as a Masonic meeting hall. In 1830, Boston appropriated space in the building for a city hall. While rehabilitating the building for this purpose, the architects introduced new interior details and added a spiral stairway. The changes made at this time and perpetuated in work done later, when the building was rescued from oblivion and rededicated in 1882, largely obliterated the interior features that had given it identity with the period of the stormy movement toward revolution.

The Old State House is the oldest extant public building of Georgian design in the United States. As rebuilt in 1748, it is a handsome two-and-one-half story brick structure. The center of its dormered gable roof is occupied by a square cupola, with its three stories finished according to the Tuscan, Doric and Ionic orders. The exterior is little altered, but the interior has been changed greatly. In the original plan, the first floor interior consisted of one large hall which served as a merchants' exchange. On the second floor, there were three principal rooms: the governor's council room, the representatives chamber and the court chamber. The third floor was occupied by offices and committee rooms.

Ill conceived attempts in 1881-82 at restoration have marred seriously the interior of the Old State House. The present plan of the all important second floor has a circular foyer in the center, opening into four small rooms and into corridors that lead to the representatives' hall at one end of the building and the council chamber at the other. Some progress has recently been made in restoring the second floor to the 1776 period. The building is occupied by the Bostonian Society and is open to the public under the auspices of this group. In 1974, Congress authorized the addition of the Old State House to the National Park System as a part of the new Boston National Historical Park.

Oliver-Gerry-Lowell House (Elmwood), Massachusetts ▲

Location: Middlesex County, 33 Elmwood Street, Cambridge. Ownership: Harvard University.

The son of a wealthy and politically active merchant-shipper, Elbridge

Gerry graduated from Harvard in 1762 and joined his father and two brothers in the family business at Marblehead, Massachusetts. The business consisted of exporting dried codfish to Barbados and Spain. In 1772-74 he entered the colonial legislature, where he came under the influence of Samuel Adams, and took part in the Marblehead and Massachusetts committees of correspondence. In June of the latter year, when Parliament closed Boston Harbor and Marblehead became a major port of entry for supplies donated by supporters throughout the Colonies to relieve the Bostonians, he aided in the transshipment.

Between 1774 and 1776, Gerry attended the first and second provincial congresses; served with Samuel Adams and John Hancock on the council of safety, which prepared the colony for war; and, as chairman of the committee of supply, raised troops and dealt with military logistics. Gerry entered the Continental Congress in 1776 and voted for independence in July, but his absence at the formal ceremonies necessitated his signing the Declaration later in the year. As a member of Congress in 1776-80 and 1783-85, he advocated better pay and equipment for the Continental Army and sat on and sometimes presided over the congressional treasury board, which regulated Continental finances.

Erected in 1767 by Lieutenant Governor Andrew Oliver, last of the royal deputies in Massachusetts, this house, a confiscated loyalist estate, was purchased by Gerry in May 1787. The previous year he had retired from business with a comfortable fortune invested in government securities and real estate. As a delegate to the Constitutional Convention in 1787, he was one of the least useful members and highly inconsistent in his course of action. A contemporary reported that he "objected to everything he did not propose," and he was one of three delegates present who declined to sign the finished Constitution.

Gerry was elected to the new Congress in February 1789, where he became a supporter of the Constitution and strongly backed the financial measures of Alexander Hamilton. After an ill-fated diplomatic mission to France in 1797, he was elected to two terms as governor of Massachusetts and later in 1812 to the vice presidency of the United States on the ticket with James Madison. Gerry took his oath of office at his Cambridge residence on March 4, 1813. He died in Washington, D.C., on November 23, 1814, and, as a result of severe financial losses after 1800, left heavy debts which consumed all his estates except the Cambridge mansion. Congress paid for his burial in the Congressional Cemetery in Washington, D.C. His wife lived until 1849, the last surviving widow of a signer of the Declaration of Independence.

On February 22, 1819, James Russell Lowell, a prominent writer during the literary period known as the "Flowering of New England," was born in this house which he later called Elmwood. Here he resided

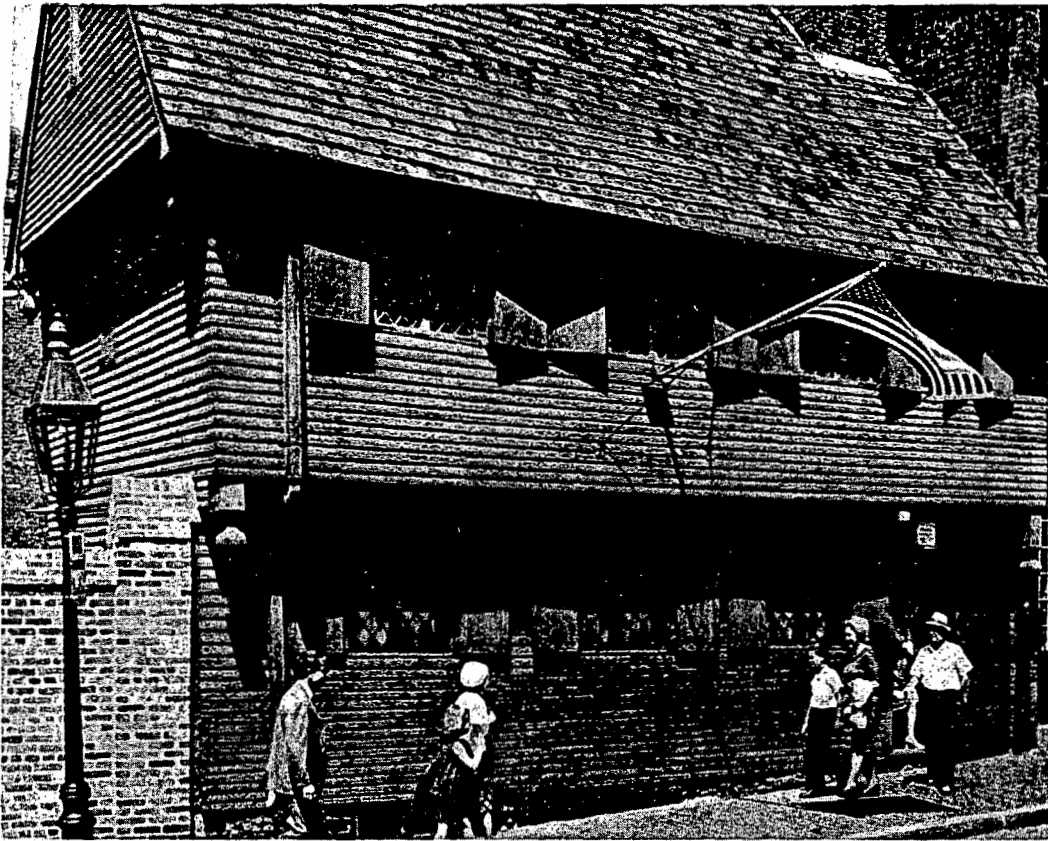


Elmwood.

throughout his life until his death on August 12, 1891.

Elmwood is a large square, three-story, frame structure in Georgian style with bricklined walls and two interior brick chimneys. The low-pitched hipped roof is enclosed at the edge by a balustrade. The third-story windows are foreshortened, as was usual in three-story Georgian houses of the period, and set against the boldly modillioned cornice. The entranceway is surmounted by a flat section of classic entablature that includes a frieze and is flanked on either side by Tuscan pilasters. Above this, in the second story, is a large rectangular window flanked by Ionic pediments and topped by a triangular pediment. The single-story balustraded porch on the north side and the terrace on the south are later additions. There is a two-story frame service wing located in the rear at the northwest corner and a one-story frame wing at the rear southwest corner.

The interior plan is of the usual Georgian central hall type with two rooms on either side; this scheme is followed on each of the upper two floors. Donated to Harvard University in 1962, portions of the interior have been modernized and altered. Now used as the residence of the president of the University, the house is not open to visitors. The house and grounds are maintained in excellent condition.



Paul Revere House. Courtesy Massachusetts Department of Commerce and Development.

Paul Revere House, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Suffolk County, 19 North Square, Boston. Ownership: Paul Revere Memorial Association.

Although it has been restored extensively, the Paul Revere House retains its original framework and, in addition to its significance as the home of a leading Revolutionary American, is important as one of downtown Boston's two surviving 17th-century dwellings. It was occupied by Paul Revere for about five years before the outbreak of the Revolution and was his home until 1800. The original portion of the house was built, probably by John Jeffs, soon after the Boston fire of 1676, on the site of the Increase Mather parsonage. Architectural investigation indicates the house was originally a two-and-one-half story frame structure with steep-pitched roof, overhang, wood pendants and casement windows, but when Revere moved into it almost a century later it had already been enlarged to three full stories. In the 19th century, after Revere's death, the dwelling degenerated into a tenement and store and was considerably altered. In 1908 it was studied and restored by Architect Joseph Everett Chandler, who worked to preserve it as an example of a 17th-century urban house.

The Paul Revere House consists of the two-and-one-half story main portion, fronting on North Square, and an early kitchen all at the rear. It was through the back door in the kitchen ell that Revere probably passed for his famous ride on the night of April 18, 1775. North Square was full of British soldiers, and the front door would not have been safe. The main house has a deeply recessed fireplace in the hall and a small porch and winding stair in front of the chimney. The ceiling of the large room or hall is spanned by two summer beams. The main house has the characteristic 17th-century overhang, and the pendants, windows, front door and roof have been restored in the 17th-century fashion, but the second-floor chamber is plastered, paneled and painted as it might have been when occupied by the Reveres. The house is well maintained and is open to the public. Congress in 1974 authorized the addition of the Paul Revere House to the National Park System as a part of the new Boston National Historical Park.

Salem Maritime National Historic Site, Massachusetts

Location: Essex County, Derby Street, Salem. Address: c/o Boston Group, NPS, P.O. Box 160, Concord, Mass. 01742.

The group of buildings and wharves at this site memorializes U.S. maritime greatness and pioneering enterprise upon the sea during the 18th and first half of the 19th century. Founded in 1626 by Roger Conant as the plantation of Naumkeag and established two years later as the first town in Massachusetts Bay Colony, Salem owed its prosperity to a seaboard location and was the sixth most important port of the thirteen colonies at the time of the War for Independence. Prior to the settlement of Boston, it was the principal debarkation points for the Puritan migrations from England in the 1630's.

Salem and other New England ports figured prominently in the colonial and early republican economy. Beginning soon in the 17th century, sailing vessels based at Salem plied the sea lanes of the world. As early as 1643 Salem merchants sent fish, lumber and provisions to the West Indies in exchange for sugar and molasses, which were brought home and made into rum. Gradually the orbit of trade was extended to Europe, for the most part to Portugal and Spain, which offered in return a ready market for dried fish and supplied salt, wine, fruit, iron and Spanish dollars.

This trade and that with the West Indies—which after 1700 developed into the “triangular trade” between New England, the West Indies and Africa—thrived until 1763, when the long struggle between France and England for the mastery of North America ended and the



Custom House, Salem Maritime National Historic Site.

British government began to enact and enforce new measures that limited stringently the commerce of the American colonies. Under these conditions the economic life of Salem, like that of all Atlantic ports, came to a standstill, and a discontent engendered that grew into resistance and eventually rebellion.

During the War for Independence, Salem, with the adjacent harbors of Beverly and Marblehead, was a major base for American privateers, the swift and formidable ships that preyed on British vessels. Because it was the one major port in the United States that did not fall into British hands during the war, Salem and its neighboring harbors were

a particular thorn in the British side. Sending forth about 158 vessels, Salem's privateers are estimated to have seized some 445 British ships as prizes.

For nearly three quarters of a century after that time, until the era of the clipper ships, Salem continued to be a key New England port. At the end of the war the energy that had been shown in privateering found an outlet in a worldwide search for new markets. Between the American Revolution and the War of 1812, especially, Salem emerged as one of the major seaports in the Western Hemisphere. Not a large city, it gained wealth and fame from the work of a small but bold population of shipmasters and sailors, sponsored by a small group of enterprising merchants. One of the most successful of these merchants was Elias Hasket Derby. These shipmasters made pioneering voyages into the Baltic and beyond the Cape of Good Hope to the East Indies and China—voyages that helped to usher in the first golden age of foreign trade and to achieve for Salem the reputation of a "New World Venice."

The embargo President Jefferson imposed on U.S. shipping in 1807 and the War of 1812 were severe blows to Salem and were the first of several factors that in but a few decades led to the decline of her commerce. During the War of 1812, however, privateering took the place of trade as it had in the War for Independence. At the end of hostilities, Salem demonstrated the same pioneering instinct that had been in evidence at the close of the American Revolution. Merchants explored new channels of trade to Africa, Australia and South America. After the discovery of gold in California in 1848, Salem shipowners were among the first to reap profits from the trade around Cape Horn to San Francisco. However, the great increase in the size of vessels that came with the decade of the clipper ships, 1850-60, brought Salem's maritime activities abruptly to a close. Her harbor was too shallow to accommodate the large ships, and the deep water ports of Boston and New York absorbed her commerce.

Salem Maritime was designated a national historic site in 1938. It occupies an area of almost nine acres bordering on Salem Harbor. Captain Richard Derby and his son Elias Hasket Derby; began building Derby Wharf in 1764. After the War for Independence it became a mercantile center of the Republic. One of the major survivals from Salem's era of maritime supremacy, the wharf was restored in 1938. It extends nearly 2,100 feet into the harbor. Directly opposite the wharf is the Custom House, constructed in 1819, where Nathaniel Hawthorne once worked and collected materials for his novel, *The Scarlet Letter*. The oldest surviving brick house in Salem is the Derby House, erected in 1761-62 by Captain Richard Derby as a wedding gift for his son, Elias Hasket Derby. Other buildings of interest are the Hawkes House, built by Elias about 1780, and the Rum Shop, erected about 1815.



Wright's Tavern.

Wright's Tavern, Massachusetts ▲

Location: Middlesex County, Center of Concord on Lexington Road.

Ownership: Society of the First Parish, Concord.

Wright's Tavern stood in the center of Concord with the public meetinghouse on one side and the militia training ground on the other. It was a favorite resort of Concord's leading citizens for both business and pleasure, and thus played an important role in the transaction of the town's civil and military business. Built in 1747 by Ephraim Jones, who operated it until 1751, the tavern was managed during the portentous days of April 1775 by Amos Wright, whose name has borne ever since. On April 19, when the courthouse bell announced the approach of Lt. Col. Francis Smith's British troops, the Concord minutemen assembled at Wright's Tavern. Later, after Smith's arrival in the public square, the British officers took refreshments in the tavern. As the scene of these events, the tavern has important associations with the opening military episode of the Revolution.

It also has associations with the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts Bay which met next door, in the First Parish Church, in October 1774. This congress, with John Hancock as president and Benjamin Lincoln as secretary, consisted of 300 delegates from Massachusetts towns who passed measures ending the payment of taxes to the Crown and organizing a militia to defy the king by arms if necessary. Wright's Tavern was used as a meeting place for committees of the Congress during the 5-day session, and also provided refreshments for the delegates.

With dark red clapboards and double-hipped roof, low-studded Wright's Tavern is still in good condition. The main structure, square in plan, dates from 1747; a one-story wing on the west side was added in the 19th century and the glassed-in porch at the rear was added early in the 20th century. Until recently it functioned in its original role as a public house. Since the Revolution, however, it has seen many uses and was finally saved from a doubtful future by the efforts of the Society of the First Parish around 1900 and the generosity of two of Concord's public-spirited citizens.

General John Sullivan House, New Hampshire ▲

Location: Strafford County, 23 New Market Road, Durham. Ownership: private.

John Sullivan played a leading role during the War for Independence as an able major general of the Continental Army and a political leader in the Continental Congress. On receipt of Paul Revere's warning of a British embargo on arms, Sullivan, then a major in the New Hampshire militia, led 400 Portsmouth Sons of Liberty against Fort William and Mary at the entrance to Portsmouth Harbor on December 14, 1774. They seized stores of gunpowder, arms and cannon. This incident has been considered by some historians to be the first overt act of the American Revolution.

In June 1775, Congress made Sullivan a brigadier general in the Continental Army, and the next month he joined Washington's army outside Boston where he took part in the siege of the city. During the spring of 1776, he led 5,000 troops north to reinforce the American army in Canada, and on June 2, when the commanding general, John Thomas, died of smallpox, Sullivan found himself in command of the entire force in Canada.

Promoted to major general in August 1776, Sullivan joined Washington's army at New York City and in the Battle of Long Island, August 27, he was captured by the British. After his exchange, Sullivan rejoined the American army at the end of September and participated in the retreat across New Jersey. He spent the winter of 1776-77 with the army at Morristown, New Jersey, and in 1777 he took part in the campaign to defend Philadelphia.

After spending the winter of 1777-78 at Valley Forge, Washington placed Sullivan in command of the Rhode Island Department, with a view to driving the British army from Newport. In this first effort at Franco-American cooperation under the terms of the alliance of February 6, 1778, everything depended on the active cooperation of the

French 4,000-man army and fleet under Admiral Count d'Estaing. On August 9, Sullivan landed his army on Rhode Island and on the 15th, with the French, began the siege of Newport. The British fleet appeared, and the French sailed out to meet them. A storm scattered and injured both squadrons before any action could take place. When the French withdrew to Boston for repairs, most of Sullivan's discouraged militia went home, leaving him with an inferior force. In the Battle of Rhode Island on August 29, 1778, Sullivan repulsed the British and after dark on August 30, he secretly conveyed his army to the mainland.

In 1779, Washington again chose Sullivan to lead the expedition against the Six Nations, who had kept American settlements on the frontier in western Pennsylvania and New York in flames during the war. His military career came to a close when he resigned from the army in November 1779, after having burned 41 Iroquois towns and vast acreages of crops. During 1780 and 1781 he served in the Continental Congress as a delegate from New Hampshire.

Overlooking the Oyster River, the General John Sullivan House was built by Dr. Samuel Adams in the period 1729-41 and served as Adams' residence until 1762. John Sullivan purchased the dwelling and three acres of land on December 19, 1764. He resided here until his death in 1795.

The house is a two-story, L-shaped frame structure with central chimney and gable roof. The exterior walls are covered with graduated clapboarding that increases in width as the boards near the eaves. The center door, protected by a restored porch, opens into a short center hall. The walls are adorned with their original paneling, and the stairway with its original handsomely carved balusters is against the central chimney. To the left of the center hall is the library which has an original mantel. To the right of the hall is the parlor,

General John Sullivan House.



complete with its original fireplace paneling and dado. Behind the parlor is a dining room with its original paneling. The ell behind this hall contains a service stairway and the kitchen. There are three bedrooms on the second floor and one more in the attic. The floors of the house also are original. At some undetermined date, a two-story sun porch was added to the rear corner of the house.

The house has been restored and renovated since 1966. In excellent condition, the structure is still used as a private residence and is not open to visitors. Behind the house is a small cemetery where Sullivan is buried. On a small hill to the right of the private road leading to the house is a monument to General John Sullivan, erected by the State of New Hampshire in 1894.

John Paul Jones House, New Hampshire ▲

Location: Rockingham County, Middle and State Streets, Portsmouth.
Ownership: Portsmouth Historical Society.

The John Paul Jones House is the structure in which the Scottish-born naval hero rented rooms for two years (1781-82) while supervising the construction of the warship *America*, a ship of the line, for the Continental Navy. A sea captain who had sailed on slave ships and merchantmen, Jones came to America in 1773. On December 7, 1775, he was employed by the Continental Congress and outfitted the *Alfred*, the first naval ship procured by Congress and the first to fly the Continental "Flag of Freedom." Jones, serving as the first lieutenant of the *Alfred*, took part in the first expedition of the Continental Navy early in 1776. On October 10 of that year, he was promoted to the rank of captain.

From October 1776 to November 1777, Jones was at Portsmouth, supervising the construction of the Continental sloop *Ranger*. When he left Portsmouth in command of the *Ranger* in November 1777, he bore news of the victory at Saratoga to the French Court. In April 1778, Jones sailed from Brest in the *Ranger* bound for a raid along the Scottish coast. After cruising for 28 days, taking captive eight prizes including the British naval sloop *Drake* and greatly alarming the British people, Jones returned to Brest.

In 1779, the French king gave Jones an old ship of 40 guns which Jones renamed the *Bonhomme Richard*. That August, heading a small squadron of five naval vessels and two privateers, Jones sailed along the west coast of Ireland and around Scotland, taking 17 ships in his course. On September 23, Jones fell in with the Baltic trade fleet of 41 sails, conveyed by His Majesty's ships, *Serapis* and *Countess*



John Paul Jones House.

of *Scarborough*. The latter ship was quickly forced to surrender, but Jones' battle with the *Serapis* ranks as one of the most desperate sea fights in naval history. In response to the British captain's question, "Has your ship struck?" Jones replied with the immortal words, "I have not yet begun to fight." Jones final victory was due almost solely to his indomitable courage.

Returning to America in 1781, Jones was appointed by Congress on June 26 of that year to the command of the *America*, the first and only 74-gun ship in the Continental Navy, then building at Portsmouth. Reaching Portsmouth in late August 1781, Jones remained there more than a year supervising the construction of the *America*. When at last the ship was launched in 1782 and Congress had presented her to the French Government, Jones returned to Philadelphia and resigned from the navy the following year. Congress subsequently resolved unanimously that a gold medal should be presented to Jones in commemoration of his brilliant services. He was the only officer of the Continental navy thus distinguished.

Built by Captain Gregory Purcell in 1758, the John Paul Jones House is a large rectangular two-and-one-half story frame structure with gambrel roof and two interior chimneys. The center door in the front facade is topped by a segmental pediment, and the first-floor

windows by triangular pediments. The house has a center hall plan with two rooms located on either side of the hall. To the left of the hall, in front, is a large parlor with a paneled overmantel and wainscoting on the other walls, and behind this, the counting room. To the right of the hall are a large dining room and the original kitchen. The stairway is adorned with elaborate balusters and is lighted by an arched window set in the rear wall. The first floor plan is repeated on the second floor, where there are four bedrooms. The bedroom used by Jones was located in the southeast corner of the house. The first floor rooms of the two-story frame wing, which was added in the early 19th century, contain museum exhibits. There are five more chambers on the third floor plus a full attic. The little-altered structure was acquired by the Portsmouth Historical Society in 1919 and serves as their headquarters. Furnished as a historical house exhibit, the building is open to visitors.

Josiah Bartlett House, New Hampshire ▲

Location: Rockingham County, N.H., 111, opposite Town Hall, Kingston. Ownership: private.

Built in 1774, this home was the residence from 1774 to 1795 of Josiah Bartlett, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for New Hampshire. Bartlett began the study of medicine at the age of 16, and five years later, in 1750, he qualified as a physician and began the practice of his profession in the town of Kingston.

Developing a wide practice as a doctor, Bartlett also became active in politics. He was elected representative from Kingston to the provincial assembly from 1765 to 1775. Active in the revolutionary cause, he served as a colonel in the militia from 1767 to February 1775. Although he was elected a delegate to the First Continental Congress in 1774, he was unable to attend because of the destruction of his house by fire. However, he attended the Second Continental Congress in 1775-76 and was the first delegate to vote for the Declaration of Independence. He was reelected in 1777, but he did not attend Congress because of illness. From May 1778 to 1779, he was again active in Congress but then resigned due to physical exhaustion. In 1779 he was appointed chief justice of the New Hampshire court of common pleas. Three years later, he was promoted to be associate justice of the superior court and then served as its chief justice from 1788 to 1790.

Bartlett was a member of the state convention held in 1788 to ratify the new Federal Constitution, which he supported. From 1790 to 1794, he was first president and then Governor of New Hampshire, after which he retired from public life because of ill health. In 1790, Dart-



Josiah Bartlett House.

mouth College conferred upon him the honorary degree of Doctor of Medicine, and the following year he secured from the state legislature a charter for the New Hampshire Medical Society which, when organized with a constitution and by-laws drafted by his own hand, elected him as its first president.

Built by Bartlett in 1774, this house is a two-story rectangular frame structure with a gable roof and two interior chimneys. The walls are covered with clapboarding, and the windows have exterior louvered shutters. The exterior of the house was remodelled in the Greek revival style during the early part of the 19th century. The Greek revival features include the giant pilasters at the corners of the house, the cornices over the first-story windows and the single-story porch across the south end of the house. A two-story frame ell was also added to the west side of the house, containing a summer kitchen and work rooms on the first floor and four bedrooms above.

The main house has a center hall plan, with the four rooms on the first floor divided into pairs. The center hall extends through the house and is divided into sections, each portion, front and rear, containing a stairway which is set against the north wall. The second floor has four bedrooms divided into pairs by means of a central hall.

The Bartlett House is in excellent condition and has never been restored. In the possession of the Bartlett family since 1774, the house is still used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.



Matthew Thornton House.

Matthew Thornton House, New Hampshire ▲

Location: Rockingham County, 2 Thornton Street, Derry Village.
Ownership: private.

Irish-born Matthew Thornton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for New Hampshire, came to America at the age of four. After studying medicine, he was admitted to the profession in 1740 and began to practice in Londonderry, New Hampshire, where he resided until 1780. In 1745, Thornton took part in the Louisburg Expedition to Nova Scotia as an undersurgeon.

Entering politics about 1758, Thornton was elected as the representative from Londonderry to the provincial assembly, an office he held until 1775. In the latter year, he was elected president of the provincial assembly. He helped prepare a constitution for New Hampshire and in January 1776 was elected speaker of the House of Representatives of the new State Legislature. In 1776 he was also chosen as a delegate to the Continental Congress, and although he did not take his place until November 19, he was allowed to sign the Declaration. After serving in Congress for one year, he returned to resume an active role in state affairs. Earlier in 1776, he had been selected an associate justice of the superior court and he held this office until 1782.

In 1780 Thornton moved from Londonderry and established his home on a farm in Merrimac County, New Hampshire, where he lived until his death in 1803. He gave up his medical practice but continued to be active in political affairs for some years, serving in the newly organized state senate from 1784 to 1786.

The Matthew Thornton House is a two-story, square-shaped frame house with two interior chimneys set behind the ridge. Of the salt-box type, its gable roof slopes steeply to the rear to include a one-story lean-to on the rear elevation. The exterior of the building was remodeled in the Greek revival style during the first portion of the 19th century. The front corners are marked by giant pilasters and a one-bay wide single-story portico shelters the center door of the front facade. The walls are covered with clapboards; the windows have exterior louvered shutters and first-story windows are topped by cornices. A one-story frame service ell extends at right angles from the rear corner of the main house, thus giving the structure its present L-shape. This rear service wing contains the kitchen and work rooms for the servants.

The main house has a central hall plan which divides the four rooms on the first floor into pairs. The center hall, divided into front and rear sections, extends through the house. Each portion has its own stairway, and the stair is set against the right wall of the hall. Most of the interior features of the house date from the 19th century, except for the original wide-board floors which remain in place in many rooms of the house. The house has never been restored and is still used as a private residence.

Moffatt-Ladd House, New Hampshire ▲

Location: Rockingham County, 154 Market Street, Portsmouth. Ownership: National Society of Colonial Dames of America in the State of New Hampshire.

An outstanding example of a late Georgian frame mansion, this impressive three-story structure was the residence from 1768 to 1785 of William Whipple, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for New Hampshire. After receiving a common school education, Whipple went to sea at an early age and while still in his early twenties became master of a vessel. He was probably engaged for a time in the slave trade. About 1760, he gave up the sea and formed a successful mercantile partnership with his brother at Portsmouth.

Whipple retired from business and entered public life in 1775. He was prominent in the early provincial congresses, a member of the New Hampshire Council in 1776 and of the State Committee of Safety. From 1776 to 1779 he served in the Continental Congress where he signed the Declaration. In July 1777, he was appointed a brigadier-general in command of the First New Hampshire militia brigade. Two months later, Whipple led four regiments of New Hampshire militia to upper New York State where he helped to encircle and besiege the



Moffatt-Ladd House.

British Army at Saratoga and was present at Burgoyne's surrender on October 17. The following year, he led another contingent of New Hampshire militia in the Rhode Island campaign.

When Whipple returned to State politics in 1780, he became a member of the New Hampshire legislature where he served until 1784. From 1782 to 1785 he was associate judge of the superior court of New Hampshire, and during the period 1782-84 he held the post of receiver of finance for Congress in his State. Whipple died at Portsmouth in 1785 and was buried in the Union Cemetery of that town.

Constructed by ship's carpenters in 1763, Captain John Moffatt, a wealthy merchant, presented the house to his son Samuel as a wedding gift in 1763. After his son's failure in business, Captain Moffatt repurchased the house in 1768 and lived there until his death in 1784. William Whipple, Moffatt's son-in-law, and his wife Catherine lived in the house with the old sea captain.

This square, clapboarded Georgian residence stands on a slight elevation overlooking old Portsmouth harbor. Noteworthy exterior features include white corner quoins and richly pedimented first-and-second-floor windows. The third-story windows, smaller in size, abut the distinctive cornice. The hip roof, flanked by three end chimneys, is cut off to form a flat deck, or captain's walk, which is enclosed by a handsome balustrade with urn finials.

The interior of the house is as highly embellished as the exterior. The outstanding room on the first floor is the unusually spacious entrance hall, one of the finest in New England. Its carved cornice is handsome, and the walls are covered with rare imported French wallpaper of the

early 19th century. Except for the simple detail in the drawing room, that in other first-floor rooms—dining room and pantry—is rich. The finely carved flight of stairs is lighted by a roundhead window in the side wall above the landing. Four bedrooms, three of them with richly carved mantels, are located on the second floor, and there are five additional chambers on the third floor.

The carefully restored house and grounds were owned by the Ladd family, descendants of the Moffatts through marriage, until 1969. From 1913 until 1969, they leased the house to the Colonial Dames of America in the State of New Hampshire, which maintained it for public display. In 1969, the Colonial Dames acquired full title to the property. The first two floors of the house are open to the public.

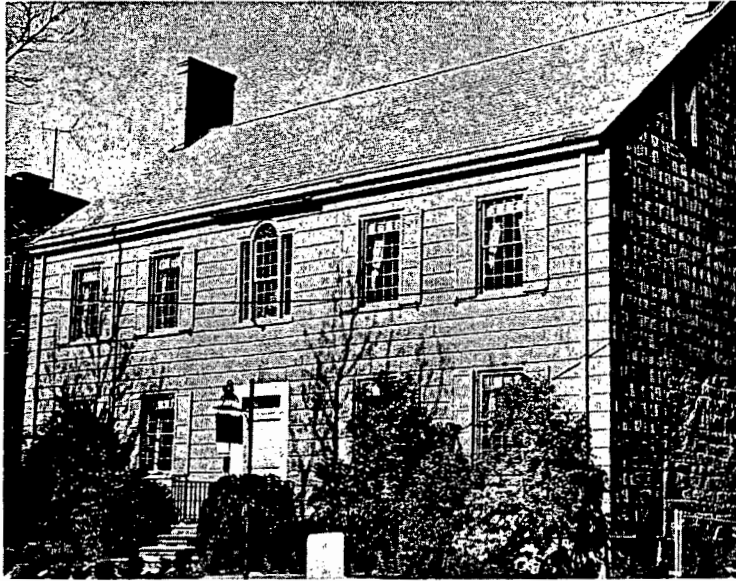
Elias Boudinot House (Boxwood Hall), New Jersey ▲

Location: Union County, 1073 East Jersey, near Catherine Street, Elizabeth. Ownership: State of New Jersey, New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection.

Boxwood Hall was the home from 1772 to 1795 of Elias Boudinot, commissary-general of prisoners and a president of the Continental Congress during the Revolutionary War. A leader in the law profession and a trustee of Princeton University (1772-1821), he was a conservative in politics but followed the liberal trend of his colony toward Revolution.

In June 1774, Boudinot became a member of the Committee of Correspondence for Essex County, New Jersey, but felt a "firm dependence in the mother country essential." The following March, with William Livingston, he hurried the New Jersey Assembly into approving the proceedings of the First Continental Congress and was a member of the New Jersey Provincial Congress in 1775 and 1776. On June 6, 1777, by commission dated May 15, Congress appointed Boudinot commissary-general of prisoners, with the pay and rations of colonel and full power even to the extent of altering the directions of the Board of War. He organized the care of the American prisoners despite great difficulties and put in \$30,000 of his own finances to do it.

Boudinot was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress in November 1777, but he did not attend sessions until July 1778, and then only on Washington's insistence that it was his only chance to be reimbursed in "hard money" out of the gold captured from Burgoyne. He served in the Continental Congress until 1784, being elected its president on November 4, 1782, and acting as secretary of foreign affairs from June 16, 1783. In these positions, he signed the treaties of peace with Great Britain and of alliance with the French king and the procla-



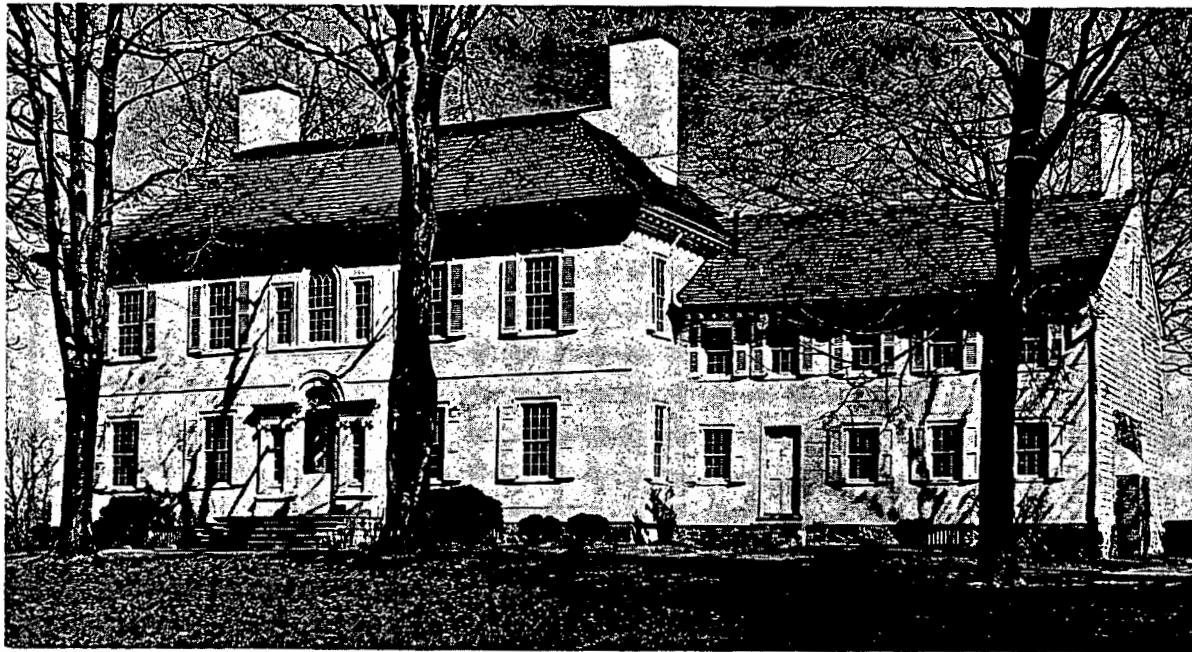
Boxwood Hall. Courtesy New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection.

mations for cessation of hostilities, thanksgiving, discharging the army and removing the Congress to Princeton, New Jersey. He presided at the session held in Nassau Hall from June-November 1783 when Washington was thanked for his services "in establishing the freedom and independence of your country."

As a strong Federalist, Boudinot helped ratify the Federal Constitution in New Jersey and conducted Washington into New York City for the first inauguration. Elected to the House of Representatives in the first three congresses, he fathered many essential measures and participated in virtually all important debates. In 1795 he became the director of the United States mint at Philadelphia, a position he held until 1805 when he retired from public life.

In 1772 Boudinot purchased Boxwood Hall, which had been built 22 years earlier. Here he resided until 1795, when he sold the dwelling to General Jonathan Dayton, a signer of the Federal Constitution. In 1870, two original lateral wings were demolished and a rear service wing was added. Two additional stories and a mansard roof were also superimposed over the two original stories of the main house. The structure was operated until 1939 as the Home for Aged Women of Elizabeth.

In the late 1930's the Boxwood Hall Memorial Association was formed by interested citizens to prevent the building from being demolished. This Association purchased the property and deeded it to the State of New Jersey. Boxwood Hall was restored in 1942-43 through a Works Progress Administration project which included the reconstruction of the existing gable roof and windows sash and removal of the 1870 additions. The frame, interior paneling and floors are original. Boxwood Hall is open to visitors as an historic house museum.



Ford Mansion.

Ford Mansion, New Jersey ▲

Location: Morris County, 230 Morris Avenue at Washington Place, Morristown; included in Morristown National Historical Park.

The Ford Mansion was the headquarters of General George Washington from December 1, 1779, to June 23, 1780, during the 1779-80 encampment of the main Continental army at Morristown. Here on May 10, 1780, Lafayette came with welcome news of the second French expedition sent to aid the Americans.

Built by Colonel Jacob Ford in 1774, the Ford Mansion is an outstanding symmetrical example of a late Georgian frame house. It is a two-story, five-bay-wide frame residence with a broad hipped roof. Handsomely proportioned, the fine central doorway has side lights and a fanlight done in the Palladian motif, which is repeated in the Palladian window above. The wide clapboard of the walls are flushed-boarded horizontally on the facade to simulate a surface of dress stone.

The house was acquired by the Washington Association of New Jersey in 1873 and utilized as a Revolutionary War museum. In 1933, it was established as a part of Morristown National Historical Park. The building was partially restored by the National Park Service in 1939, when the few 19th-century alterations were removed. The Ford Mansion is open to visitors as a historic house museum.



Francis Hopkinson House. Courtesy New Jersey Historical Society.

Francis Hopkinson House, New Jersey ▲

Location: Burlington County, 101 Farnsworth Avenue at Park Street, Bordentown. Ownership: private.

From 1774 to 1791, Francis Hopkinson, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for New Jersey and noted political satirist, lived in this home in Bordentown. His somewhat altered brick house, erected in 1750, is in excellent condition.

The son of a prominent lawyer, Hopkinson graduated from the College of Philadelphia in 1757. He studied law under Benjamin Chew, and in 1761 was admitted to the bar in Pennsylvania. After holding minor posts as collector of customs in New Jersey and Delaware, he took up residence in his father-in-law's house (the Hopkinson House) in Bordentown and returned to law. In 1774 he was appointed a member of the governor's council and two years later was elected to the Continental Congress. Here he served as chairman of the Continental Navy Board from November 1776 to August 1778 and held the office of treasurer of loans from July 1778 to July 1781. Hopkinson became judge of admiralty for Pennsylvania, serving in this position until 1789. In this latter year, Washington appointed him judge of the United States court of the eastern district, a position that he held until his sudden death from apoplexy on May 9, 1791.

Hopkinson also displayed musical, literary and artistic talents in support of the Revolutionary cause. A writer of numerous poems before the war, he became active as a political satirist and pamphleteer in 1774. Some of his most effective writing, however, was in verse of which "The Battle of the Kegs" (1778) was probably his most popular work.

Possessing artistic ability, Hopkinson designed seals for the Ad-

mirality, the Treasury and the Great Seal of the United States. In addition to this, he did a variety of work on the Continental currency, and in 1777 prepared a design for the flag of the United States.

As a student of music since 1754, Hopkinson wrote original pieces in 1757-59 and published some of his works in 1763-65. In December 1781, he composed and conducted the cantata, *Temple of Minerva*, to celebrate the alliance between France and the United States.

On his death in 1791, the Hopkinson House passed to his son Joseph, the composer of "Hail Columbia" and the "President's March." The house remained in the Hopkinson family until 1915, when it was acquired by Judge Harold B. Wells, whose family still owns the structure.

The Hopkinson House is an L-shaped two-and-one-half story brick structure with a gambrel and dormered roof. A two-story brick wing extends to the rear from the northeast corner of the main house. Attached to the rear of this wing is a two-story frame, containing a kitchen and servant's bedroom.

The center door in the main house is sheltered by a segmental hood and opens into a center hall that extends through the house from front to rear. The hall is divided into two sections by means of wide folding doors that are topped by an arched fanlight. To the left of the hall is a large living room and to the right is a library. The walls are plastered and the floors have 11-inch wide boards. These two rooms and hall are now utilized by the Bordentown Chamber of Commerce as an office and museum and are open to visitors. The rest of the structure is divided into two apartments, neither of which is open to the public.

The exterior of the house, except for a metal roof, appears to be little-altered. Although the basic floor plan of the structure has not been greatly changed, the interior has undergone considerable alteration in details such as replacing woodwork and trim.

Liberty Hall, New Jersey ▲

Location: Union County, Morris and North Avenues, Elizabeth. Ownership: private.

Liberty Hall was the home from 1773 to 1790 of William Livingston, governor of New Jersey during the War for Independence and a major political leader of the American Revolutionary period. From the day of his admission to the bar in New York in 1748, he was an aristocratic leader among those of assured position who supported the popular cause. Livingston labored hard to reconcile the radicals to the moderate leadership which his family represented, but the masses became increasingly dissatisfied with his temporizing.



Liberty Hall.

Following a decisive victory by his political opponents in the New York Assembly, Livingston retired to his country estate near Elizabethtown, New Jersey, which he had acquired in 1760. In May 1772 he laid out elaborate grounds, planted an extensive orchard and erected a mansion known as "Liberty Hall." Here he began life anew as a gentleman farmer and quickly became active in New Jersey politics.

Becoming a member of the Essex County Committee of Correspondence, Livingston soon rose to a position of leadership and was one of the province's delegates to the First Continental Congress. There he served on the committee with his son-in-law, John Jay, and Richard Henry Lee to draft an address to the people of British America. He was returned as a deputy to the Second Continental Congress, serving until June 5, 1776, when he assumed command of the New Jersey militia. He discharged these duties until August 31, 1776, when the legislature under the new state constitution elected him first governor of New Jersey. For the next 14 years, he ably bore the responsibilities of the governorship during the war and reconstruction periods.

When peace came, Livingston's messages to the legislature dealt discriminatingly with the problems of reconstruction. He opposed the cheapening of the currency by unrestricted issues of paper money, counseled moderation in dealing with loyalists and their property and looked forward to the day when slavery would be abolished on the basis of gradual emancipation. As one of the leaders in the call for a Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia in 1787, he ably worked for a compromise that would mean success and signed the Constitution.

His influence was largely responsible for the unanimity with which New Jersey ratified the new Constitution. Three years later, while resting at Liberty Hall, Livingston died.

After his death, Lord and Lady Bolingbroke acquired the property. Susan Livingston, the niece of William Livingston, next purchased the estate, and it has been in the possession of this family (Kean) ever since. Her first husband was John Kean, a member of Congress (1785-87) from South Carolina and the first cashier of the First Bank of the United States (1791). Her second husband was Count Julian Ursin Memcewicz, a Polish nobleman who had come to the United States in 1797 as an aide to General Thaddeus Kosciuszko.

As built by William Livingston in 1772-73, Liberty Hall was a three-part frame structure. The center section was two stories high over elevated basement and had a modified gambrel roof and two interior chimneys. The central block was flanked by one-story wings built on the main axis with polyangular ends, hipped roofs and end chimneys. In 1789 a second story was added to the west wing as a guest room for Martha Washington when she went to New York for the inauguration of her husband as the first president of the United States.

About 1870, the original two-story structure was enlarged by the addition of a third story to the center and west wing and two stories to the east wing. Rooms and a tower were also added to the rear side of the original building, but the floor plan of the 1772-73 portions was little altered.

Liberty Hall still contains many personal belongings of William Livingston and other early owners. The mansion has never been restored and is still used as a private residence.

Maybury Hill, New Jersey ▲

Location: Mercer County, 346 Snowden Lane, Princeton. Ownership: private.

Maybury Hill was the birthplace and boyhood home of Joseph Hewes, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for North Carolina. This stone Georgian farmhouse, built about 1725, is little-altered and in excellent condition.

Joseph Hewes was born in 1730 on a farm at the edge of Princeton. After finishing his schooling, he was apprenticed to a Philadelphia merchant, then went into business for himself and acquired a comfortable fortune. About 1760 he moved to Edenton, North Carolina, an important shipping and trading center, where he established a thriving mercantile and shipping business and resided for the rest of his life.



Maybury Hill.
Courtesy of New
Jersey Historical
Society.

Soon becoming active in politics, Hewes served as a borough member in the North Carolina Assembly from 1766 to 1775. Dedicated to the American cause, he was a member of the Committee of Correspondence in 1773 and a delegate to all five provincial congresses of North Carolina. A member of the Continental Congress from 1774 to 1777, he was the active member and real head of the committee to fit out armed vessels in 1775. As chairman of the Committee of the Marine, he was in actual fact the first executive head of the navy of the United States. He appointed John Paul Jones an officer in the navy and found him a ship. In 1776 Hewes was a member of the secret committee to seek out aid from foreign countries, the Committee on Claims and the committee to prepare a plan for confederation. After a year out of public life, he was elected to the North Carolina House of Commons in 1778 and was returned to the Continental Congress the following year. He regularly worked 12 hours a day without interruption and often without food or drink, and as a result his health failed completely. On November 10, 1779, he died in Philadelphia and was buried at an unknown site, either in the Christ Church Burial Ground or the churchyard of Christ Church, Philadelphia. A monument in his honor was erected in 1932 by the United States Congress at the south end of the Green in Edenton.

Maybury Hill was built about 1725, rebuilt following a fire in 1735 and enlarged to its present size in 1753. As built in 1725, the small, two-story stone structure had a detached kitchen building located a short distance to the north. In 1753 the main house was extended to the north and connected with the kitchen structure, giving the two-story stone foundation an L-shape.

Windows are topped by flat brick arches; the first-story windows have paneled shutters and those of the second story are adorned by louvered shutters. The massive walls, constructed of field stone, were



Old Tennent Church, Monmouth Battlefield. Courtesy New Jersey Historical Society.

covered with concrete on the exterior about 1900, and except for this change, the house is otherwise little-altered. The center door opens into a central hall that extends through the structure to the rear. To the left of the hall is a single large room, the parlor, which occupied the first floor of the 1725 portion of the house. To the right in the 1753 addition are two large rooms, the living room and dining room both of which have panelled walls, shell cabinets and exposed ceiling beams. The fireplace in the dining room is faced with tile, and floors are of wide boards. Upstairs there are four bedrooms.

Maybury Hill was renovated in 1920 and acquired by the present owners in 1936. The house is still used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

Monmouth Battlefield, New Jersey ▲

Location: Monmouth County, N.J. 522 northwest of Freehold. Ownership: State of New Jersey, Department of Environmental Protection.

The Battle of Monmouth, June 28, 1778, was designed to break up British General Sir Henry Clinton's movement across New Jersey after the British evacuation of Philadelphia. Although Washington failed to prevent Clinton's escape, this last major battle in the North demonstrated to both sides that the Prussian drillmaster, "Baron" Frederick von Steuben, had succeeded in molding an American Army that was able to meet the British on even terms.

On June 18, 1778, Clinton abandoned Philadelphia and headed toward the Jersey coast, where he planned to embark his 10,000 men and return to New York by water. Washington, his army now num-

bering about 14,000 men, pursued. Against the advice of most of his lieutenants, he determined to attack Clinton and his vulnerable wagon train. The American striking force, commanded by Gen. Charles Lee, was poorly managed and after a feeble blow at the enemy near Monmouth Courthouse was driven back on the main army led by Washington. Enraged, Washington peremptorily relieved the erratic Lee and took over the conduct of the battle in the face of a strong British counterattack. The fighting raged throughout the day with sun and 100-degree temperature taking almost as heavy a toll as gunfire. Neither side would yield. The fighting raged back and forth in the fields and swamps between Old Tennent Church and the little settlement around Monmouth Courthouse. The engagement stands as the longest sustained action of the Revolutionary War. Clinton pulled away and made his escape during the night, his precious wagon train intact. Washington failed to prevent Clinton's escape, but he had demonstrated his own superb qualities of leadership and the new prowess of the army created in the misery of Valley Forge. American casualties totaled 360 men and the British 358, the latter including 59 men who died of sunstroke.

The present town of Freehold, which in 1778 consisted of a courthouse and a few scattered dwellings, is a modern commercial city. The area northeast of Freehold, where General Lee's initial attack was made, has been largely built up and the character of the wartime scene lost, although the preliminary movements of the two armies can still be followed on the ground. In contrast is the remarkably open and unspoiled condition of the major scene of battle northwest of town. The battle area, about one and one-half by three miles in extent, has undergone superficial change, but despite widening of fields and draining of swamps the terrain has retained its historical character to an unusual degree. One of the traditions that arose from the battle of Monmouth is the story of Molly Pitcher, who carried water to her husband and other artillerymen during the sweltering day of battle. Two places on the battlefield are marked as sites of the Molly Pitcher Spring. Of much greater significance as a historical landmark and survivor of the battle is the Old Tennent Church, dating from 1751. The battlefield slopes away southeast to the town of Freehold, from the high ground on which the church stands. The building serves as a handsomely preserved point of reference for tracing the combat action. The wartime road from nearby Englishtown to Monmouth Courthouse, employed by the Americans in their approach on Monmouth, passes near the church. Six farms are included in the battle area, and several houses of the Revolutionary period still stand on the field, including the Craig House, now much in need of restoration.

The Monmouth Battlefield is one of the best preserved of the Revo-

lutionary War battlefields. Until recently, it has survived by accident and not design. The State of New Jersey has acquired 1450 acres of land making up the main battle area and plans to develop the battle-field area as a State historical park.

Morristown National Historical Park, New Jersey ★

Location: Morris County, Morristown. Address: P.O. Box 1136R, Morristown, N.J. 07960.

During two winters of the War of Independence, January 6 to May 31, 1777, and December 1, 1779, to June 7, 1780, the rugged hill country around Morristown sheltered the main encampments of the Continental army, while Morristown was the headquarters of its commander-in-chief, George Washington. At Loantka Valley, a few miles from the present Morristown National Historical Park, in January 1777, and at Jockey Hollow within the park area, during the winter of 1779-80, Washington systematically reorganized his depleted forces only 30 miles from the strong British lines at New York City. The Watchung Mountains, intervening between Morristown and New York City, enabled Washington to keep watch on the British, to protect his own supply and communication lines, to guard the roads connecting New England and Pennsylvania and to be ready to move swiftly on any point threatened by the enemy.



Reconstructed officer's hut, Jockey Hollow, Morristown National Historical Park.

Established in 1933, Morristown National Historical Park contains 1,245 acres and is comprised of three main units: the Ford Mansion, Washington's headquarters during the winter of 1779-80; Fort Non-sense, a 1777 redoubt reconstructed by the National Park Service in 1937; and the Jockey Hollow area, the site of the main Continental army encampment of 1779-80. Jockey Hollow, where up to 10,000 men camped, includes all but three units of the original military campsite. In its general wooded and rural appearance, Jockey Hollow today closely resembles the conditions existing when the Continental troops arrived there in December 1779. Many of the campgrounds have remained relatively undisturbed, and physical evidences of army occupation can still be seen. Also located in that area are the Wick House, the headquarters of Major General Arthur St. Clair in 1779-80; reconstructed typical officers and soldiers' log barracks huts and a replica of the camp log hospital building. A large historical museum houses an extensive collection of artifacts illustrating the role of Morristown in the War for Independence, a library and a major collection of 18th-century manuscripts.

Morven, New Jersey ▲

Location: Mercer County, 55 Stockton Street, Princeton. Ownership: State of New Jersey.

Morven was the birthplace and life-long home of Richard Stockton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for New Jersey. The son of a wealthy landowner and judge, Stockton graduated from the College of New Jersey at Newark (later Princeton University) in 1748 and took up the study of law, receiving his license as an attorney in 1754. During the next 10 years, he built up a large practice and became recognized generally as one of the most eloquent members of the bar in the middle colonies. As a trustee of the College of New Jersey in 1766-67, he persuaded John Witherspoon to accept the presidency of the New Jersey institution. In 1768, Stockton was appointed to the council of New Jersey, which position he retained until the end of the royal government. In 1774, he was commissioned one of the justices of the supreme court. His leisure time during this period was devoted to the improvement of his extensive land estate, "Morven," where he bred choice horses and cattle and collected art and books.

On June 22, 1776, Stockton was elected to the Second Continental Congress, where he voted for and signed the Declaration and served on numerous important committees. That fall, accompanied by George Clymer, he visited and reported on the condition of the northern army



Morven.

in upper New York State. When the British invaded New Jersey in November 1776, Stockton removed his family to Monmouth County for safety, but while there he was betrayed by loyalists and taken prisoner. Imprisoned in New York City, he was subjected to indignities which provoked a formal remonstrance from Congress in January 1777. Efforts to secure his exchange were finally successful, but by then his health had been shattered. In addition, the British had partially burned the east wing of "Morven" and pillaged his estate, thus greatly depleting his fortune. He remained an invalid until his death at Princeton on February 28, 1781. The Continental Congress met in Nassau Hall in the summer of 1783 under the presidency of Elias Boudinot, brother of Richard Stockton's wife, Annis Boudinot Stockton. Boudinot chose "Morven" for his official residence, and it was here that American Revolutionary leaders gathered to celebrate the signing of the peace treaty terminating the war with Great Britain.

The earliest section of "Morven" was built between 1701 and 1709 by Richard Stockton I. Architectural evidence indicates that the house then grew in a series of steps until, by 1775, its appearance was much as it is today. A large brick, three-part Georgian composition, "Morven" consists of a two-story central block over a raised basement and two lower two-story wings built on the main axis. The design of the central block is basically early Georgian, but this has been somewhat altered by the 19th-century addition of a wide one-story Greek Revival porch to the center of the front elevation.

The center door in the main block opens into a central hall that extends through the house; the entrance hall intersects at right angles the stair hall that runs across the rear of the main block and connects with the two wings. On the left of the entrance hall is a large dining

room and on the right the Gold Room. Fireplace walls in these rooms are fully paneled. The east wing, which was partially burned by the British, has two large family rooms—the red room and library. The only recent change to the house is the addition of a solarium, or green room, to the rear side.

Ownership of “Morven” remained in the Stockton family until 1945, when the house was acquired by Governor and Mrs. Walter E. Edge. In 1954, they donated the house and five acres of land to the State of New Jersey. The mansion has been used since that date as the official residence of the governor of New Jersey. The house is not open to visitors.

Nassau Hall, New Jersey ▲

Location: Mercer County, Princeton University, Princeton. Ownership: Princeton University.

Nassau Hall was the first important college building in the Middle Colonies and the first permanent building at Princeton University, which was founded in 1746 as the College of New Jersey. Although established by Presbyterian churchmen, the college was not intended for the education of clergymen only. The founders emphasized that the principle of religious freedom would be observed carefully. In 1752 the college was formally located in Princeton, and two years later ground was broken for Nassau Hall, named to honor the memory of King William III of the House of Nassau. Seventy undergraduates moved into Nassau Hall in the autumn of 1756, and for almost half a century thereafter it was the only college building, containing dormitory, dining room, chapel and classrooms.

Nassau Hall served on occasion during the Revolution as a barracks and hospital for both British and American troops. On January 3, 1776, it was the scene of the last stand of the British in the Battle of Princeton. Here American troops took prisoner 194 British soldiers who had taken refuge behind its massive walls. From June to November 1783, the Continental Congress convened in Nassau Hall, receiving there the news of the signing of the treaty that ended the Revolution. Here also the first diplomatic representative accredited to the new Nation was received, the Minister of the Netherlands. The hall has been visited by scores of distinguished public figures in the course of its long history, including Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Lafayette, the Adamses, and virtually every president of the United States.

As an outstanding example of the growth of educational facilities in the colonies, and as the principal edifice of an institution that has



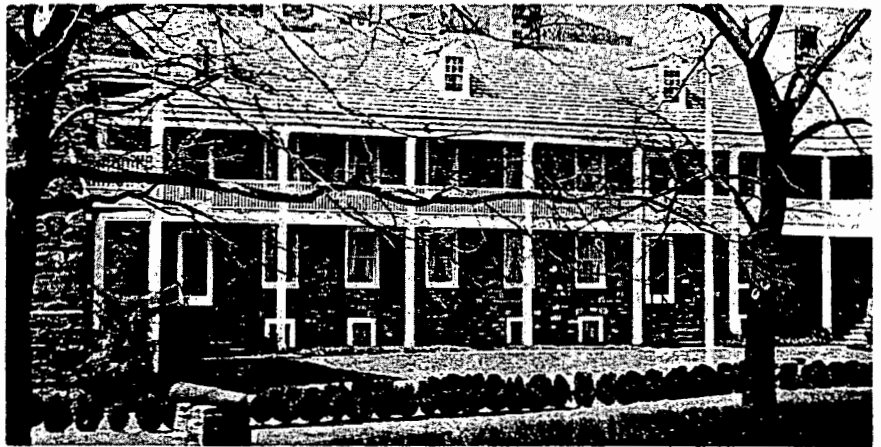
Nassau Hall.

played a major role in the cultural growth of the Nation, Nassau Hall is a notable historical resource.

The three-story stone building was designed by Robert Smith and Dr. William Shippen, of the Carpenters Company of Philadelphia. A five-bay-wide central pavilion, topped by a pediment, breaks the 170-foot facade, and three doors lead to corridors separating the various classrooms and offices. Brownstone dug from a nearby quarry makes up the walls, which are unadorned except for the three quoined and corniced entrances and the keyed flat arch lintels of the windows on the first two stories. A cupola and many chimneys crown the low-pitched hipped roof. The simple, solid lines appear to have influenced the design of later college buildings elsewhere, including Hollis Hall at Harvard (1762-63), University Hall at Brown (1770-71) and Dartmouth Hall at Dartmouth (1784-91).

Nassau Hall was damaged during the Battle of Princeton and its interiors were destroyed by fires in 1802 and 1855. The fire of March 6, 1802, left only the walls standing. The architect for the reconstruction was Benjamin H. Latrobe. On March 10, 1855, Nassau Hall was destroyed again by a fire that left only the walls standing. The building was reconstructed and reopened on August 7, 1856, reflecting architectural changes more drastic than those of 1802. Architect John Notman's rebuilding employed a pseudo-Renaissance design of massive character and reconstructed an excessively lofty new cupola on the roof.

Memorial Hall, in the center of the building, was installed after World War I to honor Princetonians killed in all wars. It was altered after World War II. The bronze tigers flanking the main entrance of Nassau Hall were executed by A. Phemister Proctor and were presented in 1911 by the class of 1879, a member of which was Woodrow Wilson. Nassau Hall is now used solely for administrative offices.



Old Barracks. Courtesy New Jersey Historical Society.

Old Barracks, New Jersey ▲

Location: Mercer County, South Willow Street, Trenton. Ownership: State of New Jersey, administered by Old Barracks Association.

The Old Barracks (then known as Trenton Barracks) was erected in 1758-59 and is the only major structure still standing that is associated with the Battle of Trenton, December 26, 1776. Hessian troops were quartered in this building on Christmas night 1776, when Washington crossed the Delaware and in a brilliant attack the following morning surprised and captured the 1,000-man German garrison of Trenton. The Trenton battlefield, which now lies in the downtown heart of modern Trenton, except for the Old Barracks, is otherwise completely built over.

The Old Barracks was built by the New Jersey General Assembly to provide winter quarters for 300 British troops during the French and Indian War. The Old Barracks was one of five similar structures built at Burlington, Elizabethtown, Perth Amboy and New Brunswick to avoid the necessity of forcibly billeting British troops on New Jersey private householders. The other four barracks no longer stand. The first troops, the Inniskilling Regiment of Foot, occupied the building in December 1758. Soldiers and officers continued to use the barracks during the winter months until the close of the war in May 1763 when British soldiers were no longer needed in the colony. The economy minded Assembly then ordered the barrack-master to sell the furnishings and rent the building.

The outbreak of the War for Independence brought the Old Braracks back to its original purpose. It was occupied by British, German and American soldiers at various times, depending on who had control of New Jersey and the village of Trenton, then a small town of about 100 houses. The Battle of Trenton was fought around and near the Old

Barracks, which served as quarters for 300 Hessian soldiers, in the early morning hours of December 26, 1776. At a cost of four Americans wounded, Washington captured six cannons and took 948 Hessians prisoner in the battle fought in a heavy snow storm. Lord George Germain, Colonial secretary of state for George III, wrote "all our hopes were blasted by that unhappy affair at Trenton." The Barracks was later used as a hospital for sick American soldiers, 600 being brought here after the siege of Yorktown in November 1781.

With the end of active military operations, the legislature, in June 1782, directed that the Old Barracks be sold. The structure was sold at a public sale in January 1786 and subdivided for use as a number of small private dwellings. In 1813, forty feet of the north end of the central arm of the U-shaped barracks was demolished to allow the western extension of Front Street to the State House. In 1855 the southern L-shaped section of the barracks was purchased and adapted for use from 1855 until 1899 as a home for elderly women.

In 1899 the Captain Jonathan Oliphant Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution raised \$6,134 by public subscription and purchased the southern L-shaped portion of the Old Barracks, thereby saving this section from demolition. Three years later this same group formed the Old Barracks Association to preserve and restore the barracks. The State of New Jersey purchased the original northern arm of the barracks, then occupied by private dwellings. The Old Barracks Association then deeded its southern wing to the State of New Jersey, with the stipulation that when Old Barracks was restored to its original condition control and management of the entire building would forever remain with the Association. The reconstruction of the missing 40-foot section of the central arm and restoration of the remainder of the original portions were completed in 1917.

The Old Barracks is a large two-and-one-half story U-shaped, field-stone building with a slate-covered gable roof and a narrow two-story wood balcony extending around its inner side. Attached to the eastern end of the northern arm is a Georgian stone house with gable roof and a wide end chimney at either end. Except for the portion of the northern arm that was reconstructed in 1917, most of the Old Barracks is original.

The L-shaped southern section of the barracks, used for more than 40 years as a home for elderly women, was somewhat altered by the insertion of partition walls to create smaller rooms. Most of these walls have been left in place in the south arm and these rooms are furnished with colonial period furniture. In the long arm, the later partition walls have been removed to recreate the original long barracks rooms. The north arm is used as a museum and contains exhibits interpreting the Battle of Trenton.



President's House.

President's House, New Jersey ▲

Location: Mercer County, Nassau Street northwest of Nassau Hall, Princeton. Ownership: Princeton University.

Born near Edinburgh, Scotland, in 1723, John Witherspoon was awarded the Master of Arts degree at the University of Edinburgh in 1739 and a divinity degree in 1743. After serving as a minister in Presbyterian churches in Scotland from 1743 until 1768, he accepted the call in the latter year to assume the presidency of the College of New Jersey at Princeton. Though not a profound scholar, Witherspoon was an able college president. During the period 1768-76, the endowment, faculty and student body steadily increased. He introduced to Princeton the study of philosophy, French, history and oratory, and he insisted upon a mastery of the English language.

Witherspoon was an early opponent of the British and by 1770 his students were openly demonstrating in favor of the American cause. It was not until 1774, however, that he accepted political office in the New Jersey provincial assemblies. In 1776, he was chosen as a delegate to the Second Continental Congress. Arriving in Philadelphia at the time when Congress was on the point of adopting a resolution of independence, he assured Congress in a speech on July 2 that the country "had been for some time past loud in its demand for the proposed declaration," and stated "it was not only ripe for the measure but in danger of rotting for the want of it." As a delegate in Congress from 1776 until November 1782, he was appointed to more than 100 committees and was a member of two standing committees of major importance—the board of war and the committee on secret correspondence which dealt with foreign affairs. He took an active part in the debates on the Articles of Confederation, assisted in organizing the executive department,

shared in the formation of the new government's foreign alliances and played a leading part in drawing up the instructions of the American peace commissioners.

During the War for Independence, the student body at Princeton was dispersed and the college could not be used for educational purposes. Witherspoon spent his last years, from 1782-94, in endeavoring to rebuild the college but in this task he was only partly successful. He was elected to the New Jersey legislature in 1783 and again in 1789, and he was a member of the state convention which ratified the new Constitution. From 1785 to 1789, he was also engaged in the plan of organizing the Presbyterian Church along national lines, and he became moderator of the first Presbyterian General Assembly meeting in May 1789. Blind for the last two years of his life, Witherspoon died on his farm, "Tusculum," near Princeton, on November 15, 1794, and was buried in the college presidents' lot at Princeton Cemetery.

The President's House was designed and built by Robert Smith of Philadelphia in 1756. The structure was used from 1756 until 1879 as the official residence of the presidents of the college. Witherspoon lived in the house from 1768 until 1779, when he moved to "Tusculum" farm near Princeton. During the next 15 years, the President's House was occupied by Witherspoon's son-in-law, Samuel S. Smith, a vice-president of the college. From 1879 until 1968, the building was utilized as the residence of the Dean of the Faculty and known as the "Dean's House." Since 1968, the structure has been called the "Maclean House" and is used as the headquarters of the Alumni Council, the governing body of the Princeton National Alumni Association.

As built in 1756, the President's House was a brick two-story gable-roofed rectangular structure with a single-story polygonal bay extending from the west side. Windows on the main facade were topped by flat stone winged arches with keystones. The center door had a fanlight and was surmounted by a triangular pediment. The exterior has retained this original appearance except that a small double dormer window has been inserted in the center of the front roof (and also a similar dormer in the rear) to create a third floor. Both the present wide single-story frame porch on the front of the house and the single-story frame polygonal bay that projects from the east side of the house were added in 1868.

The interior of the house has also been little-altered. The center door opens into a central hall that extends through the residence to the rear. On the first floor are a library, study, parlor and dining room with its original polygonal bay. The brick and stone two-story service wing extends to the rear of the house. The second floor of the main house has four bedrooms and the third floor three more chambers. The house is in excellent condition and is open to visitors.

Princeton Battlefield, New Jersey ▲

Location: Mercer County, N.J. 583, south edge of Princeton. Ownership: State of New Jersey, Department of Environmental Protection.

Washington's victory at Princeton on January 3, 1777, like that at Trenton a week earlier, heightened the morale of the American army as well as that of the citizens, and strengthened the reputation and authority of Washington himself. The twin victories of Trenton and Princeton came at a time when the spirits of the American people had reached a dangerously low ebb, when another defeat might have been fatal to the cause of independence. The situation brightened with these successes at the year's end, and from every corner militiamen flocked to the colors and a new Continental army emerged. A second important result of the twin-victories was that the British withdrew from all of occupied New Jersey, except for two fortified posts at Amboy and New Brunswick.

Following his defeat of the Hessians at Trenton on December 26, 1776, Washington returned to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware River. Safely across, he determined to hit the enemy again and returned to New Jersey on the night of December 30-31. Lord Charles Cornwallis, British commander in New Jersey, took a position confronting Washington, who stood with his back to the Delaware. Confident that the rebels could not escape, Cornwallis decided to wait until morning to strike the Americans. In a daring maneuver with 5,000 troops, Washington slipped away in the night, got in the rear of the British forces, and early on January 3 struck two British regiments under Lieutenant Colonel Charles Mawhood that were just leaving Princeton to join Cornwallis. In the sharp fight that followed, several American assaults were thrown back in confusion. For a time the army appeared on the verge of defeat, but Washington rallied his forces and finally drove the enemy from the field. One detachment of the enemy sought refuge in Princeton's Nassau Hall, where it was easily captured. The 15-minute fight at Princeton cost the Americans 40 killed and wounded, including General Hugh Mercer, who died of wounds shortly after the battle. British casualties amounted to about 272 men, including 28 killed and 244 taken prisoner.

The scene of heaviest fighting in the battle at Stony Brook Bridge is preserved in a 40-acre State park on the southern outskirts of Princeton. An oak tree marks the spot that tradition identifies as the place where General Mercer received his death wound. The Clarke House at the edge of the battlefield was the scene of Mercer's death. A memorial arch on the west edge of the field marks the site where unknown American dead were buried in unmarked graves. The battlefield site is surrounded by urban housing but, because of the small-scale nature of the

action, the 40 acres of the field now preserved is sufficient to protect the scene.

Red Bank Battlefield and Fort Mercer, New Jersey ▲

Location: Gloucester County, east bank of the Delaware River at the west end of Hessian Avenue, National Park. Ownership: County of Gloucester.

Fort Mercer, on October 22, 1777, was the scene of the successful and heroic American defense of this post in the action known as the Battle of Red Bank. An earthen fort erected in 1777 to guard the Delaware River approach to Philadelphia, Fort Mercer, together with Fort Mifflin on the opposite Pennsylvania side and the timber *chevaux-de-frise* barrier across the river, played a major and successful role in the Philadelphia campaign of 1777. First, their very existence caused the British commander-in-chief, General William Howe, to change his intended Delaware River approach to Philadelphia to the Chesapeake Bay route. This decision, assisted by contrary winds, caused Howe to waste 32 critical days during the summer of 1777 in moving his army from New York City the 90 land miles to Philadelphia. The time thus lost and the Chesapeake route utilized made it extremely difficult for Howe to return to New York City and move up the Hudson River in time to support Burgoyne's army coming south from Canada.

Second, the gallant American defense of Forts Mercer and Mifflin in October and November 1777, even after the British capture of Philadelphia and victory at Germantown, continued to cause Howe serious difficulties by blocking his direct water route to the sea. General Howe was forced to divert considerable forces to the project of clearing his supply lines.

On October 22, Howe dispatched Colonel Carl von Donop with 1,200 Hessians to attack Fort Mercer, defended by 550 Rhode Island troops of the Continental army under the command of Colonel Christopher Greene. After two unsuccessful attempts to storm the fort, the Germans retreated with the total loss of 371 men, including 22 officers, compared to 37 casualties for the Americans. A month later on November 20, the Americans evacuated the fort during the night before a British force of 2,000 under Cornwallis invaded the area.

In 1829, a marble shaft was erected by members of the New Jersey and Pennsylvania Volunteers to commemorate the battle. President Theodore Roosevelt created a 20-acre U.S. reservation on the site in 1905, and the State of New Jersey erected a second battle monument the following year. In the late 1960's, the 20-acre reservation, including

the Red Bank Battlefield and the extensive remains of Fort Mercer's dry ditch and earthen ramparts, now grass-covered, were acquired by Gloucester County as a public park. Also located in the park is the James Whitall, Sr., House which was used as a hospital by the Hessians and has 15 cannon balls imbedded in its north wall. In a display shed adjacent to the Whitall House are portions of the original *chevaux-de-frise* which were sunk across the Delaware between Forts Mercer and Mifflin in 1777. These timber structures, salvaged from the river in the early 20th century, are the only surviving examples of this type of river defense.



Red Bank Battlefield.

Washington Crossing, New Jersey and Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Mercer County, N.J. 546 on Delaware River south of Titusville; Bucks County, Pa. 32 and 532, on Delaware River at community of Washington Crossing. Ownership: State of New Jersey, Department of Environmental Protection; Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Forests and Waters, Washington Crossing State Park Commission.

Washington's crossing of the Delaware River on Christmas night 1776, for the daring raid on Trenton, was a crucial episode in the struggle

for American independence. Despite an almost legendary character in the American tradition, the crossing was in fact a realistic and carefully planned stroke designed to rescue a waning cause. By taking the offensive, Washington carried the war to the enemy and gave the new Nation and his often-defeated army a taste of victory at a low ebb in the war and thereby redeemed his fading military reputation.

The close of 1776 found the cause of independence staggering under a succession of defeats. The Continental Congress had made provision for a long-term military force in October, but at the end of the year this establishment was on paper, not in the field where it was desper-



McKonkey Ferry House, Washington Crossing State Park. Courtesy New Jersey Historical Society.

ately needed. In his camp on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, Washington realized that he must strike a blow at the enemy before his army melted away, and he determined to hit the Hessian garrison at Trenton. The American main force, numbering some 2,400 men and 18 cannon, was ferried across the Delaware on the night of December 25 by Col. John Glover's Marblehead fishermen, and in the bleak early morning hours assembled on the New Jersey shore for the march on Trenton, about 10 miles downstream. The surprise was complete, and within an hour and a half after the action opened, the Hessians surrendered. Their loss was about 1,000 men captured, wounded and

killed at a cost to the Americans of four wounded. Learning that the other column of his command had failed to cross the Delaware to join him, Washington returned to the Pennsylvania side of the river. A few days later he crossed again to New Jersey and defeated another enemy force at the Battle of Princeton. A critical turning point was successfully passed, and valuable time won for the creation of the new military establishment. The epic crossing of the Delaware was a key to final victory.

On the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, a well maintained State park of 478 acres preserves the site of the embarkation of Washington's main force. On the riverbank is the recently restored Old Ferry Inn, the present structure containing an ell which was part of the original ferryhouse of the Revolutionary period. Emanuel Leutze's famous painting, "Washington Crossing the Delaware," is displayed in the auditorium of the park memorial building. Whatever the artistic merits and historical accuracy of the picture, it constitutes an inspiring interpretation of the event in spirit if not in factual detail. The Washington Crossing Monument, erected in 1916, overlooks the embarkation site. The Thompson-Neely House, where conferences were held in 1776 leading to the momentous decision made by Washington and his staff to cross the river, is at Bowman's Hill, a detached section of the park five miles north of the crossing site. The older section of the house was built in 1702, and the building is furnished and open to the public. An old mill nearby, still standing, ground grain for the American army. Beneath the memorial flagstaff are the graves of unknown American

Bennington Battlefield.



soldiers who died during the encampment of 1776. The Bowman's Hill section of the park also contains a State wildflower preserve and a memorial observation tower.

On the New Jersey side of the river is a 784-acre State park preserving the scene of the landing above Trenton. A short distance from the riverbank is the original McKonkey Ferryhouse, now a museum. An interesting park feature is the preserved trace of the old road used by the American army in its march from the riverbank. Trees planted on either side of the "Continental Lane" marks the source of this historic roadway.

The two-state parks on either side of the Delaware, connected by an automobile bridge, constitute a key site in the winning of American independence.

Bennington Battlefield, New York ▲

Location: Rensselaer County, N.Y. 67, near Walloomsac. Ownership: State of New York, administered by New York State Education Department.

The American militia's victory at the Battle of Bennington, August 16, 1777, was a significant contribution to the defeat of Burgoyne's British Army at Saratoga, two months later. The Battle of Bennington cost Burgoyne about 10 percent of his entire strength and denied the army supplies sorely needed for the planned offensive down the Hudson River. The British defeat greatly discouraged their uneasy Indian allies and encouraged militia enlistment in the American army.

General John Burgoyne, camped near Fort Edward, New York, desperately needed supplies and horses for his descent upon Albany. Consequently, a force of some 650 men, mostly German mercenaries commanded by Colonel Friedrich Baum, was ordered to seize supplies stored at Bennington, Vermont. Apprised of the enemy raid, Gen. John Stark aroused the countryside and on August 16 a force of some 1,600 New England militia swarmed out to deal the Germans a crushing blow before they could cross the New York line into Vermont. A second relief column of 642 Germans led by Lieutenant Colonel Heinrich Breyman threatened to undo Stark's work, but timely help from Seth Warner and his 430 Continentals known as the Green Mountain Rangers threw back the relief column. The day's end found the foraging expedition virtually annihilated and Burgoyne's army in a more dangerous position than before. The shortage of supplies and loss of troops was to have a telling effect on the British campaign around Saratoga, now about to open.

The 208-acre Bennington Battlefield State Park includes the scene of heaviest fighting on the high ground overlooking the little village of Walloomsac and affords a wide view of the battle terrain. A bronze relief map indicates the various units and their battle positions, while other monuments commemorate the service of the Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Vermont volunteers and their leaders, General Stark and Colonel Warner.

Conference House, New York ▲

Location: Richmond County, Hylan Boulevard, Tottenville, Staten Island. Ownership: City of New York, Department of Parks.

Conference House was the scene on September 11, 1776, of a dramatic "peace" meeting between the British and Americans. Acting as peace commissioners of King George III were Admiral Lord Richard Howe, commander-in-chief of the British fleet in America, and General William Howe, commander-in-chief of the British army in America. They met with a committee of the Continental Congress composed of John Adams, Benjamin Franklin and Edward Rutledge.

The British had just captured Long Island, defeating Washington in battle there, and were threatening New York City. In a 3-hour discussion, the Howes offered peace and amnesty to the Americans provided that they dissolve their armies and disavow their newly issued Declaration of Independence. When it became apparent that the Howes did not have the authority to recognize the independence of



Conference House. Courtesy Landmarks Preservation Commission, City of New York.

the United States, the Americans terminated the conference and the War for Independence continued.

Built by Christopher Billopp in 1688, Conference House is a large two-story fieldstone farmhouse with a steeply pitched gable roof and a brick chimney at either end. The house has a center hall plan with one large room on either side of the hall on the first floor. The 1776 conference was held in the large room to the left of the entrance door. Across the hall is the dining room and on the second floor are three bedrooms. The kitchen is located in the basement. Acquired by the City of New York in 1926, Conference House was restored in 1932 and is open to visitors.

De Wint House, New York ▲

Location: Rockland County, corner of Livingston Avenue and Oak Tree Road, Tappan. Ownership: Grand Lodge of Free and Accepted Masons of the State of New York.

Four times during the closing years of the American Revolution, General George Washington stayed at the De Wint House. He first resided there from August 8-24, 1780. His second visit occurred September 28 to October 7, 1780, during which time the British spy, Major John André, was tried and executed.

When André was captured near Tarrytown on September 23, 1780, he was bearing secret American military documents which had been supplied to him by the American traitor and commandant of West Point, General Benedict Arnold. André was imprisoned in Tappan, and there on September 29, while headquartered at the De Wint House, Washington ordered a board of 14 general officers to try him as a spy. Meeting that day, the board found André guilty and recommended his execution. Washington accepted the recommendation and confirmed the sentence, but, due to the strenuous efforts of the British to save André, postponed the execution until October 2.

Washington's third visit to the house was May 4-8, 1783, when he met and conferred with the British commander-in-chief, Lt. Gen. Sir Guy Carleton, in order to discuss the British evacuation of New York City and the exchange of prisoners. Washington also accepted the hospitality of the house from November 11-14, 1783, when a snowstorm forced him to halt in Tappan while on his way from Hackensack, New Jersey, to West Point, New York.

Built about 1700 by Daniel DeClark, the De Wint House is a one-story brick-and-stone structure in the Dutch colonial style with a steep pitched gable roof and overhanging eaves. During the Revolutionary

period, the dwelling was owned by Johannes De Wint. The building was acquired by the Grand Lodge of Free and Accepted Masons of the State of New York in 1931. Since that time the house has been restored and maintained as a memorial to Washington.

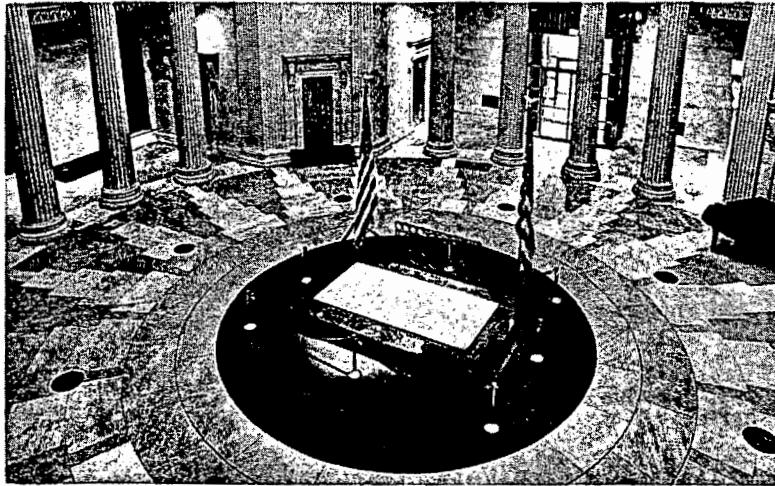
Federal Hall National Memorial, New York

Location: New York County, at the corner of Wall and Nassau Streets in lower Manhattan. Address: c/o New York City Group, NPS, 26 Wall Street, New York, N.Y. 10005.

This memorial commemorates a series of momentous events in the colonial and constitutional periods of American history. On the site of the memorial once stood Federal Hall, the realtered and renamed City Hall of New York. Built in 1699-1700, the City Hall became the seat of municipal government activities four years later. In 1734 John Peter Zenger, charged with publishing "seditious libels" in his newspaper, the *New York Weekly Journal*, was imprisoned in the garret of City Hall. The following year his defense attorney, Andrew Hamilton, one of the most brilliant lawyers in the colonies, won acquittal and helped pave the way for a free press and freedom of speech. During October 1765, the Stamp Act Congress convened at City Hall and offered the first united colonial opposition to English colonial policy. Delegates from nine of the 13 colonies participated. The Congress sent an address to the king, petitioned Parliament and drew up a Declaration of Rights and Grievances. The following year Parliament voted to rescind the Stamp Act.

In September 1774 the First Continental Congress convened at Philadelphia in Carpenters' Hall, now a part of Independence National Historical Park. It appealed in vain to the king and the people of Great Britain for the redress of colonial grievances. Before the Second Continental Congress convened in May 1775, the War for Independence was in progress. The next year Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence. After the war the Continental Congress selected New York City as the seat of government and in January 1785 began meeting in City Hall. Here, in February 1787, it adopted the resolution calling for the convening of a Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia. Late in September, after four months of labor by the Convention, Congress transmitted the Constitution from City Hall to the States for ratification. While the Constitutional Convention had met, the Continental Congress adopted the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, which provided for the government of the territory northwest of the Ohio River.

In September 1788 Congress designated New York City as the capi-



Federal Hall National Memorial.

tal of the United States under the Constitution. The New York City Council promptly offered the use of the City Hall and approved the expenditure of funds for repairing the building. In 1788-89 Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant supervised the construction. At the time the First Congress under the Constitution held its initial session in March 1789, the building, then known as Federal Hall, was said to be the most beautiful in the United States. On April 30, 1789, Washington took his oath of office on the balcony. Between July and September, Congress created the Departments of State, War and Treasury, and the Supreme Court; adopted the Bill of Rights; and transmitted the latter to the States for ratification.

In July 1790, during the second session of the First Congress, Congress selected a 10-mile-square site on the banks of the Potomac as the site of the permanent national capital, to be called the District of Columbia, land for which was ceded by Virginia and Maryland. On the last day of August, the Federal government moved from New York to Philadelphia, where it remained for about a decade while the permanent capital was being constructed. Utilized alternately for State and city offices during the following two decades, in 1812 the crumbling Federal Hall was sold for salvage for \$425.

In 1842 the present structure, an outstanding example of Greek revival architecture, was completed on the site of Federal Hall. It served as the New York City Custom House until 1862, when it became the United States Sub-Treasury. Later it housed the Federal Reserve Bank of New York and a number of minor government offices. Subsequently most of these were relocated. Civic and patriotic organizations in and about New York then conceived the idea of preserving the structure as a memorial to the founding of our federal form of government. The building was designated a national historic site in 1939 and became a national memorial in 1955.

Federal Hall National Memorial is administered by the National Park Service with the cooperation of the Federal Hall Memorial Associates, Inc. On exhibit are historic objects and documents associated with the site. One room, set aside as a memorial to John Peter Zenger, features exhibits showing the struggle of the colonies for freedom of the press. The stone on which Washington traditionally stood to take his oath of office is preserved in the rotunda.

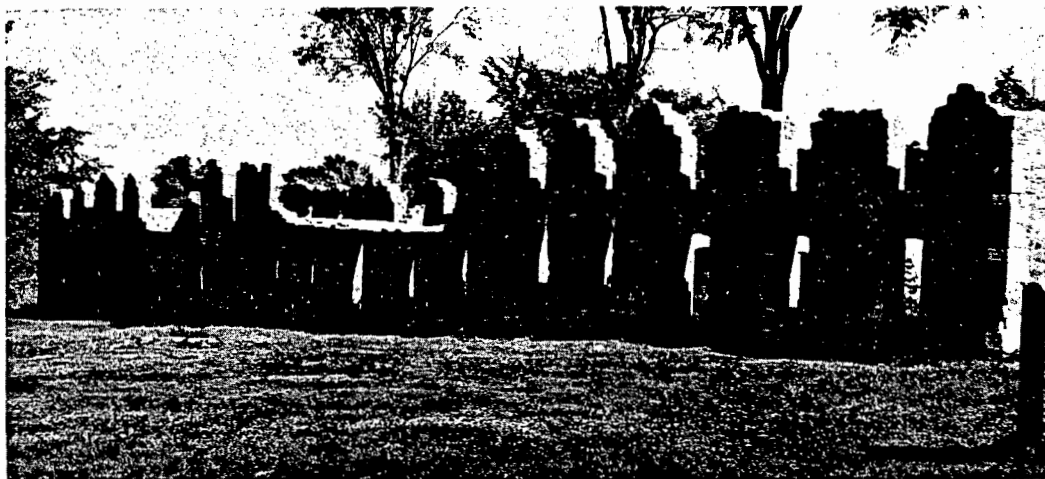
Fort Crown Point, New York ▲

Location: Essex County, Crown Point Reservation, west of the south end of the Lake Champlain Bridge and N.Y. 8. Ownership: State of New York, administered by the Crown Point Foundation.

Fort Crown Point, in its ruined but unaltered state, is perhaps the finest existing architectural and archeological example of 18th-century military engineering. Built by General Jeffrey Amherst in 1760 near the ruins of the French Fort St. Frederic, Fort Crown Point was badly damaged by explosion and fire in 1773. Rebuilding was still underway when the Revolution broke out and stopped reconstruction. On May 11, 1775, Lt. Col. Seth Warner and a party of "Green Mountain Boys" took prisoner the nine British soldiers and ten women and children who formed the housekeeping garrison of the post and captured 111 cannon. During the fall and winter of 1775-76, Fort Crown Point was used as a staging area for the American campaign against Canada. When Burgoyne moved his army down from Canada in June 1777, the Americans abandoned the post. While the British general laid siege to Fort Ticonderoga from June 26 to July 5, he used Fort Crown Point as a supply depot and magazine. Thereafter, Fort Crown Point played a minor role during the Revolution and was never rebuilt.

As a five-sided fort of tremendous size, Crown Point is nearly three times as large as nearby Fort Ticonderoga and contains within its walls a six-and-one-half-acre-parade ground. Like Ticonderoga, Crown Point is built on the same system of fortification that was developed by the French military engineer, Marquis de Vauben. A dry moat, about one-half mile in circumference which was dug out of limestone by the British soldiers, still surrounds the fort. The ramparts, 25 feet thick and faced with solid masonry, are formed from the stone and dirt thrown up from the moat. These walls, together with most of the stonework and the five great bastions extending from the corners, are still largely intact although overgrown with trees, bushes and grass. Inside are well preserved remains of two of the three original stone barracks. With the exception of minor stabilization, the stone walls of the two structures

are unaltered, and the barracks that face the entrance are in remarkably fine condition, their sides, walls and fireplaces almost as good as when erected.



Fort Crown Point.



Fort Johnson.

Fort Johnson, New York **▲**

Location: Montgomery County, N.Y. 5, Fort Johnson Village. Ownership: Montgomery County Historical Society.

Fort Johnson was built as a fortified stone house by Sir William Johnson in 1748-49. When he moved to his new residence, "Johnson Hall," in 1762, Sir William turned Fort Johnson over to his 20-year-old son, John, who became an outstanding loyalist leader in New York and a noted partisan leader during the War for Independence.

Sir John Johnson began a correspondence with Governor Tryon of New York in 1775 in an effort to organize the settlers and Indians of the Mohawk Valley for the king, but General Philip Schuyler was able to induce the Iroquois Six Nations to remain neutral in the struggle with Great Britain. Sir John remained at "Johnson Hall" with a guard of 150 armed Highlanders and a strong party of Mohawk Indians, posing a serious threat to the American cause in Mohawk Valley. In January 1776, Schuyler disarmed Johnson and his followers, and an uneasy peace prevailed in the valley. In May Johnson learned that General Schuyler was sending a detachment to arrest him and hastily fled to Montreal with a band of some 700 followers.

With a commission as a lieutenant colonel, Sir John raised a loyalist regiment which became famous as the "Royal Greens." Leading 133 men in his new regiment, he accompanied General Barry St. Leger on his expedition against Fort Stanwix in the Mohawk Valley during the Burgoyne campaign of 1777 and took part in the Battle of Oriskany, August 6, 1777. Returning to Canada when the siege of the fortress failed, he devoted himself to the relief of loyalists who were arriving there in large numbers following the capture of Burgoyne's army at Saratoga.

In 1779 Johnson was at Forts Niagara and Oswego, aiding friendly Indians and harassing those who were hostile to the British. The following year, he led two great raids through the Mohawk Valley that brought great devastation in retaliation for the Sullivan Expedition of 1779 against the Iroquois. Following the Battle of Klock's Field in mid-October, Johnson retreated to Canada, having already burned about 200 dwellings and destroyed some 150,000 bushels of wheat.

In 1782 Johnson was made a colonel in the British Army and commissioned superintendent general inspector of the Six Nations and the Indians in the Province of Quebec. Because of his loyalism, his property in New York had been confiscated by an act of the New York Assembly in 1779. As compensation for these losses, the British government granted him a large sum of money and a large tract of land in Canada, where he resided until his death in 1830.

Fort Johnson around which Sir William Johnson had erected a log stockade for purposes of protection during the French and Indian War, is a large two-story mansion in the Early Georgian style with a hipped roof and three staggered dormers. There is a tall chimney at either end, set in the end walls near the front corners, and two more tall chimneys located in the rear wall and situated near the rear corners. The thick walls are of fieldstone, and the center door is sheltered by an excellent 18th-century Roman Doric portico. First-story windows have solid paneled exterior shutters, and all windows are protected by interior folding shutters.

Built on a center hall plan, the center stair hall runs through the house to the rear entrance and divides the four rooms on the first floor into pairs. To the right of the hall is a large dining room and in the rear, a narrow serving room. To the left of the hall is a large parlor, with a narrow office behind. The two large front rooms have their original fully paneled walls, and all the mantels but one are original. The kitchen is located in the basement, under the eastern portion of the mansion. Upstairs, there are four bedrooms and a center hall.

The little-altered mansion is furnished with period furniture and also contains exhibits relating to the Indians of the region. The house passed through many owners, but was purchased and presented in the 1920's to the Montgomery County Historical Society by John Watts DePeyster. Fort Johnson is open to visitors.



Fort Klock.

Fort Klock, New York ▲

Location: Montgomery County, N.Y. 5, 2 miles east of St. Johnsville.
Ownership: Fort Klock Restoration Committee.

Fort Klock, built in 1750, is a rare and excellent architectural example of a mid-18th century fur trading post and also of a fortified stone house that was used as a place of refuge by settlers of the Mohawk Valley during the War for Independence. In the adjacent fields and forest, the Battle of Klock's Field was fought on October 19, 1780, between loyalists under Sir John Johnson and Joseph Brant and the pursuing American militia.

Located on the north bank of the Mohawk River near the mouth of Caroga Creek, Fort Klock was erected by Johannes Klock in 1750 as a fortified frontier residence and fur trading post. This stone house replaced his earlier dwelling on the same site. The massive stone walls, resting on a foundation of solid rocks, enclosed in the cellar a living spring of water. In 1776, as the danger of Indian and Tory raids from Canada increased, Captain John Klock, a member of the Tryon County

militia, surrounded his stone house with a log stockade to further insure the safety of his family and their neighbors.

Bands of Iroquois warriors and Tories destroyed houses, barns and crops in the vicinity of Fort Klock and nearby Fort Plain on April 18, 1779, August 2, 1780, October 18-19, 1780. This third attack resulted in the Battle of Klock's Field.

In October 1780, Joseph Brant, a feared Mohawk chief whose Indian name was Thayendanagea, and Sir John Johnson led a marauding band of about 1,000 loyalists through the Schoharie and Mohawk Valleys. By October 19, a force of some 900 American militia under General Robert Van Rensselaer had pursued the loyalists along the Mohawk River to Klock's Field. Johnson drew his men up in line of battle behind a hastily contrived breastwork on a small plain partially guarded on his right by a bend in the river. The British regulars, the loyalist "Greens" and Colonel John Butler's rangers held the right and center, while Brant's warriors, supported by Hessian riflemen, were concealed on the left in a growth of shrub oaks.

The entire American line advanced impetuously and as they charged Brant raised the war-whoop. There was a brief but spirited encounter until the Indians and Tories gave way. Brant was wounded in the heel but escaped and the loyalist raiders were able to carry off their wounded. The American troops wished to pursue the enemy, but as it was twilight, Van Rensselaer ordered a halt and had his men fall back to the east. Here, at the Stone Palatine Church at Fox's Mills, he had his men camp for the night in a strongly defensible position.

On the morning of October 20, Governor George Clinton of New York arrived at Van Rensselaer's camp with a force of militia, after having marched his men fifty miles in 24 hours. Van Rensselaer pursued the enemy as far west as Fort Herkimer but was unable to overtake them. Governor Clinton estimated that Johnson and Brant had burned "200 dwellings and 150,000 bushels of wheat, with a proportion of other grain and forage" on their sweep through the Mohawk Valley.

Fort Klock is located on the side of a hill about 200 feet from the edge of the north bank of the Mohawk River. The one-story L-shaped stone structure stands over an elevated basement on the river front and has a gable roof with center chimney. The fieldstone walls are two feet thick and are pierced on all sides with loop holes for muskets. The interior of the house had been somewhat altered over the years, but the structure is largely original.

The Fort Klock Restoration Committee acquired 10 acres of land and restored the fortified house in the 1960's. They also restored an adjacent blacksmith shop and school house. These buildings are open to visitors during the summer months.

Fort Montgomery, New York ▲

Location: Orange County, west bank of the Hudson River just north of Bear Mountain Bridge, Bear Mountain. Ownership: State of New York.

Constructed in 1776-77, Forts Montgomery and Clinton served as the chief American guardians of the Hudson River until January 1778 when the elaborate defensive network was begun at West Point. Overlooking the river from rocky knolls that flanked Popolopen Creek, the undermanned forts were still incomplete when they were attacked by Sir Henry Clinton on October 6, 1777. Clinton's brilliantly executed attack upon the two forts and his 20-day raid up the Hudson River failed in its primary objective of relieving Burgoyne's army, but it probably did assist Burgoyne to obtain easier terms of surrender. Furthermore, the expedition undid every defensive work upon which the Americans had been laboring for more than two years to defend the Hudson.

Between October 6 and 26, 1777, Clinton destroyed Forts Clinton, Montgomery, Constitution and Independence on the Hudson. The great iron chain across the river was severed, and the barracks and considerable amounts of American stores north of Peekskill were burned. The American fleet on the Hudson, two frigates and two row galleys, went up in flames. North of the highlands, the country along the river was left in shambles. American vessels under construction were burned on their stocks or captured, and Kingston was left in ruins. Of the more than 300 houses standing in that city, one was left intact. The American-built *chevaux-de-frise*, a device consisting of a series of large, stone filled timber cribs lying submerged across the river with long, iron-tipped poles pointing up, near New Windsor also proved useless when the British fleet sailed straight through it. All this destruction resulted from the fall of forts Montgomery and Clinton where, after a gallant defense, Clinton captured 263 Americans and 67 cannons.

In 1909, Mrs. Mary W. Harriman, in memory of her husband Edward H. Harriman, the railroad magnate, donated 10,000 acres of land in Orange and Rockland Counties to the State of New York for use as a part of the Palisades Interstate Park. Included in this gift were the sites of Fort Clinton and Montgomery, which are now located in Bear Mountain State Park.

The western approach of Bear Mountain Bridge, completed across the Hudson in 1924, runs across the center of Fort Clinton. Three field-stone museums also were constructed on the site of Fort Clinton in 1928-29. On the other hand, the site of Fort Montgomery, except for U.S. Highway 9W, which runs through the western section of the site, has never been intruded upon. Extensive remains of the earth ram-

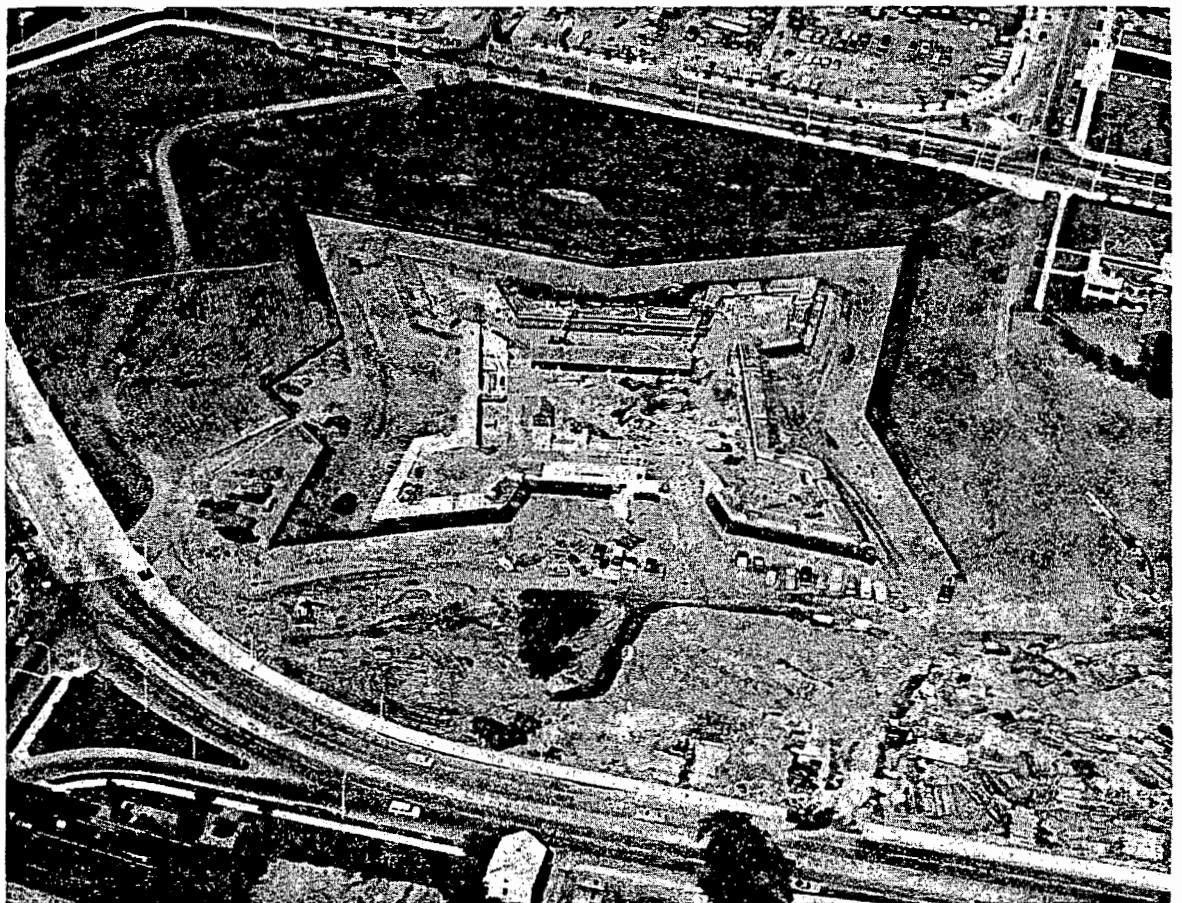
parts of this fort are visible. Recent archaeological work has uncovered the foundations of barracks, storehouses, a bake house and details of the north redoubt and grand battery. The State is planning to preserve, develop and interpret the Fort Montgomery site as a historical area.

Fort Stanwix National Monument, New York 

Location: Oneida County; downtown Rome, site bounded approximately by Dominick, Spring, Liberty and North James Streets. Address: 112 E. Park Street, Rome, New York, N. Y. 13440.

The stand by an American garrison under the command of Colonel Peter Gansevoort at Fort Stanwix during August 1777 was chiefly responsible for the repulse of the western wing of the British invasion of the northern colonies. Furthermore, the garrison checked the possibility of a loyalist uprising in the Mohawk Valley. The retreat to

Reconstructed Fort Stanwix. Courtesy Edwin Miller, Rome, New York, *Sentinel*.



Canada of the western column after its failure to take Fort Stanwix was a blow to the British strategy of concentration at Albany, contributing thereby to the defeat of Burgoyne at Saratoga a few months later. In addition to its role in the War for Independence, Fort Stanwix was the scene of the treaty of that name, signed on November 5, 1768. By the Treaty of Fort Stanwix the Iroquois ceded a vast territory south and east of the Ohio River, as far west as the mouth of the Tennessee. The treaty thus cleared the way for a new and significant surge of western settlement.

Fort Stanwix was situated at the Oneida Carrying Place, a key spot on the route between the Great Lakes and the Mohawk River, and was built originally in 1758 during the French and Indian War, but played no significant part in this conflict. Reestablished in June 1776 Fort Stanwix (called Fort Schuyler by the Americans) was garrisoned with 750 men who blocked British invasion objectives in the Mohawk Valley in the summer of 1777. General John Burgoyne advanced south from Canada along the Champlain route at this time, expecting to meet the main British army under General Howe which he believed would move up to the Hudson. Colonel Barry St. Leger with more than 1,600 regulars, Tories and Indians was to move down the Mohawk Valley to Albany to join the larger British forces.

St. Leger invested Fort Stanwix on August 3 but was rebuffed when he demanded its surrender. The action was limited to sniping until August 6 when the bloody battle was fought at Oriskany between St. Leger and an American militia force under General Nicholas Herkimer. The Americans were badly mauled and did not succeed in raising the siege of Stanwix, but during the action a detachment from the fort raided the British position, destroying provisions and camp equipment. This encouraged the Americans, who held firm while St. Leger began formal siege operations. He had advanced his works to within 150 yards of the fort when word came of the approach of an American relief force under General Benedict Arnold. Having lost the confidence and support of his Indian "allies," St. Leger was obliged to abandon the siege near the end of August, retiring in considerable disorder to Canada. Fort Stanwix still stood and the American army on the Hudson could give its full attention to Burgoyne, who surrendered at Saratoga on October 17, 1777.

Fort Stanwix National Monument, authorized in 1935, consists of 15 acres in downtown Rome, New York. Archeological work was undertaken for several years, resulting in the discovery of extensive underground remains of the fort that had previously been covered by city streets and various structures. The National Park Service has recently carried out an extensive program to reconstruct some of the main buildings and elements of the Fort which is open to the public.



Fort Ticonderoga.

Fort Ticonderoga, New York ▲

Location: Essex County, N.Y. 8 and 9N, Ticonderoga. Ownership: Fort Ticonderoga Association.

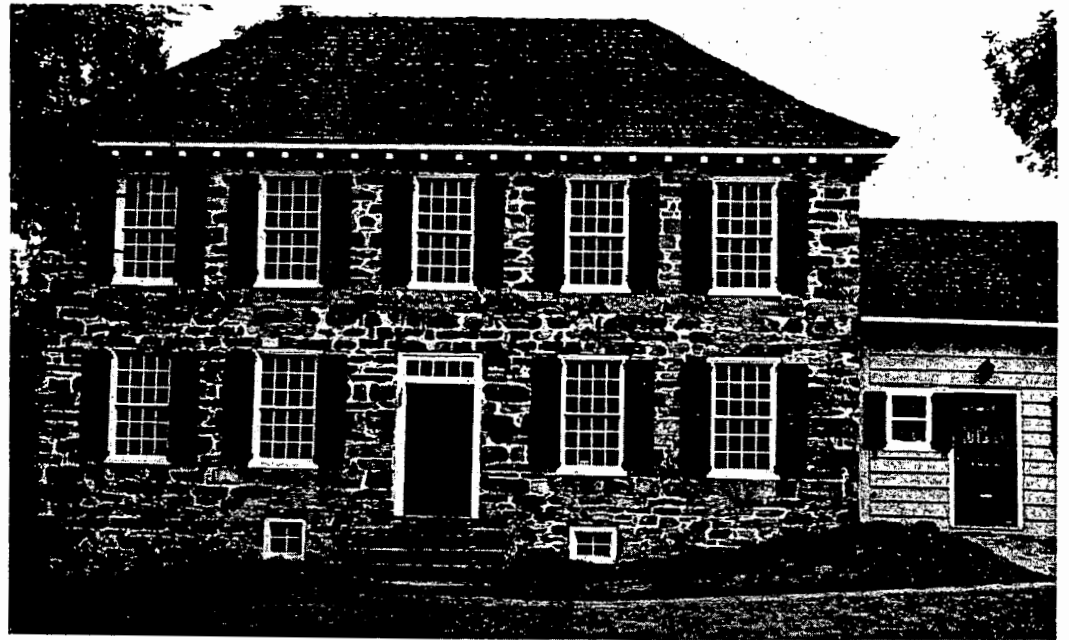
Strategically located at the junction of Lake Champlain and Lake George, Fort Ticonderoga was the key to both Canada and the Hudson Valley from 1755 to 1777. It saw more of the English-French struggle for North America than any other post, and its story is one of the most dramatic and colorful in American military annals.

The first military post on the site was Fort Vaudreuil, later Fort Carillon, built by the French in 1755-57. On July 8, 1758, an army of 15,000 British regular and colonial troops attacked the fort and was repulsed with heavy loss by the French under Montcalm. On July 27, 1759, however, Gen. Jeffrey Amherst captured the fort and renamed it Ticonderoga, thereby giving the British undisputed possession of the strategically important Hudson River Valley. The French blew up part of the fort before they withdrew, and Amherst had repairs made

in accordance with the original design. In the years between the defeat of France in North America and the outbreak of the Revolution, a small garrison manned the work. On May 10, 1775, Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen with 83 "Green Mountain Boys" surprised and took prisoner the 50 British defenders, and its 86 cannon, and the post became a major base for the American invasion of Canada in 1775-76. The following winter Col. Henry Knox hauled nearly 70 of the fort's cannon overland to serve in the siege of Boston. Following the American retreat from Canada in 1776, Fort Ticonderoga was repaired and its works expanded. Mount Independence, located on the east shore of Lake Champlain opposite to Fort Ticonderoga, was even more heavily fortified in an effort to block advances down Lake Champlain in 1776 and 1777. Ticonderoga changed hands again when it fell to Burgoyne's British army of about 9,400 men on July 4-5, 1777, but upon Burgoyne's defeat at Saratoga it again passed into American possession. Although reoccupied from time to time by scouting parties and raiding detachments, the post was never again garrisoned by a military force.

In 1816 William F. Pell, a merchant of New York, leased the grounds and four years later bought them. In 1908 the late Stephen Pell began restoration. By the following year the west barracks had been opened to the public, and the work has gone forward since that time. The task of reconstruction was a major undertaking. Over the years the stones had been carted away by settlers for use as building materials. The upper part of the walls and most of the stone barracks disappeared, and the earth behind the walls washed over the remnants of the original walls. These remains were uncovered in the restoration that began in 1908. The present work was erected on the original foundations and utilized parts of walls that had survived.

The fort is four-sided with bastions extending from its four corners. Outlooks or demilunes on the north and west, and an outer wall on the south, cover the approaches. These, together with a dry moat on the north and west, protected the main fort. Facing the central parade ground are the reconstructed west and south barracks, the partially rebuilt east barracks, and the long stone rampart joining the northwest and northeast bastions. Wooden drawbridges connect the north and west demilunes with the main fort. The west barracks houses the administrative office, a library, and, in the basement, the armory, featuring a major collection of 18th-century military arms and equipment. In the south barracks are displayed many artifacts excavated in the course of the restoration; furnished quarters of the officers of the day; exhibits of furniture, household goods, and other items used by early settlers in the region; Indian relics; and a model of the fort as it existed in 1758. Outside of the fort are extensive remains of the great outworks that were repaired or added during the Revolution.



General Henry Knox Headquarters.

General Henry Knox's Headquarters (John Ellison House), New York

▲ Location: Orange County, Quassaick Avenue (N.Y. 94) and Forge Hill Road, Vails Gate. Ownership: State of New York, New York State Historic Trust.

General Henry Knox, Washington's able artillery chief, occupied the John Ellison House four times during the War for Independence as his headquarters in June and July 1779, during the fall of 1779, from November 20, 1780, to July 4, 1781, and from May to September 1782. The Knox Headquarters is one surviving structure in the United States with which Henry Knox had significant associations. In addition to Knox, three other generals also used the house as their headquarters during the Revolution: Nathanael Greene, as quartermaster general, shared the house with Knox in the period June-July 1779; General Frederick von Steuben, inspector general of the army, in August 1779; and General Horatio Gates, commanding general of the adjacent New Windsor Encampment, from December 1782 to June 1783.

Knox joined the American army besieging Boston as a militia artillery officer in June 1775. His commission as a colonel in the continental army placed him in charge of all the artillery. At his own suggestion and with the approval of Washington, Knox went to Fort Ticonderoga on December 5, 1775. There he selected nearly 70 cannon and with oxen hauling 42 sledges, he moved the heavy guns over mountains and snow

almost 300 miles to Boston by January 18, 1776. Washington's fortification of Dorchester Heights on March 4-5, and the mounting of Knox's artillery there made Boston untenable for the besieged British and they evacuated the city on March 17.

Knox successfully changed the army's concepts regarding the proper use of artillery; light cannon, he believed, could be made to keep pace with the marching regiments. He designed and built improved gun carriages that provided much greater mobility for the cannon with Washington's army.

With his artillery regiment, Knox played a significant role in many battles during the war. These battles included those on Long Island and around New York City in 1776, the Battles of Trenton and Princeton in 1776-77, the Battles of Brandywine and Germantown in the autumn of 1777, the Battle of Monmouth in 1778 and finally the siege of Yorktown in 1781. Knox became secretary of war for the Continental Congress on March 8, 1785. A staunch supporter of the new Constitution, President Washington retained Knox as his first secretary of war from 1789 to 1794.

In 1754, Colonel Thomas Ellison, a well-to-do settler, employed the mason William Bull to build this large store house for his son John, who operated an adjacent grist mill. During the war, John provided the continental army with flour and firewood and also in 1778 served for a time in the New York militia. Later owners of the house allowed the property, mill and store to deteriorate. In 1917, the Knox Headquarters Association was formed to raise funds for its purchase and preservation. Five years later, the New York State legislature accepted the house and grounds as a gift from that association. Restoration of the house was completed in 1954.

General Henry Knox's Headquarters is a two-and-one-half story stone house with a full cellar, hipped roof and two interior stone chimneys set behind the ridge. A single-story frame wing, added in 1799, with a gable roof, central chimney and clapboarded walls adjoins the main house on the east side. Largely original and very little-altered, the house is furnished in the period and is open to visitors.

General William Floyd House, New York ▲

Location: Oneida County, west side of Main Street, opposite the Gilford Hill Road, Westernville. Ownership: private.

Constructed in 1803-04 by General William Floyd, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for New York, this house served as Floyd's home from 1803 until his death in 1821. The son of a wealthy



General William Floyd House.

Long Island landowner, he was born, raised and resided on an estate at Mastic, New York, from 1734 to 1803. In the latter year, he gave his Long Island farm to his son Nicoll and at the age of 69, accompanied by his second wife and young children, moved into western New York State to take up a pioneering life. In 1784 he had begun purchasing a tract of wild land in this area near Rome. Three years later, the State of New York gave Floyd a tract of 10,240 acres in this area provided that he, within a period of seven years from January 1, 1788, would make "one actual settlement on said tract of land . . . for every six hundred and forty acres thereof." Soon after receiving the grant, Floyd began work on this project at Western (now Westernville) and continued work there each summer until 1803, when he settled upon his estate. He spent the remainder of his life clearing and subduing this wilderness land, enjoying uninterrupted good health until a short time before his death on August 4, 1821. During this period, he acted as a presidential elector in 1804 and 1820 and also one term as State senator in 1808.

The General William Floyd House is a large frame two-story Georgian structure with a gable roof. A lower two-story frame service wing, containing the kitchen, is attached to the west end of the house. Except for the metal roofs and the insertion of baths, the structure is little altered. The house remained in the possession Floyd descendants until 1956 and is still used as a private residence. A New York State Historical marker, located on Main Street, calls attention to the history of the house.



Hamilton Grange.

Hamilton Grange National Memorial, New York ☒

Location: New York County, New York City. Address: c/o New York City Group, NPS, 26 Wall Street, New York, N.Y. 10005.

Lieutenant Colonel Alexander Hamilton's brilliant attack on the British redoubt at Yorktown on the night of October 17, 1781, was the high point in the military career of a man who was to gain yet greater distinction in the political annals of the United States. Born in the British colony of Nevis in the Leeward Islands in 1755, Hamilton moved to New York in 1772 and though yet a teenager shortly became involved in the political agitation that preceded the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. The vigor and clarity of his early speeches and writings attracted favorable attention in political circles before he applied for and received a military commission in 1776.

Hamilton was an outstanding soldier who served with marked ability during the early fighting in the north, and in 1777 Washington appointed him aide-de-camp with the rank of lieutenant colonel. He became a trusted advisor to the American commander and handled much important paperwork. At the same time, Hamilton yearned for military glory. He acquired command of an infantry battalion in July 1781 and led it and other troops in the attack at Yorktown.

When George Washington was elected president under the new Constitution in 1789 he appointed Hamilton as his Secretary of the Treasury. In this capacity, Hamilton became a prominent spokesman of the emerging Federalist Party. After leaving the Treasury and

developing an extremely successful law practice in New York, Hamilton in 1800 purchased a 16-acre tract of land on the wooded hills overlooking the Hudson River, north of New York; later he purchased an adjacent 16 acres. Workmen constructed the house in 1801-02 at a cost of £1,500. The architect was John McComb, designer of New York City Hall and other distinguished buildings. Taking much pleasure in planning the construction, Hamilton named the estate "The Grange" after that of his paternal grandfather, Alexander Hamilton, Laird of the Grange, in Ayrshire, Scotland.

Hamilton lived in the house only two years, until July 11, 1804, when he died after a duel with Aaron Burr. Hamilton spent the night before the duel in his study writing a farewell letter to his wife. After his death, Mrs. Hamilton moved to downtown New York and in 1833 sold the house, which had a series of owners until 1889. In that year St. Luke's Protestant Episcopal Church purchased it, moved it 500 feet from its original location and used it as a temporary chapel. At that time workmen removed the front and back porches and made other alterations. In 1924, when the threat to the preservation of the house became acute, two financiers, George F. Baker, Sr., and J. P. Morgan, purchased it, conveyed it to the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, and set up a \$50,000 trust fund to maintain it as a memorial to Hamilton and a museum of his times.

Despite modifications, the basic structure is intact, though it needs extensive renovation. Its design is simple but dignified. The two-story frame structure has brick-filled walls and partitions. The original siding, hand-hewn attic beams, hand-split lath and ornamental plaster mouldings are preserved. In 1962, to make possible a National Monument to Hamilton in a suitable location, the American Scenic and Historical Preservation Society donated the house to the Federal government and New York City deeded the land for the proposed relocation because of encroachments on its location. At the present time, Hamilton Grange is awaiting further relocation and restoration.

Johnson Hall, New York ▲

Location: Fulton County, Johnson Avenue and Hall Avenue, off N.Y. 29, Johnstown. Ownership: State of New York, New York State Historic Trust.

The shape of the Revolutionary War on the frontiers of New York and Pennsylvania was determined to a large extent by the activities at Johnson Hall, the home of Sir William Johnson, superintendent of Indian affairs for the northern colonies. Numerous Indian treaties were

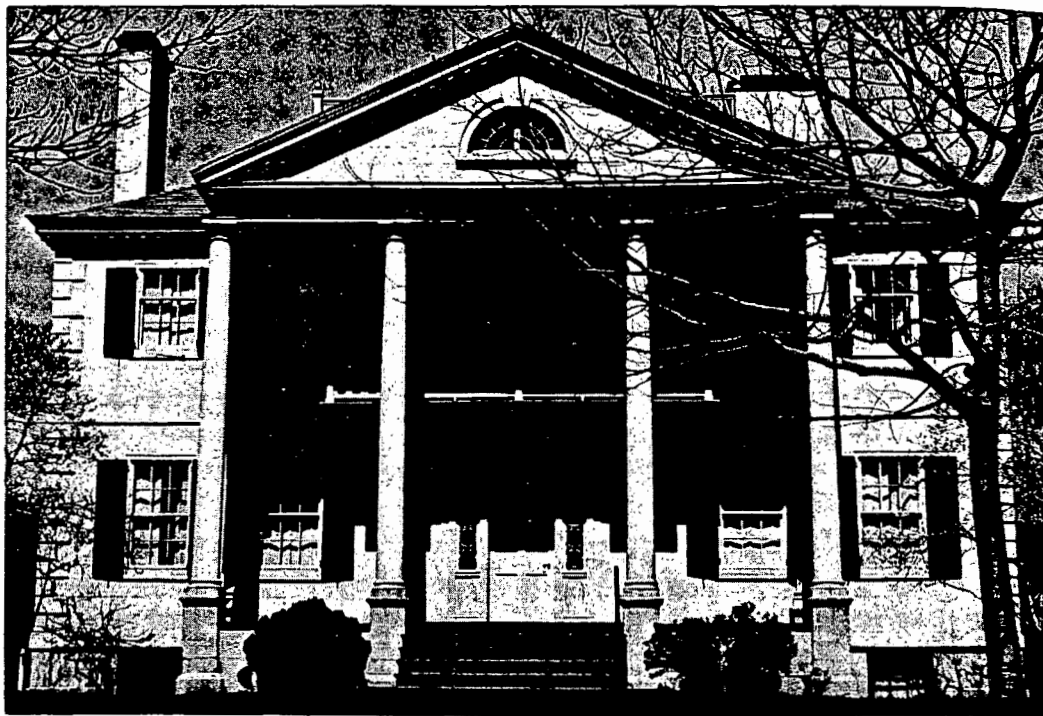


Johnson Hall.

negotiated here in the Mohawk Valley in the decade before the Revolution, and, although Johnson himself died here in July 1774 at one such meeting, his spirit literally lived on. The pro-British feeling engendered in the Indians by Johnson's skillful and honest diplomacy caused most of them to side with King George III against the Americans when hostilities came.

Built in 1761-63 by Lemal Baker and Samuel Fuller, Johnson Hall was one of the most elaborate estates in the northern colonies. A splendid example of a late Georgian frame house, the structure is a large, rectangular two-story frame residence, with an attic, basement and two interior chimneys. The white rusticated siding and the ornamented cornices under eaves and over windows give the house a dignified appearance in keeping with its owner's character and position. The interior, arranged with two rooms on either side of the wide central hallway, upstairs and down, has been restored faithfully with furnishings that include a room of pieces belonging to the Johnson family. An inventory of the furnishings taken three weeks after Sir William's death made possible a highly authentic interior restoration. The mansion was fortified in 1763 by the erection of a log stockade and two stone blockhouses, one of which still stands.

Johnson Hall, with 18 acres of land, was acquired by the State of New York in 1906. The house is open for visitors. Dioramas and other exhibits interpreting the life of the Johnsons are housed in the basement of the home, and a large scale model of the original estate is displayed in the blockhouse.



Morris-Jumel Mansion.

Morris-Jumel Mansion, New York ▲

Location: New York County, West 160th Street and Edgecombe Avenue, New York City. Ownership: City of New York, operated by Washington Headquarters Association, Daughters of the American Revolution, under direction of New York City Department of Parks.

In addition to its distinction as the only important pre-Revolutionary house still standing in Manhattan, the Morris-Jumel Mansion is the major surviving landmark of the Battle of Harlem Heights. Although it was a small-scale affair, the important effects of the battle were immediately evident, including the restoration of the offensive spirit of the American army following a succession of defeats and retreats.

The Morris house served as the headquarters of Washington from September 14 to October 18, 1776. Following their victory on Long Island, the British occupied New York City easily on September 15, routing a portion of the American army at Kip's Bay the same day. The Americans retreated to fortified lines on the heights north of present 125th Street. In this vicinity the Battle of Harlem Heights was fought on September 16. Here, for the first time in the campaign, the American succeeded in forcing the British to give ground. Hoping to lure the enemy into ambush, Washington feinted an attack in front and sent a flanking party to catch the advancing enemy in a crossfire. The British

withdrew, reformed their battleline, resumed firing and retreated again. As the fight went on, both commanders threw in more troops, and at about 2 o'clock in the afternoon the British withdrew again, this time to within a short distance of their massed reserve. Washington had no desire to bring on a general engagement and called off the advance, a difficult feat because of his army's reluctance to give up the unusual opportunity of actually chasing the enemy. Lord Howe, surprised by the determined stand of the Americans, spent the next four weeks in fortifying his lines, leaving Washington to the comforts of his headquarters in the Morris mansion. After Washington left the house, it was occupied for the remainder of the war by General Henry Clinton and other British officers.

The Morris-Jumel Mansion was built by Lt. Col. Roger Morris in 1765. Morris had come to America in 1746 and during the Braddock expedition in 1755 became a friend of Washington. A loyalist, Morris fled the country at the outbreak of the Revolution, and at the end of the war his house and land were confiscated and sold. In 1810 the house became the property of Stephen Jumel, and was restored in Federal period style. After passing through a succession of owners, the house was saved from demolition in 1903 when the City of New York purchased it for \$235,000, and by special legislation gave its care to the Washington Headquarters Association of the Daughters of the American Revolution. This group restored the house and again in 1945 renovated and refurnished it. At the same time, the grounds were landscaped.

The Morris-Jumel Mansion, an outstanding example of Georgian architecture, is a two-and-one-half story frame house constructed of rusticated wood planks, with quoins at the four corners, in imitation of stonework. Shingles, instead of planks, were used to cover the side that was least likely to be seen by important visitors. The low-hipped roof has a deck surrounded by a Chinese lattice rail balustrade. At the rear, there is a projecting octagonal wing, which was used by Washington as his study in 1776. Of outstanding architectural interest is the giant two-story high entrance portico with its lofty Roman Tuscan pedimented temple front and four tall slender Doric columns. The spacious rooms are handsomely furnished in the styles of the late 18th and early 19th centuries, in consideration of the two distinguished families that lived in the mansion at different periods. The earlier period is carried out on the lower floor, while the American Federal and French Empire of the 19th century is used upstairs, where furniture belonging to the Jumels is displayed. The third-floor rooms, probably utilized formerly as guest chambers, house a collection of early American household utensils. The kitchen and servant quarters are in the basement. The Morris-Jumel Mansion is open to visitors as a historic house exhibit.



Newtown Battlefield.

Newtown Battlefield, New York ▲

Location: Chemung County, N.Y. 17, 6 miles southeast of Elmira.
 Ownership: State of New York.

The Newtown Battlefield, the scene of a sharply-fought skirmish on August 29, 1779, is highly significant in commemorating the Sullivan Expedition because it is the one site during that long campaign where all of the contending forces and leaders are known to have been present. The Sullivan Expedition was planned as a counter-offensive against the Iroquois Nations who had raided frontier settlements in the Mohawk Valley of New York and in western Pennsylvania the previous year. In this campaign intended to cow the Six Nations, Washington escalated physical destruction to levels previously unknown on the western frontier. General John Sullivan dealt the Iroquois civilization a staggering blow but as one soldier noted, "the nests (towns) are destroyed. but the birds (warriors) are still on the wing." In 1780-81, operating from Fort Niagara and Canada, the Iroquois warriors devastated the American settlements of the Mohawk Valley and western Pennsylvania with a destructive fury that surpassed even the American effort of 1779.

Comprising an army of more than 3,800 Continental troops, the Sullivan Expedition was a military effort which lasted from May to November 1779. During this time, Sullivan marched 600 miles, destroying 41 Indian villages with some 650 log houses and an estimated 160,000 bushels of corn together with a vast quantity of vegetables and fruit trees. Throughout the expedition, the Indians refused to risk a pitched battle, choosing instead to sacrifice their homes and crops in an effort to remove their people from the risk of capture. However, on August 29, a force of 600 Indians, under the command of the noted Mohawk chief Joseph Brant (Thayendanegea) and 300 loyalists under Major John Butler made a stand on a densely-forested 1,400-foot

mountain (Sullivan Hill) near the Chemung River. After a sharp struggle, the Indians scattered and the Americans burned their huts and nearby cornfields.

The Newtown Battlefield embraces about 2,100 acres of land. Of this total, 330 acres, located on the top of Sullivan Hill, is owned by the State of New York and is known as the Newtown Battlefield State Park. The remaining land is in various private ownership. Sullivan Hill is largely in forest and the remaining lower level is farm land. Except for greater areas of cleared land, the overall battlefield is otherwise little altered or impaired. A large monument erected in 1912 on the summit of Sullivan Hill commemorates the battle, but there are no other interpretive features at the State Park.

Old Fort Niagara, New York ▲

Location: Niagara County, on N.Y. Route 18, just north of Youngstown. Ownership: State of New York; leased to and administered by the Old Fort Niagara Association.

Situated at the mouth of the Niagara River in the eastern Great Lakes region, this strategic fort commanded the Great Lakes route between Lakes Erie and Ontario and protected the approaches to New York State's western frontier. In English hands during the War for Independence, Old Fort Niagara served as the major base for combined British-loyalist-Indian expeditions directed against the American frontier, particularly in New York and Pennsylvania.

Built by the French in 1697 and rebuilt in 1725-26, the stone fortress was enlarged by the addition of elaborate earthworks, moats, magazines and gun emplacements between 1750 and 1759. Much of this third rebuilding survives.

In 1759 during the French and Indian War, a British force under Sir William Johnson captured Old Fort Niagara, which was then regarded



Old Fort Niagara.
Courtesy Old Fort Ni-
agara Association.

as second in importance only to Quebec. The British held the fort from 1759 until 1796 when, under the Treaty of 1794, the United States took it over. Recaptured by the British in the War of 1812, it was restored to the United States by the Treaty of Ghent at the end of the conflict.

The fort is one of the best restored and preserved 18th-century fortresses in America. Restored features include the famous Stone House (a French provincial chateau building erected in 1725-26), moats, a drawbridge, earthen ramparts and the parade grounds. The fort is open to visitors as a historical museum.

Oriskany Battlefield, New York ▲

Location: Oneida County, 5 miles east of Rome on N.Y. 69, Ownership: State of New York, administered by the New York State Historic Trust, and the Central New York State Parks Commission, Jamesville.

The Battle of Oriskany on August 6, 1777, was the key to the success of the garrison at Fort Stanwix in holding out against the siege by British General Barry St. Leger, which thwarted the British plan to overrun the Mohawk Valley. General John Burgoyne was thus deprived of reinforcements which might have permitted him to smash his way to Albany.

General Nicholas Herkimer, leading 800 Tryon County Dutch and German militia and 80 Indians to the relief of Fort Stanwix, was ambushed by 800 Indians and 90 Tories led by Joseph Brant and Sir John Johnson. Entirely surrounded and in a desperate struggle with knife, hatchet, bayonet and clubbed rifle that raged for five hours, Herkimer and his men finally forced the British force to withdraw from the field. The Americans, so bloodied and exhausted by their ordeal, then returned home. St. Leger's Indian allies, however, were greatly depressed by their losses, among whom were many of their chiefs.

Located on the south bank of the Mohawk River about five miles east of Rome, the site of Fort Stanwix, Oriskany Battlefield State Park includes 44 acres that encompasses most of the site of the fighting. The heavy forest that covered the battlefield in 1777 has disappeared, but the area has otherwise retained its natural features with a minimum of modern encroachments. On the east edge of the park is a broad and marshy ravine, about 50 feet deep with very steep banks, up which the road ran in 1777 and where the ambush began. To the west is the hill to which the militia retreated and where they formed a defensive circle. This site is marked by a tall monument that was erected in 1884. A small visitor center contains exhibits which tell the story of the battle.



Philip Schuyler Mansion.

Philip Schuyler Mansion, New York ▲

Location: Albany County, Clinton and Schuyler Streets, Albany. **Ownership:** State of New York, New York State Historic Trust; administered by Capital District State Park Commission.

One of the most architecturally distinguished late Georgian houses in the middle colonies, this home was the residence of Major General Philip Schuyler from 1763 until his death in 1804. After serving in the Second Continental Congress, Schuyler became the commander of the northern department of the American army during the critical years 1775-77. He was in command of the forces that fought the delaying action down the Hudson Valley in the summer of 1777, against Burgoyne's invasion but was relieved of his command on August 4 of that year after a bitter feud with Major General Haratio Gates. In 1787, when the new Constitution was ratified, Schuyler entered the U.S. Senate from New York.

The Schuyler Mansion, also known as "The Pastures," was built in 1762 by John Gaborial, a master carpenter from Boston. The large two-and-one-half-story brick mansion has a hipped gambrel roof with six pedimented dormer windows, two large end chimneys and a full cellar. A light Chinese lattice rail or balustrade surrounds the edge of the roof. The first floor windows are adorned by exterior paneled shutters. The one-story, six-sided brick vestibule which leads to the center door was added to the house in 1810.

The house has a typical center hall plan with both the first and second floors having two large rooms on either side of the wide corridors. The great entrance hall is divided toward the rear by a pilaster-supported doorway with a decorative fanlight of leaded panes. The third floor has six bedrooms.

As a prisoner, General Burgoyne was a guest of Schuyler in this house, following the British surrender at Saratoga. The Schuyler Mansion was acquired by the State of New York in 1911 and partially restored in 1916. Restoration of the structure was completed in 1950. Furnished with many of Schuyler's personal objects, the mansion is open to visitors as a historic house exhibit.

Robert R. Livingston II House (Clermont), New York ▲

Location: Columbia County, Clermont State Park, Tivoli on the Hudson. Ownership: State of New York, New York State Office of Parks and Recreation.

Clermont was the country home from 1742 to 1813 of Robert R. Livingston II, a major political leader and the first secretary of foreign affairs of the United States during the War for Independence. Later known as Chancellor Livingston, he negotiated the purchase of the Louisiana Territory from France in 1803 and he also played a key role in the development of the steamboat.

The eldest son of Robert R. Livingston, second lord of Livingston Manor, a 162,000-acre estate on the east side of the Hudson River, Robert attended King's (Columbia) College, where he graduated in 1765. When he left college, he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1770.

In 1775, Livingston was elected a delegate from New York to the Second Continental Congress, in which he served during 1775-76, 1779-81 and 1784-85. He was a member of the committee of five appointed to draft a declaration of independence. His personal opinion was that independence was inevitable and necessary, but at that time inexpedient, and in debate he was, according to Jefferson, one of the chief speakers for a postponement of the issue. When independence was considered on July 2, 1776, every colony voted affirmatively except New York, whose delegation was excused from voting because it was not authorized to do so by the New York convention.

On July 9, a newly elected convention declared for independence, and six days later Livingston left for New York to take a seat in that body and was therefore absent when the signing of the engrossed copy of the Declaration began on August 2. Thus, it happened that, although a member of the drafting committee, Livingston neither voted for nor signed the Declaration of Independence.

In addition to national affairs, Livingston was also involved deeply in the public affairs of New York State. He was a leader in the successive Revolutionary organizations that replaced the imperial governmental machinery: the New York congress and committee of safety in 1776; the council of safety of 1777; and the commission to carry on the government during the interval between the adoption of the state constitution and the time when it began to function in 1777. He held the chancellorship of New York from 1777 to 1801, and, as one of the ablest of American lawyers, he helped draft the first New York constitution in 1777.

Congress on January 10, 1781, established a department of foreign affairs, and on August 10 Livingston was elected secretary of this department. The most important of Livingston's diplomatic correspondence while secretary related to the peace negotiations with Great Britain. He approved the instructions to the American commissioners at Paris, directing them to act only with the knowledge and concurrence of France. When the treaty was submitted by the commissioners, Livingston approved it as a whole but reprimanded them for their manner of negotiating without the full concurrence of France, eliciting a defense of their conduct in which even Benjamin Franklin joined.

Livingston left Congress in June 1783 to participate on the commission to govern New York City following the British evacuation. A leader in the drive for the new Constitution, he administered the oath to President George Washington in 1789.

President Thomas Jefferson in 1801 appointed Livingston minister to France, where he negotiated the Louisiana Purchase. As he signed the treaty, he said: "From this day the United States take their place among the powers of the first rank."

Retiring to Clermont in 1804, Livingston devoted his leisure to a wide range of intellectual interests and hobbies. His aid, which was both technical and financial, made possible the successful experiment of Robert Fulton of the steamboat *Clermont* on the Hudson in 1807.

The original Livingston Mansion, a Georgian brick and stone house, was built about 1730 by Robert R. Livingston I on his 13,000-acre estate "Clermont." When the British burned Kingston in October 1777, Clermont was also destroyed. Mrs. Margaret Beekman Livingston, the mother of Chancellor Livingston, rebuilt the mansion in 1777-78, incorporating the walls of the older structure into the new house. It was rebuilt as a two-story brick Georgian structure with a low hipped roof and a balustrade around the eaves. The brick walls were covered with a thin veneer of stucco which was scored to resemble stone blocks.

About 1793, Livingston built a house several hundred yards south of Clermont, where he resided until the death of his mother in 1800. This house was destroyed by fire in 1909.

The north and south wings of Clermont were added after 1800, thus giving the house its present U-shape. In 1874 the steep-pitched hipped roof with dormers was added to give the mansion its existing third floor.

Clermont is furnished with a large, original collection of Livingston Federal and Empire period furniture, as well as with original paintings, prints and books of the Livingston family. The mansion was occupied by the Livingston family until 1962, when it was acquired by the State of New York for park purposes. The park includes 410 acres of what was once Livingston land, and Clermont was opened to visitors for the first time in 1970.



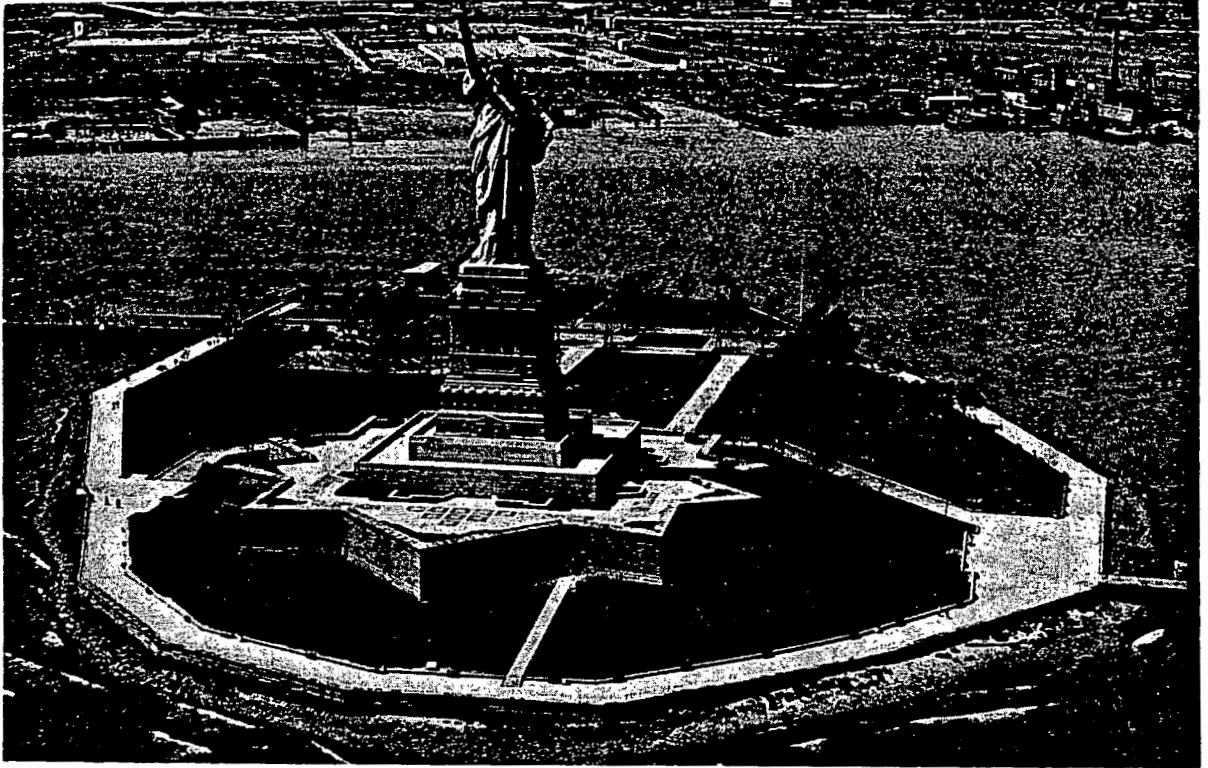
Saratoga, Saratoga National Historical Park.

Saratoga National Historical Park, New York ★

Location: Saratoga County, on Hudson River 28 miles north of Albany, between Stillwater and Schuylerville. Address: R.D. 1, Box 113-C, Stillwater, N.Y. 12170.

Advancing down the Hudson River as part of a grand design for dividing and conquering the middle and New England States, the British army of General John Burgoyne clashed in September and October 1777 with the American army of General Horatio Gates. The two Battles of Saratoga and the resulting surrender on October 17 of Burgoyne's 5,800-man army wrecked the British campaign. Saratoga was the turning point of the Revolution. Not only did the colonists draw new hope at a critical moment when defeat would have been disastrous, but the victory also had a decisive influence on negotiations in Europe for an alliance with France.

Saratoga National Historical Park contains 2,432 acres and includes the scenes of fighting on September 19 and October 7, and most of the sites of the fortified camps of the American and British armies. In its superb beauty with virtually no intrusions, Saratoga is probably the finest battlefield park in the United States. Nine miles of paved roads give visitors access to the sites of significant phases of the action, to opposing redoubts and fortifications, portions of which have been reconstructed, and to the headquarters of Burgoyne and Gates. A fine visitor center interprets the story. A 25-acre detached section of the park 10 miles to the north in Schuylerville (Old Saratoga of 1777) includes the restored and refurnished Schuyler House, the summer residence of General Philip Schuyler which the general rebuilt shortly after Burgoyne's surrender.



Statue of Liberty.

Statue of Liberty National Monument, New York ★

Location: New York County, Liberty Island in New York Harbor.
 Address: c/o New York City Group, NPS, 26 Wall Street, New York City, N.Y. 10005.

Statue of Liberty National Monument has been designated as a bicentennial area by the National Park Service. One of the colossal sculptures in world history, the statue has greeted many millions of the oppressed and venturesome from other lands who crossed the ocean in search of greater freedom and opportunity. To the world, the statue has become a symbol of those ideals of liberty upon which our Nation and its form of government were founded.

In its international aspect, the statue, a gift from the people of France to the people of the United States, commemorates the long friendship between the people of the two nations. It was built to celebrate the alliance of the two nations during the American Revolution and the 100th anniversary of American independence.

On October 28, 1886, after more than 12 years of preparation, this statue was dedicated and unveiled. The statue was the conception of a

young Alsatian sculptor, Frederic Auguste Bartholdi, who designed it for the Franco-American Union in 1874. It was built by popular subscriptions in France and required over five years for its completion. The statue was mounted in Paris in October 1881. However, the American pedestal at old Fort Wood on the island in New York Harbor, then known as Bedloe's Island was not commenced until April 1883, and was finally finished in 1886. This was built by public subscription, led by Joseph Pulitzer's *New York World*.

The 152-foot statue, which consists of copper sheets $\frac{3}{32}$ inch in thickness, weighs 450,000 pounds, or 225 tons. The framework of the statue, designed by the French engineer, Gustave Eiffel, consists of four huge steel supports which bear the weight of the entire structure. The construction is remarkable when one considers that the width of the face is 10 feet and that one of the eyes is 2 feet 6 inches. Moreover, the arm carrying the torch is 42 feet long and 12 feet in diameter at the point of greatest thickness. The cost of the statue is estimated at \$250,000, and the cost of the pedestal and the erection of the statue, \$350,000.

The statue was first placed under the jurisdiction of the Lighthouse Board, as it was for many years considered an aid to navigation. In 1901, control was transferred to the War Department, which continued to maintain Fort Wood, a small army post, on the island. On October 15, 1924, the Statue of Liberty was declared a national monument by Presidential Proclamation. In 1956, Congress changed the island's name to Liberty Island in recognition of the statue's symbolic significance and of the plan to establish at its base the American Museum of Immigration, honoring those who chose these shores. The national monument includes nearby Ellis Island, the former (1892-1943) examination center for immigrants seeking to enter the United States.

Stony Point Battlefield, New York ▲

Location: Rockland County, U.S. 9W and 202, north of community of Stony Point. Ownership: State of New York, administered by Palisades Interstate Park Commission.

The small-scale battle at Stony Point, July 16, 1779, was one of the last military actions of importance in the northern theater of the war. It was important as a morale builder for the rebels and as a demonstration of the developing skill of the American army, and it had other significant consequences. One study has noted that "the assault paralyzed Clinton (the British commander). When his reinforcements failed to show up, he dared not, after the loss of men in Connecticut and at the (Stony) Point, make an offensive move." By the action at Stony Point,



Stony Point Battlefield. Courtesy Palisades Interstate Park Commission.

Washington tightened his grip on the Hudson and especially on West Point, "the key to the Continent."

The Battle of Stony Point came after the long period of stalemate in the north that followed the Battle of Monmouth in June 1778. At the beginning of June 1779, the British took without opposition the unfinished fort at Stony Point, a few miles below West Point. Verplanck's Point, on the east side of the river opposite Stony Point, was captured at the same time. Stony Point is a steep and rugged promontory jutting half a mile into the Hudson River and rising 150 feet above the water, which washes three-fourths of its perimeter. A marsh, under water at high tide, protected the inland side of the post. Having secured this strong position, Clinton pushed the fortifications to completion and manned them with a garrison of about 700 men under Lt. Col. Henry Johnson. On the summit of the point, seven or eight detached batteries, connected in part by trenches, made a sort of semienclosed fort. To the west of it, protected by a curved line of abatis, were three small works protected by another line of abatis, also stretching from shore to shore, and all the woods thereabout had been felled.

Washington was greatly concerned over the loss of the two strong points on either side of the river and after a thorough reconnaissance ordered Gen. "Mad Anthony" Wayne to regain Stony Point. He moved in after dark on July 15, and at about midnight his elite corps of 1,350 men launched its assault with muskets unloaded and with orders to use the bayonet. Within 20 minutes the fort had been secured and its surprised garrison made prisoners. The British loss was 63 killed and 639 men and 15 cannon captured, while the American loss was 15 killed and 80 wounded. Washington concluded that the post could not be held by his troops and ordered the fortifications dismantled and abandoned. The British reoccupied Stony Point but Clinton, alarmed by his losses, had lost heart for further offensive action. Washington had retained his grip on the Hudson River line and won time in which to fortify West Point more strongly than ever.

Stony Point Battlefield is preserved in a 45-acre State reservation. There are extensive earthwork remains, and historical markers trace the course of the American assault up the steep slopes into the fort. A small museum contains relics of the battle and tells the story of the action. The point is heavily wooded, but the foot trails give access to the important points of interest. A spectacular view of the Hudson River Valley may be had from the summit of the point. Land for the reservation was acquired by the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society in 1899, and the area became a State park in 1946.

Thomas Paine Cottage, New York ▲

Location: Westchester County, 20 Sicard Avenue at North and Paine Avenues, New Rochelle. Ownership: Huguenot and Historical Association of New Rochelle.

This modest cottage was the home from 1802 until 1806 of Thomas Paine, master pamphleteer and propagandist of the War for Independence. Born in England, Paine arrived in America in October 1774 and soon took up journalism, pioneering in the movement for the abolition of Negro slavery.

Paine was the first publicist to discover the mission of America. His *Common Sense*, published as an anonymous pamphlet on January 10, 1776, was an amazing success, selling perhaps as many as 500,000 copies. In *Common Sense*, Paine denounced the monarchy and English constitution, and boldly asserted that the colonies derived no advantage from membership in the empire. Paine urged the immediate declaration of independence, not merely as a striking political gesture that would help unite the colonies and secure foreign aid, but as the ful-



Thomas Paine Cottage.

fillment of America's moral obligation to the world. If now, while American society was still uncorrupt and democratic, these colonies should free themselves from an oppressive monarchy, they could alter human destiny by their example.

Paine enlisted in the continental army just in time to join in the retreat across New Jersey. At Newark, he set to work on the first *Crisis*, which appeared in the *Pennsylvania Journal* on December 19, and in pamphlet form on December 23, 1776. Eleven other numbers of *Crisis*, with four supernumerary ones, appeared during the course of the war. This whole work shows Paine at his best as a political journalist.

In April 1777, Paine was appointed by Congress as secretary to its committee on foreign affairs. In November 1779, he became clerk of the Pennsylvania assembly and the following year demonstrated further his devotion to the American cause by leading with a subscription of \$500 a fund for the relief of Washington's army. He accompanied John Laurens of South Carolina to France in 1781 in search of further financial relief and returned successfully in the same year with money and stores.

Following the war, New York State gave him a confiscated loyalist farm of 277 acres at New Rochelle, and Pennsylvania rewarded him with 500 pounds in cash. This was enough for Paine's modest needs, and he lived in Bordentown, New Jersey, and New York City until 1787.

In that year, Paine went to Europe, where he lived both in England and France. With the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, he became a self-appointed missionary of world revolution. His great works of this period were *Rights of Man* and *Age of Reason*.

In October 1802, Paine returned to America, taking up residence at his cottage at New Rochelle. The last seven years of his life were marked by poverty, declining health and social ostracism. He died in 1809 in New York City, where he had gone to live three years earlier when New Rochelle had denied him the right to vote.

This farm, originally the property of Frederick Davoue, a loyalist during the Revolution, was confiscated by the State of New York and granted to Paine in 1784 in recognition of his "eminent services rendered the United States in the progress of the late war." The large original stone farmhouse was destroyed by fire in 1793 during his absence in Europe.

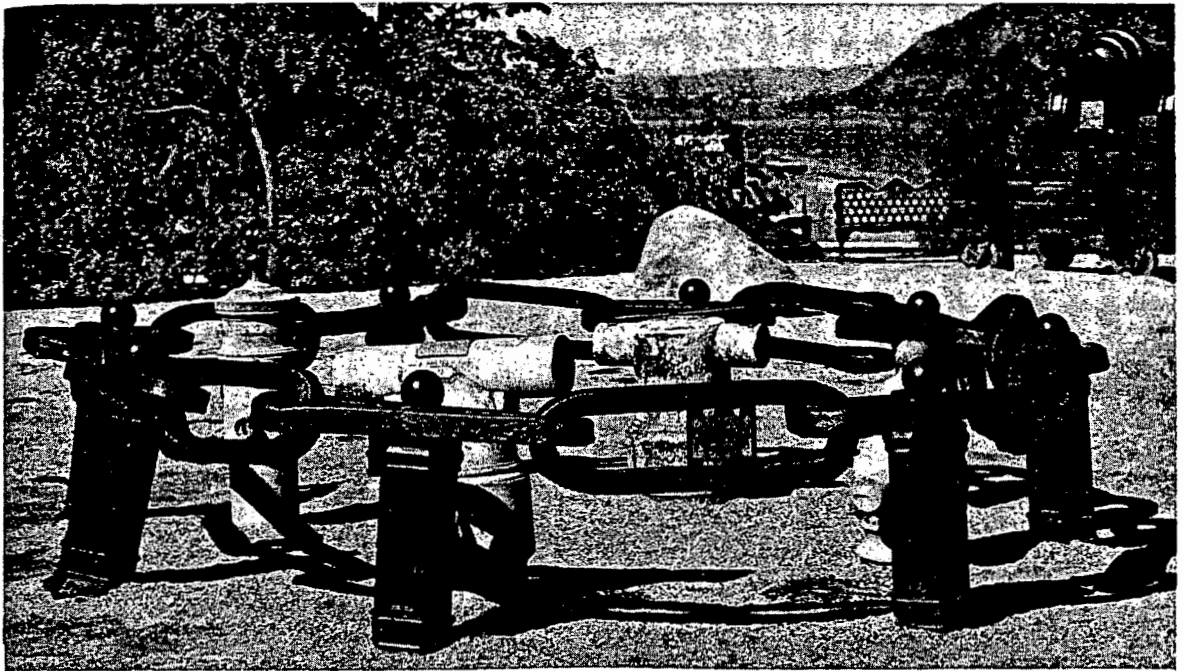
The Thomas Paine Cottage is a small two-story frame house of the salt box type with a central chimney and long-sloping gable roof. The cottage was moved to its present site on the corner of Paine's farm in 1908 in order to save the building when the remainder of his farmland was subdivided.

Near the cottage stands the Thomas Paine Monument, erected in 1839 and topped by a bronze bust of Paine by Wilson McDonald that was added in 1881. The monument, owned by the City of New Rochelle, was located at its present site in 1905. Also standing near the cottage is the Thomas Paine Memorial Building, erected by the Thomas Paine National Historical Association in 1925. The building, which is open to visitors, contains a number of Paine's personal effects and exhibits of his writings.

United States Military Academy, New York ▲

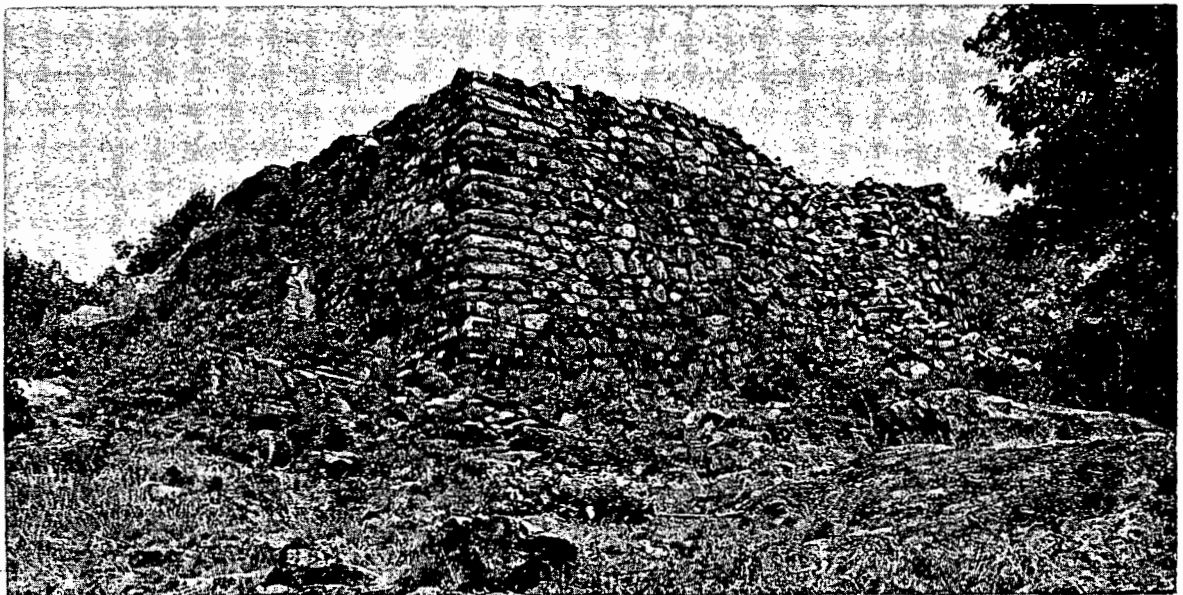
Location: Orange County, N.Y. 218, West Point. Ownership: U.S. Government, Department of Defense.

Recognizing the strategic importance of West Point as the key to navigation of the Hudson River, an American lifeline during the War for Independence, George Washington stationed a garrison there in January 1778. Closing the river to British penetration and thereby binding the New England states and the middle states, the elaborate system of fortifications begun in March 1778 under Thaddeus Kosciuszko, the Polish engineer, have been called aptly "the Key to the Continent." For four months in 1779, Washington made his headquarters at the Point. The following year Benedict Arnold, the commander, attempted to be-



The Great Chain, West Point. Courtesy U. S. Army.

Constitution Island, West Point. Courtesy U. S. Army.



tray the post to the British, but fled to the enemy when the plot came to light. In 1781 a corps of veterans was assigned to instruct candidates for army commissions, but the end of hostilities in 1783 and national fear of a standing army led to the near abandonment of the post. During the war the British never directly attacked it. Later in 1802, the U.S. Military Academy was established here.

Work on the fortifications continued through the war. Fort Arnold (renamed Fort Clinton after Arnold fled) was built on the tip of the "Point" itself, and Fort Putnam (named for its engineer builder, Col. Rufus Putnam) was located on the heights in the rear of Fort Arnold. An iron chain and boom were constructed and placed across the river in April 1778. The Americans built a whole network of fortifications, redoubts and batteries at West Point, on Constitution Island opposite the Point and on the hilltops to the east of the Hudson. As a result of their work, West Point became the great American stronghold of the Revolution.

The U.S. Military Academy grounds, containing some 15,000 acres, are open to visitors throughout the year. Extensive original remains of the West Point fortifications may still be seen, particularly on Constitution Island. On the West Point side is Fort Putnam, located on Mount Independence, built in 1778 and partially restored in 1907-10. At Trophy Point is the West Point Battle Monument, around which are displayed artillery and other relics of U.S. wars, including links of the chain stretched across the Hudson in 1778.

Valcour Bay, New York ▲

Location: Clinton County, seven miles south of Plattsburgh, between Valcour Island and west shore of Lake Champlain. Ownership: State of New York.

Benedict Arnold's daring fleet action off Valcour Island on October 11, 1776, had a far-reaching affect on the outcome of the War for Independence. Although the American force was defeated, its very presence on the lake and its stubborn fight proved to be a strategic victory by delaying the British invasion of the northern colonies in 1776. By the time the lake had been cleared of American vessels the British commander concluded that the season was too far advanced to carry out his projected movement toward Albany. The invasion did not resume until the following year, by which time the Americans were better able to repulse it. This they did at Saratoga, the turning point of the Revolution. Alfred T. Mahan, the naval historian, wrote: "That the Americans were strong enough to impose the capitulation of Saratoga was due to the invaluable year of delay secured to them in 1776 by their little navy on Lake Champlain, created by the indomitable energy, and handled with the indomitable courage of the traitor, Benedict Arnold."

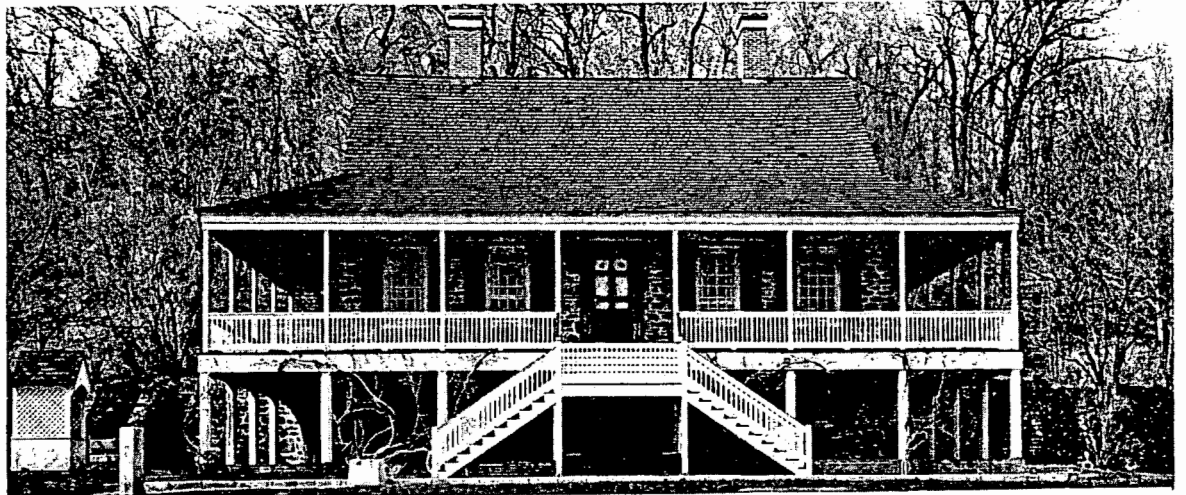
Not until early fall of 1776, was Gen. Sir Guy Carleton, British commander in Canada, ready to cooperate with Howe in New York by moving down Lake Champlain and the Hudson River on Albany. By

early October, Carleton's fleet was built and ready for action—28 vessels, including one ship, two schooners, one radeau, 20 gunboats and four long boats armed with 89 heavy guns. The American fleet consisted of 15 vessels, including two schooners, one sloop, eight gondolas and four row galleys armed with 81 lighter cannon.

Between Valcour Island and the west shore of Lake Champlain is a sound about three-quarters of a mile wide. Midway on the island a high bluff juts into the sound, dividing it into a north and a south bay. On the day of battle, October 11, 1776, Arnold's fleet, manned by 800 men, lay anchored in line across the bay south of the bluff, concealed from the enemy fleet approaching from the north. Carleton's vessels, with some 700 men, sailed down the eastern side of Valcour Island and were south of it before the crewmen caught sight of Arnold's fleet. Carleton had to attack against the wind, a decided disadvantage in the age of sail. Closing to short range, the opposing battlelines hammered each other from about 11 a. m. until dusk. One of the two American ships lost that day was the gundelo *Philadelphia*, which sank about an hour after the battle.

The end of the day found Arnold's surviving vessels heavily damaged and low on ammunition. Further fighting was out of the question. The British line still lay between Valcour and escape to the south, but in darkness and a providential fog the survivors of the fight slipped past the left flank of the enemy line. In the next two days, Carleton's pursuing vessels knocked out ship after ship, and Arnold burned some to keep them from enemy hands. Arnold and other survivors of the action eluded capture, but when the final score was counted it was discovered that of the ships engaged at Valcour only four had reached safety. The American fleet on Lake Champlain was destroyed, but its work had been done. The invasion from Canada had been halted for one crucial year.

Valcour Island is about two miles long from north to south and approximately one and one-quarter miles wide. It is rocky, high and wooded, and, as seen from the west shore of Lake Champlain, it probably looks much as it did when it sheltered Arnold's makeshift fleet. The sound or bay between the island and the west shore of the lake is three-quarters of a mile wide. Although the shore of Lake Champlain has been built up to some extent, and Valcour Island is the property of several private owners, the island, and, more importantly, the bay where the fighting took place have suffered little loss of integrity. No effort has been made to preserve or interpret the scene of the battle, and the only marking is a small monument on the mainland about five miles south of Plattsburgh, in view of the island. This was erected in 1928 by the State Education Department and the Saranac Chapter, Daughters of the American Revolution.



Van Cortlandt Manor.

Van Cortlandt Manor, New York ▲

Location: Westchester County, U.S. 9, north of intersection with U.S. 9A, Croton-on-Hudson. Ownership: Sleepy Hollow Restoration, Inc.

Van Cortlandt Manor was the residence from 1749 to 1831 of Pierre Van Cortlandt, a major political leader in New York, and his son, Philip, an officer in the continental army. Built in stages between 1683 and 1749, this home is an outstanding architectural example of a Dutch-English manor house.

Pierre Van Cortlandt, third Lord of Cortlandt Manor and owner of 86,000 acres in the Hudson Valley, served in the New York assembly from 1768 to 1775. He then chose the American cause against the British. He was a member of several early provincial congresses, an energetic leader of the committee of safety in 1776 and president of the council of safety in 1777. Van Cortlandt presided over the sessions of the convention which drafted New York's first constitution and served as the lieutenant governor of the new State from 1777 to 1795.

His son Philip was commissioned a lieutenant colonel of the 4th New York Regiment on August 4, 1775, and served for a time on Washington's staff. In 1776, he was made colonel of the 2nd New York Continental Regiment and served with distinction throughout the Revolution with this regiment. He fought in the battles of Saratoga in September-October 1777 and was at Valley Forge during the winter of 1777-78. Van Cortlandt took part in the Sullivan-Clinton expedition against the Indians in 1779 and was in command of the northern frontier defense force at Fort Edward, New York, in 1780. The following year, he was in command of the Mohawk Valley defenses,

leading the reorganized 2nd New York Continental Regiment based at Schenectady. In June 1781, with these troops, he joined Washington's army on the lower Hudson and took an active part in the campaign that culminated in the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Philip was brevetted a brigadier general in 1783. He supported the ratification of the Constitution in 1788 and was a member of Congress from 1793 to 1809, becoming an early leader of the emerging Jeffersonian party.

The manor house is a long, low-eaved two-story structure with a Flemish gambrel roof and a two-story veranda across its front and two sides. The three-foot thick walls, constructed of sandstone, are relieved by quoins and window facings comprised of narrow yellow bricks. The house is built on sloping ground so that the first floor forms a large basement on the lower level. This floor contains the kitchen, a food storage room and a large family parlor. The main family quarters were located on the second floor. Here, from the front veranda, a massive divided Dutch door leads into the central hall. To the right is the formal parlor and behind this a bedroom. To the left is located the formal dining room and beyond, a second bedroom. The house remained in the Van Cortlandt family until 1945. In 1953, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., acquired the farmhouse and 20 acres of land, and Sleepy Hollow Restorations, Inc., has carefully restored the structure. The residence is open to visitors as a historic house exhibit.

Washington's Headquarters (Hasbrouck House), New York ▲

Location: Orange County, Liberty and Washington Streets, Newburgh.
Ownership: State of New York, New York State Historic Trust, administered by the Palisades Interstate Park Commission.

None of Washington's military headquarters during the War for Independence is of greater historical significance than the Hasbrouck House at Newburgh. Arriving at Newburgh on April 1, 1782, the commander-in-chief remained at the Hasbrouck House, save for occasional brief absences, until August 19, 1783. This was a longer period than Washington spent at any other headquarters. More importantly, Washington drafted three memorable documents at his Newburgh headquarters. In these he reaffirmed the fundamental principal of subordination of the military establishment to civilian control and helped lay the foundation for the Nation's orderly transition from war to peace.

The first document was Washington's vehement rejection of the suggestion that the new nation become a monarchy, with Washington at its head. The second was his address to his officers in the "Temple" at

the nearby New Windsor army encampment on March 15, 1783. Here he effectively quelled an incipient movement provoked by the so-called Newburgh Addresses, looking toward the coercion of Congress by the army to secure settlement of officers' claims against the government prior to demobilization. Washington's third notable act at Newburgh was drafting an oft-quoted circular letter to the governors of the States, in which he outlined his views on the future development of the Nation. These views were elaborated around four cardinal points: "An undissoluble Union of the States under one Federal Head," "A sacred regard to public justice," "The adoption of a proper peace establishment," and a "pacific and friendly disposition among the peoples of the United States which will induce them to forget their local prejudices and policies, to make mutual concessions which are requisite to the general prosperity, and in some instances, to sacrifice their individual advantages to the interest of the community."



Hasbrouck House.

In addition to these statements at Newburgh, an act of some interest was the establishment of the military award, the "Order of the Purple Heart," proposed by Washington and noted in the general orders of the day, August 7, 1782. Aside from its intimate association with Washington, the Hasbrouck House has the distinction of being the first historic house preserved by a State. The State of New York obtained the property in 1850, and the building was dedicated on July 4 of that year.

The widow of Joseph Hasbrouck bought the property overlooking the Hudson River on which the headquarters building now stands, in

1749, and the next year her son, Jonathan, erected the northeast portion of the building. The southeast section was added sometime before 1770, and in that year an addition extending the length of the west wall of both earlier sections was constructed. An initialed date stone confirms the date of this last addition. The walls of all three sections are of fieldstone. The steep-roofed house contains a large seven-doored chamber, which was used by Washington as his reception and living room, two small bedrooms, parlor and kitchen on the ground floor, another bedroom on the second floor, and a spacious attic where can be seen the maze of hand-hewn timbers that support the roof. The building is the original, except the floors in the kitchen and dining rooms. Adjacent to the headquarters building is a museum offering exhibits of local historical interest as well as material relating to General and Mrs. Washington and the role of the Newburgh headquarters in the Revolution.



William Floyd Birthplace.

William Floyd Birthplace, New York ▲

Location: Suffolk County, 20 Washington Avenue, Mastic, Long Island; included as part of Fire Island National Seashore. Address: Fire Island National Seashore, P.O. Box 229, Patchogue, N.Y. 11772.

This was the birthplace and home from 1734 to 1803 of William Floyd, a wealthy landholder and signer of the Declaration of Independence for New York.

Entering politics in the late 1760's, Floyd served as a town trustee of

Brookhaven from 1769 to 1771. During 1774-77 and 1779-83, he attended the Continental Congress, rendering useful service on several committees. He was a member of the committee on clothing in 1776 and of the boards of admiralty and the treasury in 1779. From 1777 to 1787, he was also a senator in the New York legislature. On September 5, 1775, he was made a colonel in the Suffolk County militia, and, after the Revolution, rose to the rank of major general in the militia.

Floyd and his family suffered severe hardships because of his adherence to the rebel cause. When the British army occupied Long Island in August 1776, his family fled for protection to Middletown, Connecticut. In 1779, his estate was seized by the loyalists and held until the spring of 1783. On his return, Floyd found his farm destroyed and his house, which had been used as a barracks, in a shambles. After developing a large tract of land on the Mohawk River in western New York, which he had purchased in 1784, Floyd gave his Long Island holdings to his son and moved to begin a pioneering life at his wilderness home in 1803.

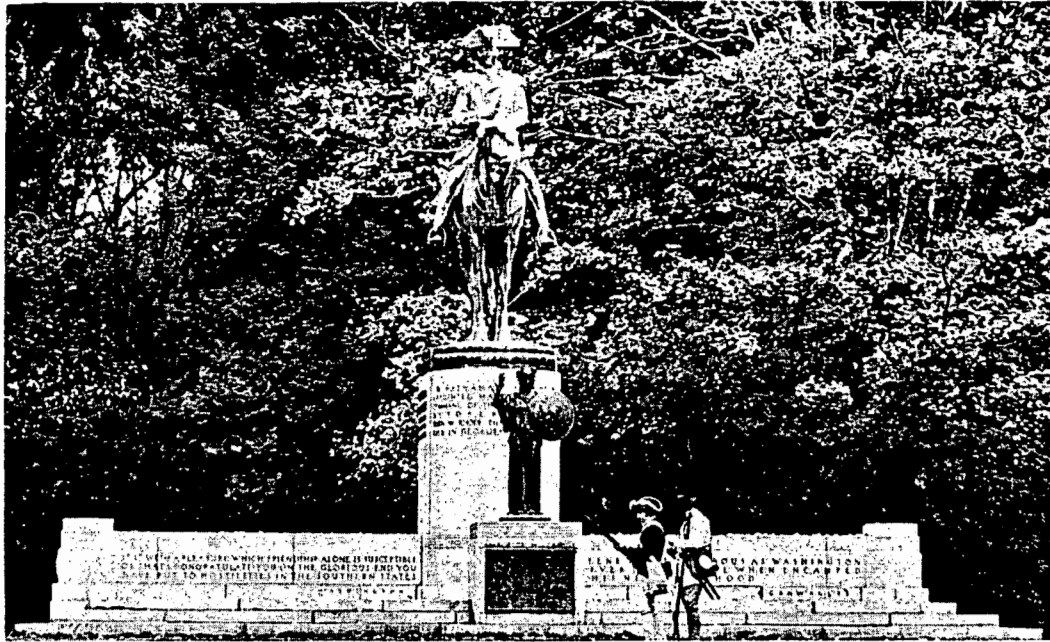
This large two-story frame Georgian farmhouse was built about 1724 on a Long Island estate originally acquired by the Floyds in 1718. Enlarged several times during the 18th century, this house has a one-and-one-half-story service wing at the east end, and two other wings, one-and-one-half and two stories respectively, projecting to the rear.

In 1965, 613 acres of this estate were given to the United States Government to form a part of Fire Island National Seashore by Floyd's descendents who retain a 25-year use lease and occupational rights to 43 acres of the estate and to the house. Thus, the home, which is furnished with many original Floyd pieces, is not open to visitors.

Guilford Courthouse National Military Park, North Carolina

Location: Guilford County, 6 miles northwest of Greensboro on U.S. 220. Address: P.O. Box 9332, Plaza Station, Greensboro, N.C. 27408.

The Battle of Guilford Courthouse, fought March 15, 1781, between 4,400 Americans under the command of General Nathaniel Greene and 2,000 British regulars led by Lord Charles Cornwallis, was a Pyrrhic victory for the British that marked the beginning of a rapid decline of British power in the Carolinas and Georgia. Using tactics devised by General Daniel Morgan at the Battle of Cowpens two months earlier, Greene drew his troops up in three lines, approximately 400 yards apart. The first two lines were comprised of North Carolina and Virginia militia and the third line of about 1,700 continentals. The first

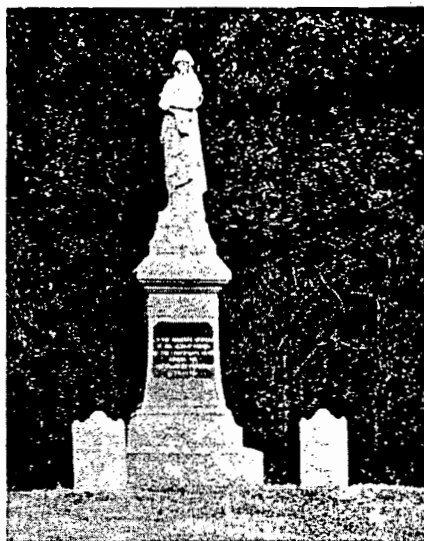


Nathaniel Greene Monument, Guilford Courthouse National Military Park.

line was to fire two rounds and then retire; the second was to hold on as long as it could then also retreat. After two hours of battle, the crack British troops finally drove in the first two lines of militia at a heavy cost to themselves. Declining to risk the destruction of his third line, the only regular American force in the south, in a gamble for complete victory, Greene withdrew his army. Cornwallis held the field, but he had paid a terrible price: more than one-fourth of his men were casualties (93 were dead and 439 were wounded) compared with Greene's casualties of 79 killed, 185 wounded, and about 150 captured.

After the battle, Cornwallis found himself almost completely destitute of supplies. His nearest magazine of food was at Wilmington, North Carolina, 200 miles away on the coast. His army was, in effect, the garrison of a besieged town. No British foraging party could safely go abroad and no provisions could come from the coast unmolested by river or land. His army now too weak to risk fighting another battle, Cornwallis, after giving his army two days rest, began a retreat to the safety of Wilmington. British power in North Carolina, outside of Wilmington, had been terminated, and Greene was even then preparing to attack British positions in South Carolina.

Guilford Courthouse National Military Park encompasses 220 acres of federally-owned land, or about one-half of the area where the battle was fought. Included within the park boundaries are a part of the first American battle line and most of the second and third American lines. British positions, from which they began the attack, lay to the west of the park boundaries.



Moore's Creek National Military Park.

Moore's Creek National Military Park, North Carolina ★

Location: Pender County, 25 miles northwest of Washington on N.C. 210. Address: Currie, N.C. 28435.

The Battle of Moore's Creek was the opening engagement of the War for Independence in the south, and is often called the "Lexington and Concord of the south." Here on February 27, 1776, a force of 1,600 loyalist militia under Brigadier General Donald McDonald attacked an American force of 1,100 men under Brigadier General James Moore, entrenched on Moore's Creek. The Americans, led into action by Richard Caswell and Alexander Lillington, threw back the loyalists on their way to rendezvous with a powerful British fleet and army under Sir Henry Clinton on the coast at Brunswick, North Carolina. Although the battle was a small action (fought in three minutes with some 50 loyalists and one American killed), it had crucial importance for the American cause. Within two weeks, Moore's force had captured most of the fleeing loyalist leaders, 850 of their men, 1,500 rifles, 350 muskets, 150 swords and about \$75,000 in gold. With the loyalist power thus crushed, Sir Henry Clinton was unable to launch his proposed invasion of North Carolina from the coast, and the North Carolina legislature was encouraged to instruct its delegation to the Continental Congress on April 12, 1776, to vote for independence—the first colony to so act.

Moore's Creek National Military Park contains 50 acres on which the engagement was fought. A self-guiding trail leads to remains of the American fortifications, cannon, field exhibits, monuments and markers which unfold the story of the battle. The bridge is reconstructed on the site of the original. A visitor center houses exhibits relating to the battle and its consequences.



Nash-Hooper House.

Nash-Hooper House, North Carolina ▲

Location: Orange County, 118 West Tryon Street, Hillsborough. Ownership: private.

Built in 1772, the Nash-Hooper House was the home of William Hooper, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for North Carolina, from 1782 until his death in 1790. Born in 1742 in Boston, the son of a clergyman, Hooper graduated from Harvard College in 1760 and studied law under James Otis. In 1764, he moved to Wilmington, North Carolina, where he quickly built up a law practice among the planters of the Lower Cape Fear area.

Entering politics in 1770, Hooper served as attorney general of the province in 1770-71. In 1773, he was elected to the assembly and remained a member of that body until the royal government was overthrown. He attended the five provincial congresses of North Carolina and was a delegate to the Continental Congress from 1775 to April 29, 1777, when he resigned and retired to "Finian," his country home on Masonboro Sound near Wilmington. His fortune depleted by his public service, Hooper began to practice law again, and from 1777-82 he served as a borough member of the North Carolina House of Commons. The impending capture of Wilmington in 1781, however, forced him to flee and to leave his family in that city for safety. His family was finally restored to him, but much of his property, including "Finian," was destroyed by the British and Hooper became seriously ill with malaria. In 1782, he moved to Hillsborough, where he purchased a house and nine acres of land. Two years later, he was again elected to the State House of Commons. When Hooper died in 1790, he was buried in the garden to the east of his home, a plot of ground which was later added to the town cemetery. His original gravestone still remains in the town

cemetery, although his ashes were removed to Guilford Courthouse Battlefield Park in 1894.

The Nash-Hooper House was built in 1772 by Francis Nash, the Revolutionary War general who was killed at the Battle of Germantown, October 4, 1777. As originally built, the house was a rectangular two-story over-elevated basement frame structure with gable roof and an exterior chimney at either end. The high foundation was built of shale, and the full cellar had two rooms and a cellar hall. The house was of braced oak frame construction and put together with pegs and pins. Alterations to the house include a one-story frame wing added to the north elevation of the main house in 1819 and a one-story porch extending across the front of the main house dating from the late 19th century.

The Nash-Hooper House has a center hall plan, with the hall extending through the structure and dividing toward the rear into two sections by means of an arch. On the first floor are a library, a study and a parlor. There are three bedrooms on the second floor, and the attic is unfinished. The house has its original wide pine board floors, but in several rooms these floors have been overlaid. The pine mantel in the dining room is original, but the other pine mantels in the house were installed between 1939 and 1959 and are period replacements of the originals.

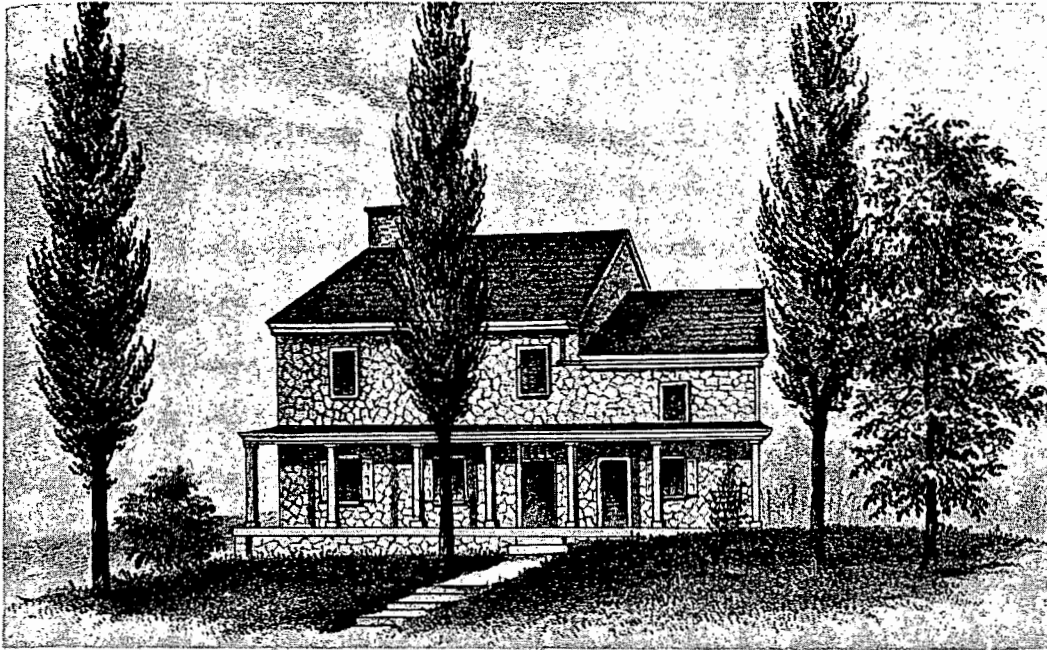
The Nash-Hooper House has never been restored and is little altered. The house is privately owned and is not open to visitors.

Brandywine Battlefield, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Chester and Delaware Counties, U.S. 1, near Chadd's Ford. Ownership: Mostly in private ownership; 50 acres are owned by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, and administered by Brandywine Battlefield Park Commission.

The Battle of Brandywine on September 11, 1777, was the only major clash of the two main armies during the campaign that ended in the British capture of Philadelphia. Although the battle was an American defeat, Washington extricated his force in good order and the continentals demonstrated their ability to withstand the determined attack of British regulars.

In the spring and early summer of 1777, Washington and Sir William Howe engaged in fruitless maneuvers in New Jersey. At the end of June, Howe moved to New York and on July 23 set sail from Sandy Hook with more than 18,000 men, bound for the American capital, Philadelphia. The British fleet sailed up Chesapeake Bay while Wash-



George Washington Headquarters, Brandywine Battlefield. Drawing by C. P. Tholey. Courtesy Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

ington moved to the south to meet Howe's advance. The American army, numbering about 16,000 men, took up a defensive position east of Brandywine Creek, its center on high ground overlooking Chadd's Ford. In this position it blocked the main road to Philadelphia, 30 miles distant. On September 11, the two armies renewed the contest they had waged from Boston to the banks of the Brandywine.

Washington deployed his army in three wings, one under his own eye at Chadd's Ford, another under General John Sullivan guarding the right flank upstream, and a small detachment covering a crossing on the left, two miles below Chadd's Ford. Instead of delivering the expected frontal attack, Howe made a wide flanking movement, as he had done at Long Island, to take Sullivan in the rear. Washington believed mistakenly that a diversionary attack in his front was the main British thrust. Only at the last minute, when Sullivan was under heavy attack, did Washington conclude that the major effort was against the right wing. General Nathanael Greene with two brigades was ordered to support the collapsing right flank. Washington and his staff galloped toward the sound of heavy firing. Greene's stout action saved the army from entrapment, but by his move to the right Washington's defenses at Chadd's Ford was weakened and he was forced to retreat. Although confused and scattered, most of the army got away and returned to Chester. Helping to restore order was the young Marquis de Lafayette, active despite a bullet wound in his leg. The Americans had about 300

men killed, 600 wounded and 400 made prisoners, while the British lost 90 killed and 480 wounded. A few days later, still between Howe and Philadelphia, Washington attempted to strike a blow at the British but was thwarted by bad weather. After further skirmishing, marked by the disastrous defeat of "Mad Anthony" Wayne's American rear guard at Paoli, Howe occupied Philadelphia on September 26. Brandywine gave no new luster to Washington's generalship, but the army's quick recovery was a tribute to both the quality of its ragged troops and its determined leadership.

Brandywine Battlefield State Park includes approximately 50 acres of rolling ground overlooking Chadd's Ford, and the main battle areas to the north and west. The main battlefield, embracing nearly 5,000 acres of land is in private ownership, but much of it remains rural and little changed since 1777. Situated within the park are the restored quarters of Lafayette and the reconstructed headquarters of Washington. Part of Lafayette's headquarters dates from the late 17th century, and the restoration today exhibits three periods of construction; the original frame structure, a mid 18th-century stone addition on the west, and the north wing, added in 1782. The park contains well maintained picnic areas and excellent roads.

Carpenters' Hall, Pennsylvania ▲

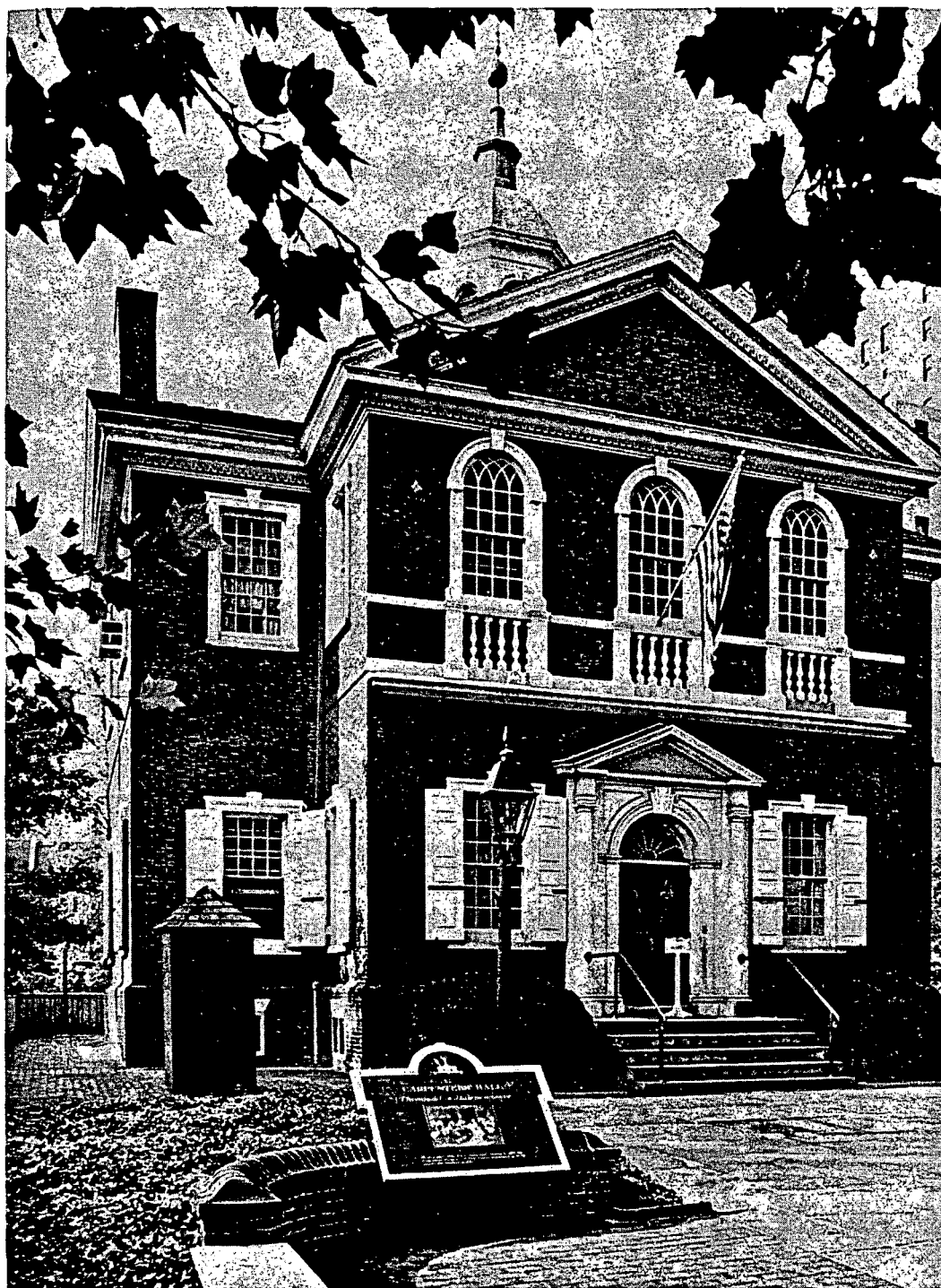
Location: Philadelphia County, 320 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.
Ownership: Carpenters' Company of Philadelphia.

Carpenter's Hall was the meeting place, September 5 to October 26, 1774, of the First Continental Congress. Erected in 1770-71, Carpenters' Hall is also one of the finest examples of late Georgian public building architecture in the United States. Designed and constructed by Robert Smith, it was built as a guild hall for a group of master builders known as the Carpenters' Company of Philadelphia. The hall is a two-story rectangular brick building with central pedimental pavilions projecting to the north and south, which give the structure a Greek cross-shaped ground plan. The brick walls are laid in Flemish bond with dark greenish-gray headers. The gable roof is crowned by a central cupola and there is a chimney located at both the east and west gable ends. The north (main) entrance facade has a broad high stone stoop, a pedimented doorway with double doors and a fanlight; and the second floor facade has three roundheaded Palladian windows set above a false balustrade that rest on a belt of white at the second floor level.

The first floor is completely occupied by a large meeting room which served as the meeting place of the First Continental Congress. The

restored building is still owned by the Carpenters' Company of Philadelphia. Located in the Independence National Historical Park area, the hall is open to visitors. The building has been used as a historical museum since 1857.

Carpenter's Hall.





Cliveden.

Cliveden (Chew House), Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Philadelphia County, 6401 Germantown Avenue between Johnson and Cliveden Streets, Germantown. Ownership: National Trust for Historical Preservation.

This fine late Georgian mansion is the most important surviving landmark of the hard-fought battle of Germantown, October 4, 1777. In this action, Washington's army narrowly missed winning a significant victory over a large contingent of the British army guarding the northwestern approaches to newly occupied Philadelphia. Although not decisive in its immediate military results, the Battle of Germantown had vast political implications. Combined with the victory at Saratoga in the same month, it proved a major influence in the consummation of the French alliance that spelled final victory for the new American Nation.

Following his victory over Washington's army at Brandywine on September 11, 1777, Gen. Sir William Howe occupied Philadelphia on September 26. He dispersed his forces to cover the city, stationing some 9,000 men in Germantown on the north, 3,000 in New Jersey, and the remainder in Philadelphia and on the supply lines into the city. Washington concluded that the situation was favorable for a blow against

the enemy at Germantown, then a small village stretching for two miles along the Skippack Road, which ran from Philadelphia to Reading. The American plan of attack called for a complicated four-column movement, resembling the earlier pincers movement against Trenton but more intricate in timing and maneuver. In the early fighting on the foggy morning of October 4, the 11,000 Americans drove the redcoats back until six British companies took refuge in the stout stone house of Chief Justice Benjamin Chew, on the outskirts of the village. They harassed the American advance from this fortress. Units of Washington's forces marched to the sound of the firing at the Chew House, throwing the carefully arranged battle plan into disorder. In the fog and smoke, American troops fired on one another and fled panic stricken from the field. The British counterattack threw them back exhausted and confused, and Washington withdrew about 25 miles to an earlier camp at Pennypacker's Mill. The Americans had 152 killed, 521 wounded and 400 captured, while British casualties numbered 70 killed and 450 wounded.

The battle had been a near loss for the British. But for the fog, and more importantly, the confusion created in the American ranks by the stubborn enemy stand at the Chew House, Germantown might have been a decisive victory for the American forces. As it was, despite their defeat, the Americans derived a significant advantage. John Adams, American commissioner to France, writing to a member of the Continental Congress about the Battles of Saratoga and Germantown, said: "General Gates was the ablest negotiator you had in Europe; and next to him General Washington's attack on the enemy at Germantown. I do not know, indeed, whether this last affair had not more influence upon the European mind than that of Saratoga. Although the attempt was unsuccessful, the military gentlemen in Europe considered it as the most decisive proof that America would finally succeed."

Affirming Adams' interpretation of the significance of Germantown, the British historian, Trevelyan, wrote: "Eminent generals and statesmen of sagacity, in every European court, were profoundly impressed . . . The French Government, in making up its mind on the question whether the Americans would prove to be efficient allies, was influenced almost as much by the Battle of Germantown as by the surrender of Burgoyne."

The two-and-one-half story mansion was built by Benjamin Chew in 1763 at Cliveden, his country estate. The house was constructed of Germantown stone quarried a short distance from the site. The front wall is built of regular ashlar graystone masonry; the other walls are of stuccoed rubble masonry grooved to resemble ashlar. The belt course, window sills and lintels are of dressed sandstone, and the lintels are grooved to simulate flat-keyed arches. The gable roof has arched

dormers with flanking scrolls, a heavy cornice with prominent modillions, and the roof is surmounted by five large urns. The house has an imposing entrance hall, brightened by windows of 24 lights and separated from the stair hall by a screen of four Doric columns. Small office rooms open on either side of the entrance hall, with the two main rooms, dining and drawing rooms, at the back. The kitchen and servant's rooms originally were in detached wings at the rear. An early barn stands at the rear of the house. Heavily damaged by cannon fire during the battle, the mansion was restored during the following year. The house remained in the possession of the Chew family until 1970, when the National Trust for Historic Preservation acquired the property. The house is open for visitors.

Fort Mifflin, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Philadelphia County, on the Delaware River, at the end of Fort Mifflin Road, Philadelphia. Ownership: City of Philadelphia.

Fort Mifflin, located on Mud Island which is now a part of the west bank of the Delaware River together with Fort Mercer on the opposite bank in New Jersey, blocked the Delaware River to British shipping in the fall of 1777. Having captured Philadelphia, the survival of the British army in that city depended upon supplies arriving by sea and coming up the river to the rebel capital. The opening of the Delaware River to the British fleet, transports and supply ships was a vital objective that proved to be a slow and costly operation, further setting back the British schedule for carrying out their military plans. The battle and siege of Fort Mifflin, November 10-16, 1777, closed the river to the passage of British military supplies until that date and thereby helped prevent General William Howe's army from concentrating on the destruction of the continental army. A small garrison of some 450 Americans under the command of Lt. Col. Sam Smith and Major Simeon Thayer held out for six days against powerful British naval and land forces before abandoning ruined Fort Mifflin. About 250 men of the American garrison were killed or wounded while British casualties amounted to seven killed and five wounded.

Fort Mifflin has survived as one of the most important examples of a late 18th-century and early 19th-century fortification with remarkably complete structures because of its out-of-the-way location and limited use after 1800. As originally conceived and begun in 1772 by the British military engineer, John Montross, Fort Mifflin was a strong masonry fortification. It was essentially a water battery built on Mud Island with its main 10-foot-high stone ashlar wall along the river bank



Fort Mifflin.

constructed in the form of a tenailed trace, a sawtoothed arrangement popular in Europe in the middle of the 18th century. Strong in front against vessels on the river, it was weak in the rear and on the north, where only ditches and palisades with four wooden blockhouses, each mounting four guns, offered means of defense.

The British attack in 1777 battered Fort Mifflin, but the strong stone lower walls have survived until today. In 1793 the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania engaged Pierre Charles L'Enfant to draw plans for its reconstruction, following a start on rebuilding in 1780. Rebuilding followed the outline of the earlier fort and completed its enclosure. Old walls were cut down to varying heights, and the new ones, faced with brick, were built up on the original walls. Some of the extant buildings inside the fort date back to this time; others were erected in the subsequent periods of development prior to the Civil War. After the Korean War, Fort Mifflin was declared surplus and the post and 84 acres of land were transferred ultimately to the City of Philadelphia.

Fort Necessity National Battlefield, Pennsylvania

Location: Fayette County, 11 miles east of Uniontown on U.S. 40.
Address: c/o Allegheny Portage Railroad National Historic Site, P.O. Box 247, Cresson, Pa. 16630.

Fort Necessity National Battlefield has been designated as a bicentennial area by the National Park Service because of the importance of the French and Indian War to the coming of the Revolution. As a re-

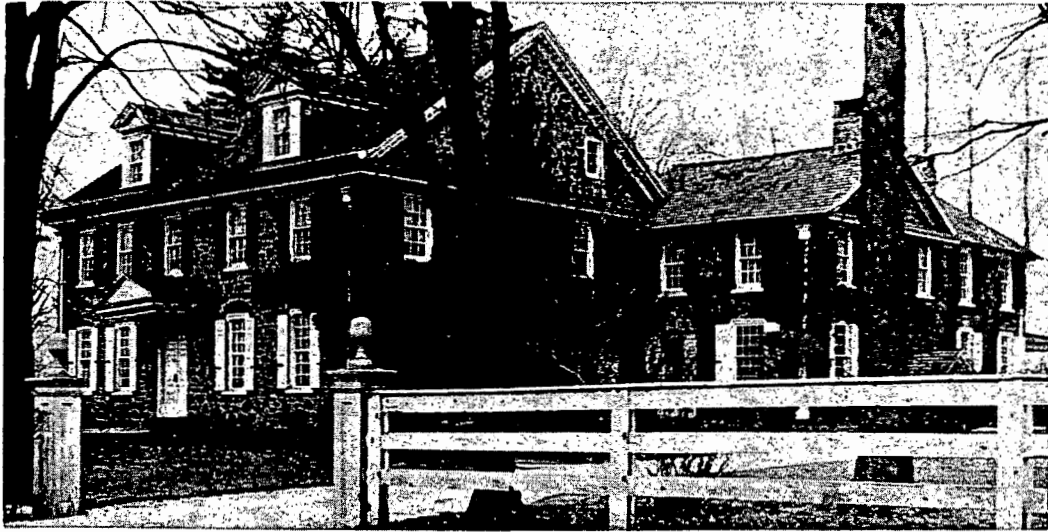


Fort Necessity.

sult of its victory over the French, Britain emerged as the possessor of all North America east of the Mississippi River, and in the long run her mainland colonies profited signally. No longer menaced by the French, they were free to expand westward in comparative security. They had gained from the war valuable military experience and a new sense of solidarity, thereby weakening their ties with the mother country.

At Fort Necessity, which consists of a rude circular palisade and cabin in the great meadows of western Pennsylvania, George Washington rose to prominence in the conflict that opened the French and Indian War. Lieutenant Colonel Washington marched westward with an army of Virginians in April 1754 to contest French possession of the forks of the Ohio, strategic site of modern Pittsburgh, where the French had built Fort Duquesne. He and his small advance guard skirmished at Great Meadows on May 24 with a French scouting party from Fort Duquesne, and drove it from the field. Washington next built Fort Necessity as a temporary defensive work. Reinforcements swelled his command to 293 officers and men, but the French attacked him on July 3 with a force more than twice this number and by nightfall had clearly won the battle. The exhausted Virginians surrendered and accepted the French terms that they should withdraw and build no more forts beyond the Alleghenies.

Visitors now see at Fort Necessity a stockade, storehouse and entrenchments faithfully reconstructed in 1954 on the exact site of the original structures. Most of Great Meadows is included in the surrounding Federal area. In the vicinity are the site of the skirmish between Washington and the French scouting party and the grave of General Edward Braddock, killed in a famous battle with the French and Indians in 1755.



Waynesborough. Courtesy Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

General Anthony Wayne House (Waynesborough), Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Chester County, 2049 Waynesborough Road, Paoli. Ownership: private.

“Mad” Anthony Wayne, a brave but impetuous brigadier general of the continental army during the War for Independence lived in “Waynesborough” from his birth in 1745 until 1791. The handsome Wayne emerged early as a leader of the American cause and was a delegate of his county in the provincial assembly that met in 1775. In January 1776, he was commissioned colonel of the 4th Pennsylvania Continental Regiment and joined Washington’s army at New York City.

During 1776 and 1778, Wayne participated in a number of significant engagements of the war, most of them ill-fated. The Battle of Germantown, in which his men became involved in battle with other elements of the continental army in a heavy morning fog, was especially ill-starred for him. This was followed on September 20, 1777, by the surprise massacre and capture of about 150 of his men by the British at Paoli in spite of warnings of the raid. After wintering with the army at Valley Forge, he led the advance attack in the Battle of Monmouth, June 28, 1778, and here found the military glory that long had eluded him.

Wayne’s military fortunes fared well in 1779 when he commanded an elite corps of continental light infantry. For his victory on July 16 at the strong British fortification overlooking the Hudson River on Stony Point, Congress ordered a medal to be struck and presented to him. The following year, his prompt action on September 25, 1780, prevented Benedict Arnold from turning over the West Point fortifica-

tions to the British. Throughout 1781-82, he fought in the South with Lafayette and later General Nathanael Greene. Just before he retired from the army in 1783, Congress breveted Wayne a major general.

“Waynesborough,” erected in five steps between 1724 and 1902, is today a large stone gable-roofed house with a U-shaped plan. The oldest part, now the left wing, was built by Anthony Wayne’s grandfather. This wing is a two-story stone structure with gable roof. Built in 1735, the center section is a two-and-one-half story stone structure with a gabled and dormered roof and two interior chimneys. The first story of the right stone wing was added in 1792 and its second story in 1860. At the rear of the right wing is the small final addition to the house, which was built in 1902.

The center section of the house is Georgian in design. First floor windows are topped by segmental stone arches, and the center door is sheltered by a pedimented hood. A center hall extends through the house and divides the four rooms on the first floor into pairs. A reconstructed stairs sets against the right wall. To the right of the hall is the blue parlor and behind this, the dining room; to the left of the hall are the green parlor, and a music room in the rear. In the left wing, which opens off the left of the music room, is a large library and a stairway. The fireplace walls in the four rooms of the center section are fully paneled. The interior paneling and trim in the blue parlor and dining room are original and that in the green parlor and music room date from a 1902 remodeling. The woodwork of the four bedrooms upstairs also dates from 1902. There are two bedrooms in the second floor of the left wing and four chambers on the third floor of the center section.

The stone walls and flooring of “Waynesborough” are original. The house was renovated and restored in 1967 by Henry A. Judd, architectural historian of the National Park Service. In excellent condition, the house is still used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

General Frederick von Steuben’s Headquarters, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Route 23, Valley Forge State Park. Ownership: Valley Forge Park Commission, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

Built as a tavern and also used as a military hospital, this structure served as the headquarters of Major General Frederick von Steuben, inspector general and “drill master” at Valley Forge during the period February to June 1778 when von Steuben made his greatest contribution of the American cause—the remolding and training of the continental army.



General Von Steuben's Headquarters.

Born in Prussia in 1730, Frederick von Steuben entered the officer corps of the Prussian army at the age of 17. Rising to the rank of captain, he served at the royal headquarters as a general staff officer and as one of the aide-de-camps to Frederick the Great. Thus, he brought to Washington's staff a technical training that was unknown in either the British or French armies at that time.

Von Steuben appeared before Congress in February 1778 with letters of introduction from Beaumarchais, Benjamin Franklin and Silas Deane. Impressed by his credentials and his offer of his services without pay, Congress accepted and von Steuben reported to Washington at Valley Forge on February 23. Washington appointed him acting inspector general and directed him to undertake the training of the army, a task that involved serious difficulties, since the Baron spoke no English. He wrote a drill manual in French, which was then translated into English. A model company of 100 selected men undertook to execute the drill prescribed. The rapid progress of this company under his skilled instruction made an immediate appeal to the imagination of the army. Beginning on March 24, drill became the fashion and spread throughout the army. The Baron's success was so rapid that on April 30 Washington recommended his appointment

as inspector general with the rank of major general. The value of von Steuben's instruction was soon manifested on the battlefield of Monmouth, June 28, 1778. At that encounter and thereafter throughout the war, the main continental army proved itself, battalion for battalion, the equal in discipline and skill with the best British regular units.

In the autumn of 1780, when Nathanael Green was sent to take charge of the defeated southern army, Washington sent von Steuben along to assist in reorganizing that shattered force. The following year when Washington's army assembled before Yorktown, von Steuben was assigned to command one of the three divisions making up this force and served in that capacity during the siege. Von Steuben was honorably discharged from the army on April 15, 1784, and he became an American citizen, by act of the New York legislature, in July 1786.

General von Steuben's Headquarters is a rectangular, two-story stone structure, with gable roof and three end chimneys. Owned by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the headquarters was restored in 1965 and is open to visitors as a part of Valley Forge State Park.

George Taylor House, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Lehigh County, Front Street, Catasauqua. Ownership: Lehigh County Historical Society.

Built by Philadelphia carpenters in 1768, this Georgian stone house was the home from 1768 to 1776 of George Taylor, an ironmaster and signer of the Declaration of Independence for Pennsylvania. This little-altered house has been carefully restored and is in excellent condition.

Born in 1716 in northern Ireland, George Taylor came to Pennsylvania as an indentured servant in 1736. He was put to work as a clerk at the Warwick iron furnace and coventry forge in Chester County, and by 1739 had become manager of this 1,796-acre plantation. About 1757 Taylor moved to the Durham furnace in Bucks County which he and a partner leased. From 1757 to 1778, his business interests were largely centered on the 8,511-acre Durham plantation, which was located about 10 miles south of Easton.

After 1763, however, Taylor lived much of the time near Easton, which became the scene of his political activities. He was a member of the Pennsylvania assembly in 1764-70, and in July 1775 was elected a colonel in the Bucks County militia. Sent to the Pennsylvania assembly in October 1775, he helped draft instructions to delegates to the Continental Congress. On July 20, 1776, Taylor was appointed to



George Taylor House.

the Continental Congress with Clymer, Ross, Rush and Smith to replace the Pennsylvania delegates who refused to sign the Declaration of Independence. Taylor signed the engrossed copy of that document but took no other part in the activities of Congress, except to represent it, with George Walton, at a conference with Indians at Easton in January 1777. Two months later, he was elected to the new Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania, but because of illness he served only six weeks and then retired from active political life. During 1775-79, Taylor was involved in the production at the Durham furnace of grape shot, cannon balls, bar shot and cannon for the American armies. In 1778, he was dispossessed of his lease of the furnace, which had been owned by the Philadelphia loyalist John Galloway, by the commissioner of forfeited estates. Taylor then leased the forge in Greenwich Township, New Jersey, which he operated until his death in 1781.

In 1767 Taylor purchased a 331-acre tract of land called the "Manor of Chawton," in what is now a part of Catasauqua. Here, on the east bank of the Lehigh River, he built a home the following year. After his wife died, he leased most of the land out as a farm and in 1776 sold the house and land to John Benezet, a Philadelphia merchant.

The George Taylor House is a two-story Georgian stone house elevated over a basement with symmetrically paired brick end-chimneys and a gable roof with flattened ridge. The walls, 24 inches thick, are of stone masonry rubble and finished with a thick slaked-line stucco that gives the house its white appearance. The windows are topped by flat arches of gauged brick; those on the first story are adorned by exterior solid panelled shutters and the openings on the upper floor have louvered blinds. A heavy overhanging cornice runs completely around

the structure at eave level. The two-story stone kitchen wing which adjoins the main house at the south end was built about 1800.

A flight of marble pyramidal steps leads up to the center door in the main facade. Topped by a rectangular transom and a triangular pediment, the double door opens into a central hall that extends through the house. The hall, which divides the four first-floor rooms into pairs, is divided near midpoint by means of an archway with fluted pilasters. Doors in the parlor, living room and dining room are topped by finely executed pediments and their fireplace walls are fully paneled. Other walls in these rooms have paneled wainscots and finely detailed chair rails. The dining room fireplace paneling and mantel date from the early 19th century and are of the Greek revival period, but the other first-floor paneling and mantels are original. The floors of wide pine boards are original as is most of the iron hardware. The second floor contains four bedrooms, two of which have almost as elaborate paneling on their fireplaces as those downstairs. A short distance to the rear of the house is a one-and-one-half-story brick summer kitchen which was built around 1850.

The George Taylor House and five acres of land were acquired by the Lehigh County Historical Society in 1945. Carefully restored in 1966-68, the house is open to visitors as a historic house exhibit.

Hopewell Village National Historic Site, Pennsylvania

Location: Berks County, 5 miles south of Birdsboro. Address: R.D. 1, Box 315, Elverson, Pa., 19520.

Hopewell Village is a symbol of industrial enterprise in colonial America. Though not among the first ironworks built by the Pennsylvania ironmasters, it is today one of the oldest ironworks standing in this country. The buildings of the village and the restored furnace are one of the best preserved examples of the ironmaking villages that dotted the colonies during the 18th century.

Hopewell Village was founded in 1770 by ironmaster Mark Bird to supply cast iron for his forges at Birdsboro five miles away. The vicinity afforded an abundance of iron ore, hardwood for charcoal and labor. The undertaking prospered, and Hopewell became the thriving center of a larger community. The ironmakers supplied Washington's army with cannon and shot during the Revolution, and Bird himself served in the field as a colonel of militia. The village and its industry continued to expand after the war and, passing through a succession of owners, turned out iron products until new industrial techniques after the Civil War made it obsolete.

Although the buildings deteriorated thereafter, they remained basically sound. In 1935 the Federal government acquired the site, now 848 acres, and since 1950 has been carrying out a program of restoring the historic structures to their 19th-century appearance. Today the restored ironmaster's house, charcoal house, furnace, blacksmith shop, office-store, and barn of Hopewell Village provide an outstanding illustration of an early American industrial community.

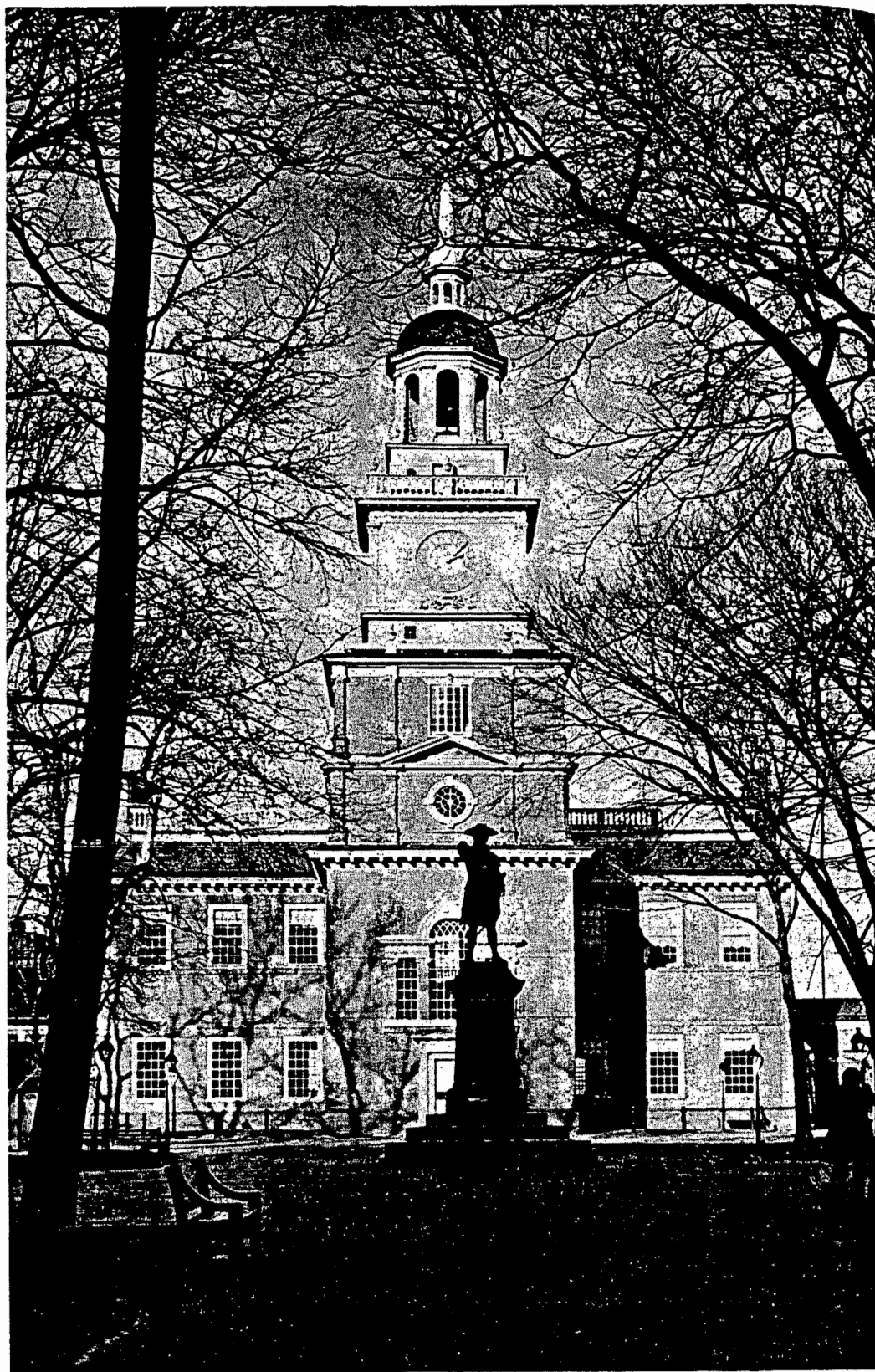


Hopewell Village National Historic Site.

Independence National Historical Park, Pennsylvania

Location: Philadelphia County, between Second and Sixth, Chestnut and Walnut Streets, plus detached areas, Philadelphia. Address: 313 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19106.

Independence Hall is the heart of Independence National Historical Park. It was originally the statehouse for the colony of Pennsylvania, built beginning in 1732. The Liberty Bell, displayed here, was ordered from England in 1751, and its famous "Proclaim Liberty" inscription was intended as a 50th anniversary memorial to William Penn's Charter of Privileges of 1701. The Second Continental Congress convened in Independence Hall beginning May 10, 1775, and took the crucial steps which transformed a protest movement into a resistance



Independence Hall National Historical Park.

and independence movement. Fighting had already broken out in Massachusetts when this Congress met, and they chose George Washington to be general and commander-in-chief of the continental army on June 15, 1775. He delivered his acceptance in Independence Hall. Next year, on July 2, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by Congress meeting here. It was written largely by Thomas Jefferson and stands as perhaps the finest statement of democratic rights and principles ever written, and the basis of the free government of the United States throughout its history.

During the War for Independence and the ensuing period under the Articles of Confederation, Congress met in various towns and cities, but Philadelphia remained the chief city of the United States. Thus, beginning on May 25, 1787, the Constitutional Convention met here under Washington, as president of the convention. Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and other eminent leaders made up the convention, which labored for four months and produced the Constitution which, with amendments, continues today as the supreme law of the land. The meetings were held in strictest secrecy and the results submitted to every State for ratification. The city of Philadelphia purchased Independence Hall from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in 1818, and thus took the first step to preserve it and surrounding structures for posterity.

Independence Hall was designed by the lawyer Andrew Hamilton. Construction began in 1732 under the supervision of the master carpenter Edmund Wooley. In 1736, the assembly moved into the statehouse, which was not fully completed until 1756.

Stately and symmetrical, Independence Hall, a two-and-one-half-story red brick structure that has been carefully restored, is the most beautiful 18th-century public building of Georgian design in the United States. The tall bell tower, reconstructed along the original lines in 1828 by architect William Strickland, dominates the south facade. Smaller two-story, hip-roofed brick wings, erected in 1736 and 1739 and restored in 1897-98, are connected to the main building by arcades.

The interior focus of interest in Independence Hall is the Assembly Room, the eastern one on the first floor, where the Declaration of Independence and Constitution were signed. Twin-segmental-arched fireplaces along the east wall flank the speaker's dais. Massive fluted pilasters raised on pedestals adorn the paneled east wall. The three other walls are plastered. A heavy Roman Doric entablature borders the plaster ceiling. The furniture arrangement at the time of the Continental Congress has been duplicated. The only original furnishings are the "rising sun" chair and the silver inkstand with quill box and shaker used by the signers of the Declaration and Constitution.

The other large room on the ground floor, where the U.S. Supreme Court held several sessions in 1791 and again in 1796, housed the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania and later other state and local courts. The paneled walls are decorated with massive fluted pilasters of the Roman Doric order. The center hall between this room and the Assembly Room is richly adorned with a Roman Doric order of columns and entablature. On the second floor are the Long Room, the Governor's Council Chamber and the Committee Room. These are furnished to represent the activities of the Pennsylvania legislature and government prior to 1775.

Independence National Historical Park includes a number of other historic structures in addition to Independence Hall. Those in the Independence Hall group are owned by the city of Philadelphia and administered by the National Park Service; some others are owned and occupied by various associations. Carpenters' Hall is among the most important of the latter. It was built in 1770 as a guild hall for the Carpenters' Company of Philadelphia, and was the scene of action for the First Continental Congress in 1774.

The structures most closely associated with Independence Hall are on Independence Square. The former County Court Building is on the west, the Old City Hall on the east, with the American Philosophical Society Building (Philosophical Hall) next to it. All but Old City Hall were completed before 1790, when Philadelphia became the Federal capital. During this period, the court house became known as Congress Hall because Congress sat there and, similarly, the city hall in 1791 became the Supreme Court Building. Philosophical Hall is not open to the public. It is still the headquarters of the American Philosophical Society, founded in 1743 by Benjamin Franklin, the oldest society of its kind in the United States. Its library is in Library Hall, on Fifth Street, a reconstruction of the original home of the Library Company of Philadelphia, which was built in 1789-90.

Other features of, or associated with, Independence National Historical Park include: The First Bank of the United States, erected in 1795-97 and believed to be the oldest bank building in the United States; The Second Bank of the United States, an early Greek revival building constructed in 1819-24; the Philadelphia Exchange, designed by William Strickland and erected between 1832 and 1834; the Bishop White House, built in 1786-87 and home of the Rt. Rev. William White, "the father of the American Protestant Episcopal Church;" the Dilworth-Todd-Moylan House, built in 1776 by Jonathan Dilworth and later owned by John Todd, Jr., first husband of Dolly Payne Madison, and then by General Stephen Moylan who had served on Washington's staff during the American Revolution; Franklin Court, site of Benjamin Franklin's home between 1765 and 1790; the

reconstructed New Hall, the original of which served as the office of the war department, 1791-92, now serving as a museum on the early history of the United States Marine Corps; Christ Church (1727-54) and Cemetery, where Benjamin Franklin and seven signers of the Declaration of Independence are buried; St. Joseph's Church, 1838, on the site of the first Roman Catholic Church in Philadelphia; St. Mary's Church, established in 1763 and beside which is buried Commodore John Barry, sometimes known as the "Father of the American Navy;" the Deshler-Morris House, 5442 Germantown Avenue, built in 1772-73 and President Washington's summer home in 1793-94; St. George's Church, 1769, the oldest surviving Methodist Church in the United States; and Mikveh Israel Cemetery, established in 1738 and burial place of Haum Salomon, a prominent financier of the American Revolution.

Mount Pleasant, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Philadelphia County, Fairmount Park between East River Drive and Columbia Avenue entrance, Philadelphia. Ownership: City of Philadelphia, administered by Philadelphia Museum of Art.

Situated on a hilltop overlooking the Schuylkill River, Mount Pleasant is one of the most important of the distinctive homes in Philadelphia's Fairmount Park. It is an outstanding architectural example of a symmetrical late Georgian composition of three units, and it was also the home from 1779-80 of Major General Benedict Arnold, one of the finest combat officers of the continental army, and after 1780, America's most infamous traitor. Arnold, then the commanding officer of the Philadelphia garrison, bought the house in 1779 on the occasion of his marriage, little more than a year before his attempted betrayal of West Point. The house was later confiscated and Arnold's possessions sold publicly. The mansion was leased for a short time to Frederick von Steuben and eventually came into the possession of General Jonathan Williams of Boston. It remained in the Williams family until it became the property of the city of Philadelphia in 1868.

Built by John MacPherson in 1761-62, Mount Pleasant is an opulent mansion constructed of rubble masonry coated with stucco that is scored to resemble dressed-stone masonry. The hilltop location, its six-foot hewn-stone basement, its 12-foot ceilings, and high, hipped roof with balustraded deck, combine to impart a lofty appearance to the main two-and-one-half story house that is in keeping with the elaborate design. The north and south walls are windowless, relieved only by the brick belt course that extends around the house. Pavilions on the east and west sides frame arched doorways, above which are the



Mount Pleasant.

Palladian windows opening onto each end of the second-floor hall. The first floor consists of a large central hall that extends through the house, serving both east and west entrances. The stairway rises from a small separate hall at the southeast corner, and the southwest corner is occupied by a large dining room. The north room on the first floor is a large parlor extending across the end of the house. In the middle of the north wall is a chimney piece almost eight feet wide, flanked by pedimented doors set, curiously, against the solid wall behind them. The three second floor chambers are especially notable for their design and workmanship, most evident in the scrolled ornamentation and arched cupboard doors in the great chamber on the southwest corner. The two flanking outbuildings, located on either side of the main house, are also two-and-one-half stories high, hip roofed and correspond with it in the Georgian style of construction. Acquired by the city of Philadelphia in 1868 and restored in 1925, the house has been furnished handsomely in period style by the Philadelphia Museum of Art, and is maintained by this institution as an outstanding survivor of 18th-century Philadelphia.



Summerseat.

Summerseat, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Bucks County, Clymer Street and Morris Avenue, Morrisville. Ownership: Morrisville School District.

Summerseat was from 1806 to 1813 the home of George Clymer, a successful merchant who signed the Declaration of Independence for Pennsylvania. The Georgian house was restored in the 1930's and is used for public school purposes.

An orphan at the age of one year, Clymer was raised by his uncle, William Coleman, a prosperous Philadelphia merchant. Clymer became an enterprising merchant in his own right and entered politics about 1773, ardently advocating the American cause. Appointed to the Continental Congress on July 20, 1776, with Rush, Smith, Ross and Taylor to replace the Pennsylvania delegates who refused to sign the Declaration, Clymer, though not present when it was adopted, realized "his dearest wish" when he signed the document for he had been among the first to advocate complete independence.

Clymer served in the Continental Congress during 1776-78 and 1780-82 where he acted as one of the two first treasurers and sat on many special and standing committees. In September 1776, he was commissioned, with Richard Stockton of New Jersey, to inspect and report on the northern army at Fort Ticonderoga, New York. The following year, he served on the boards of war and of the treasury, and on the committee to protect Philadelphia. He worked so hard at these tasks that after three months he was obliged, temporarily, to retire. His report on a mission to Fort Pitt in 1777-78 led Congress to organize an expedition against Detroit. In September 1777, following

the Battle of Brandywine, the victorious British army ransacked his home in Chester County, where he had removed his family for reasons of safety, on a detour in their march to capture Philadelphia.

During the period 1784-88, Clymer was a member of the Pennsylvania assembly, where he advocated reforms in the penal code and the public employment of convicts. In 1787 he was an influential delegate to the Constitutional Convention and signed the document, later becoming a member of the first United States Congress. After one term, President Washington appointed him as head of the excise tax department of Pennsylvania and then as a commissioner to the Cherokee and Creek Indians in Georgia, for the purpose of negotiating a treaty with them. Retiring from public service in 1796, Clymer acquired Summerseat ten years later. Here he died in 1813 and was buried in the Friends Meeting House Cemetery, located across the Delaware River from Morrisville.

Built in the 1770's for Thomas Barclay, a Philadelphia merchant, Summerseat is a two-story brick and stone Georgian structure built over an elevated basement. The wall of the front facade is of brick, the end walls are covered with cement and the rear wall is of field stone. First and second story windows on the main facade are topped by flat arches of gauged brick; windows on both stories of the rear elevation and of the basement on all elevations have segmental arches of gauged bricks.

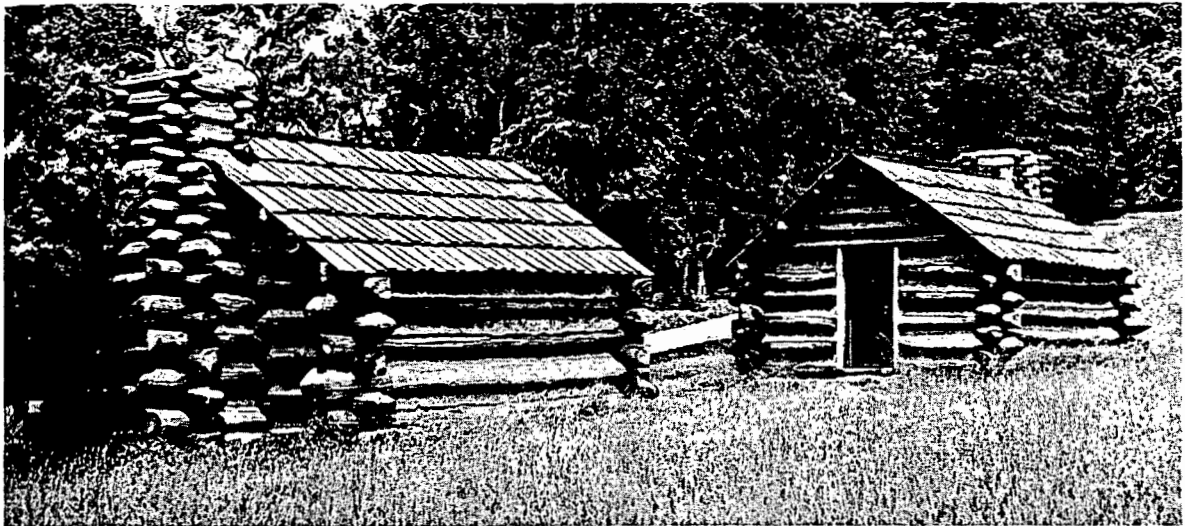
The center door in the front facade is topped by a rectangular transom and a triangular pediment. This entrance opens into a central hall that runs through the house to the rear. The four rooms on each floor, each with their own fireplace, are divided into pairs by means of the two central halls.

The structure was restored in 1931 and renovated for use as a school administrative building in 1935. The walls, floor and some of the woodwork appear to be original. The building is in good condition and is still used for educational purposes.

Valley Forge, Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Montgomery and Chester Counties, Port Kennedy, off Valley Forge interchange of Pennsylvania Turnpike. Ownership: Valley Forge Park Commission, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

No name in American history conveys more of suffering, sacrifice and triumph than Valley Forge. Washington's ragged, hungry troops staggered into the camp on December 19, 1777, the wreckage of a defeated army. They endured a bitterly cold and uncomfortable winter, but



Reconstructed soldiers' huts, Valley Forge State Park. Courtesy Montgomery County Convention and Tourist Bureau.

emerged as a trained army. The military training and discipline imposed at Valley Forge created a force that would meet the enemy on equal terms from then on, and at last defeat him.

Washington's 11,000 exhausted troops were mostly unfit for service when he took them into winter quarters at Valley Forge. They had experienced a series of fruitless marches and costly skirmishes, capped by defeat at Brandywine and failure at Germantown. From this camp, named for a small iron mill on Valley Creek which the British had destroyed, the army could defend itself and also observe the approaches to Philadelphia. Approximately 900 log huts were raised, and fortifications were thrown up to protect the camp and command nearby roads and rivers. The soldiers were not permitted to huddle in their cabins, but were rigorously drilled and disciplined by Baron Frederick von Steuben, who, even if he magnified his European rank and title, was nevertheless a drillmaster of surpassing skill. When spring came the army was ready for the field as never before, and at Monmouth on June 28, 1778, it made its debut as a skilled force able to meet and defeat British regulars in open combat.

Valley Forge State Park embraces approximately 2,255 acres of the 3,500-acre encampment site. The State park includes extensive remains and reconstructions of major forts, lines of earthworks, the artillery park, Washington's headquarters, quarters of other generals and the grand parade ground, where von Steuben rebuilt the army and where news of the French alliance was announced on May 6, 1778. The Mount Joy observation tower affords a comprehensive view of the campsite and the countryside it was designed to command. A dominant feature of the park is the massive National Memorial Arch bearing on

one face the inscription: "Naked and starving as they are, we cannot enough admire the incomparable patience and fidelity of the soldiery — Washington at Valley Forge, February 16, 1778." The Washington Memorial Museum, maintained by the Valley Forge Historical Society, contains thousands of relics, including Washington's field tent. Adjacent to the museum are the striking Washington Memorial Chapel and the Valley Forge Memorial Bell Tower. Reconstructed huts, handsome memorials, monuments and markers tell the story of the men who wrote at Valley Forge an imperishable chapter in the story of America's struggle for independence.

Washington's Headquarters (Isaac Potts House), Pennsylvania ▲

Location: Valley Creek Road, Valley Forge State Park. Ownership: Valley Forge Park Commission, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

This farmhouse, built by Isaac Potts in 1758, was the headquarters of George Washington from Christmas Eve 1777 to June 18, 1778, during the period when the continental army was encamped at Valley Forge. Washington's ragged, hungry troops, the wreckage of an army that had been defeated at Brandywine and Germantown, staggered into a winter encampment at Valley Forge on December 19, 1777. Here they endured a bitterly cold and uncomfortable winter. During this critical period, the American army almost vanished, but Washington proved equal to the emergency. His integrity, unflinching courage and dogged determination inspired his men with confidence and made ultimate victory possible. Washington understood that while he had an army in the field, the American cause was not lost. The following June the nucleus of a well-trained and disciplined army capable of meeting the British on equal terms emerged from Valley Forge.

The Potts House is an excellent example of a small colonial house with a plain early Georgian exterior and an elaborate late Georgian interior. A two-story, four-room structure with a gabled roof, it is constructed of cut graystone. The house has two chimneys at one end and a small one-and-one-half-story service wing at the opposite end. Pent eaves extend across the gable ends of the main house at the third floor level. First-floor windows are adorned by paneled shutters and have flat gauged stone arches over them, while the foreshortened second-story windows are decorated by louvered shutters. Stone steps lead up to a small stone stoop before the entranceway, which is sheltered by a small domed hood over the door.

An interior hall along the north wall extends entirely through the house to a door in the rear, and this passage also contains the stairway

leading to the second floor. On the first floor are the living room in front and the dining room in back. Two bedrooms comprise the second floor. The rooms have fine Georgian paneling of advanced design, wide fireplaces and wrought iron hardware. The restored house is largely original. Owned by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the Potts House is open to visitors as a part of Valley Forge State Park.



Potts House (Washington's Headquarters).

General Nathanael Greene Homestead, Rhode Island ▲

Location: Kent County, 20 Taft Street, Anthony. Ownership: Nathanael Greene Homestead Association, Inc.

Nathanael Greene, with the possible exception of Benedict Arnold, was perhaps the greatest military genius produced by the War for Independence. Appointed a brigadier general of the Rhode Island militia in May 1775, Greene became a brigadier in the continental army in June and served with Washington during the siege of Boston, 1775-76. In May 1776, Washington placed Greene in command of the defenses of Brooklyn, and in August Greene was promoted to the rank of major general. He participated in the victory at Trenton, December 26, 1776, and the Battle of Princeton, January 3, 1777.

During the summer of 1777 when Howe moved on Philadelphia, Greene's skillful disposition of his troops in supporting the right wing of Washington's army in the Battle of Brandywine, September 11, 1777, saved the American army from more serious losses than the 1,000 casualties suffered that day. In deference to Washington's wishes, Greene served as quartermaster general from March 2, 1778, to August 3, 1780. Through his efforts, the supply situation of the continental army improved during this period. He assumed line command of troops in the Battle of Monmouth and took part in the siege of Newport and the Battle of Rhode Island.

On October 6, 1780, Washington selected Greene, who was then stationed at West Point, to command the southern army. In December, Greene assumed command of General Horatio Gates' starving troops in North Carolina and began his campaign to eliminate British power in the south. By July 1781, the Americans had regained control of North Carolina (except for Wilmington), Georgia (except Savannah), and South Carolina (except Charleston). Although Cornwallis surrendered his army at Yorktown on October 19, 1781, the war was not over. Greene was obliged to exert heroic measures to keep his army together to besiege Charleston for another year, as the British did not evacuate that city until December 14, 1782.

Designed and built by Nathanael Greene on a 2,000-acre tract in 1774, the Nathanael Greene Homestead is a two-story, rectangular frame farmhouse with gable roof, two interior brick chimneys and clapboarded walls. Set on a foundation of random, sandy-brown granite ashlar, the house overlooks the Pawtuxet River. The center door in the east facade is topped by a rectangular transom and flanked by fluted pilasters which support a triangular pediment carved with dentils and a fan motif.

A center hall extends through the house and divides the first floor rooms into pairs. A fine stair, with three turned balusters to a step, is set against the right wall and rises in two runs. To the right of the hall are the library, where Greene kept his collection of nearly 300 volumes, and the kitchen. To the left of the hall are the parlor and dining room. The fireplace walls in all but the kitchen are paneled. There are four bedrooms on the second floor; the six rooms in the attic date from the early 20th century when the building was used as an apartment house. The original interior of the first two floors, however, remains intact, and the hardware is believed to have been forged nearby at the Greene family iron works.

In the fall of 1783, Nathanael Greene moved his family from this house to Newport and resided there for two years before moving to Georgia. The general sold this house to his brother, Jacob Greene, in 1783, and the structure remained in the Greene family until 1899.

The building gradually fell into decay until it was purchased by the Nathanael Greene Homestead Association in 1919. The home has been restored and is open to visitors.



General Nathanael Greene House.

Old State House (Old Colony House), Rhode Island ▲

Location: Newport County, Washington Square, Newport. Ownership: State of Rhode Island.

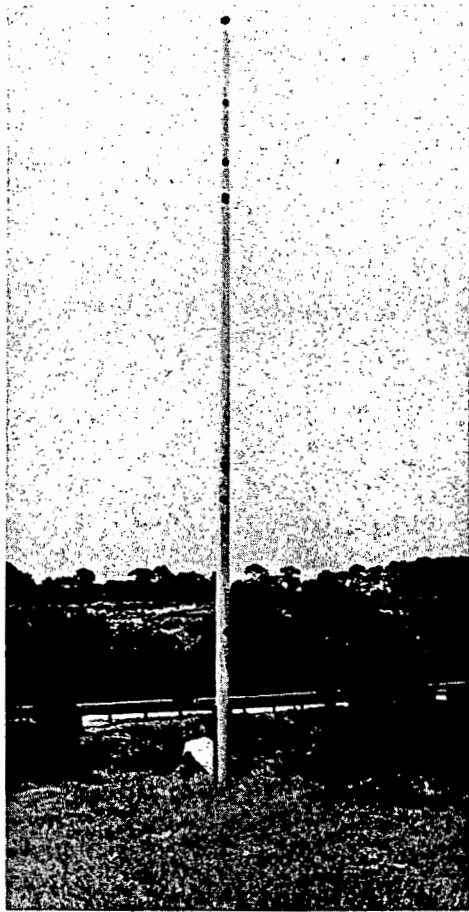
The Old State House is probably the finest and least altered example of early Georgian public building architecture in the United States. Designed by Richard Munday, the building was erected in 1739-41 to house the general assembly of the colony of Rhode Island, and it served also as a center for public meetings and religious and social functions. The death of George II, the succession of George III and the colony's acceptance of the Declaration of Independence were among the momentous events proclaimed from the second-floor balcony. During the Revolution the Old State House served as a hospital for British and later French forces quartered in Newport. When George



Old State House. Courtesy Preservation Society of Newport County.

Washington came to Newport to visit the newly arrived French Army, a banquet was held in the great hall on the first floor. The May sessions of the Rhode Island legislature were held in the Old State House from 1790 until the dedication of the New State House in Providence in 1900.

The Old State House is a rectangular two-and-one-half-story brick building, resting on a granite masonry basement. The gabled roof, cut off to form a flat deck at its peak, is surmounted by a two-story octagonal cupola. The small paned windows are topped by segmental arches with prominent sandstone keystones, a shape repeated in the upward curves of the four pedimented dormer windows. The dominant feature of the seven-bay-wide main facade is the central unit combining doorway and balcony. The balcony doors are topped by a broken segmental pediment. The interior consists of a large room (40 by 80 feet) on the first floor with a row of square Doric columns running down the middle. The second floor contains three rooms: the Governor's Council at the south end, the Chamber of Deputies at the north end and a wide hallway in the center. The Old State House was partially restored in 1917 under the direction of Norman M. Isham and is today a public monument.



NAACP Monument, Battle of Rhode Island

Site of the Battle of Rhode Island, Rhode Island

Location: Newport County, Portsmouth. Ownership: private.

The Battle of Rhode Island, August 29, 1778, climaxed the first Franco-American effort at military cooperation during the War for Independence. It was also the only engagement in the Revolutionary War in which black Americans participated as a distinct racial group. Led by Major Samuel Ward, the First Rhode Island Regiment was an all-black unit, comprised of some 125 blacks of whom over 30 were free men, that had been raised and trained in Rhode Island early in 1778. With less than three months' training, the black soldiers had joined Major General John Sullivan's army in Providence in an effort to capture the 6,000-man British garrison at Newport.

The first French force, a fleet of 16 vessels and 4,000 soldiers under the command of Admiral Count d'Estaing, acting under the Franco-American alliance arrived off New York City in July 1778. Washington and d'Estaing decided to move against Rhode Island, where the destruction of a small British squadron might open the way to the capture of the British garrison under the command of Major General

Sir Robert Pigot at Newport. The French fleet appeared off Newport on July 29, and Major General John Sullivan, commanding the American forces at Providence, gathered a 8,200-man force by August 5 for the cooperative venture.

On August 10, the French fleet engaged a British squadron from New York City commanded by Lord Richard Howe. As the two fleets maneuvered for position, a storm scattered and damaged the ships. D'Estaing immediately retired to Boston to refit his vessels, thereby ending the first Franco-American attempt at military cooperation.

Discouraged by the defection of the French allies, Sullivan's problem now was to get his entire army safely off the northern end of Rhode Island which he had occupied on August 9 before being cut off by a British fleet. During the night of August 28, the American retreat began and Sullivan reached the high ground around Fort Butts where his men took position in lines which had originally been built by the British in 1777. The British force under Pigot attempted to carry Butts' Hill in several assaults, but each time the Americans repulsed them with heavy losses.

On August 30 both armies retained their positions. Sullivan, however, had good cause to refrain from another engagement, for on that morning he received a letter from Washington informing him that Lord Howe with 5,000 reinforcements had sailed from New York City. That night the entire American force crossed the channel to the mainland in flat bottomed boats without the loss of a man. The 1778 campaign in Rhode Island ended in a stalemate with the situation unchanged.

For the next two years, the black regiment which suffered 22 casualties in the battle, was stationed at various points around Narragansett Bay. By 1781, when it participated in the Yorktown campaign, it was no longer composed entirely of blacks. Although the soldiers acquitted themselves well, a law passed by the Rhode Island legislature on June 10, 1778, prohibiting the enlistment of black soldiers remained in effect. Rhode Island's slave holding members of the general assembly were in the majority, and the critical situation of 1776-78 which had led to the formation of the black regiment was alleviated when the British army withdrew from Newport on October 25, 1779.

Located on the 200-foot-high summit of Butts Hill, Fort Butts is a large star fort with well-preserved enbankments, bastions, dry ditches and ravelins. The earthen walls are some 30 feet thick at the base and rise in many places to a height of 20 feet. Now a town park of about two acres, the fort provides a commanding view of the island in all directions and particularly of the battlefield, which lies in a valley immediately to the southwest.



Governor Stephen Hopkins House.

Governor Stephen Hopkins House, Rhode Island ▲

Location: Providence County, 15 Hopkins Street at Benefit Street, Providence. Ownership: State of Rhode Island, administered by the National Society of Colonial Dames of America.

This house was the residence from 1742 to 1785 of Stephen Hopkins, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Rhode Island. Here Hopkins lived throughout most of his active political life.

A farmer and surveyor, Hopkins became the moderator of the first town meeting of Scituate in 1731 when that town was set off from Providence. The following year he became town clerk and in 1735 president of the town council. With the exception of 1734, he represented Scituate in the Rhode Island general assembly from 1732-38. He was again elected assemblyman in 1741, and the next year he became speaker. In 1736, he was chosen one of the justices of the court of common pleas for Providence County, as well as justice of the peace, and in 1741 became clerk of the court of common pleas. About 1740, he joined his merchant brother in his commercial ventures, and in 1742

Hopkins moved to Providence, where he resided for the rest of his life.

Hopkins again served in the general assembly from 1744 to 1752. During this period, he held the position of assistant justice of the Rhode Island superior court (1747-49), and was appointed chief justice in 1751, serving in this capacity until 1755. From 1755 to 1757 he was royal governor of Rhode Island. Hopkins attended the general colonial congresses of 1754, 1755 and 1757, where he favored a union of the English colonies.

From 1770 to 1775, Hopkins was a member of the Rhode Island general assembly and chief justice of the superior court of the colony. He was a delegate to the Continental Congress from 1774-76, but was compelled to return home in September 1776 because of declining health. Nevertheless, he remained active in the American cause, serving as a Rhode Island delegate to conventions of the New England states between 1776-80.

Hopkins had a wide variety of interests besides politics. He helped to establish a public subscription library in Providence about 1754 and a newspaper, the *Providence Gazette* in 1762. He was the first chancellor of Rhode Island College (Brown University) founded in 1764. As a member of the Philosophical Society of Newport in 1769, he erected a telescope in Providence for observing the transit of Venus.

The oldest portion of the Stephen Hopkins House, now a rear ell, is believed to have been built about 1707 and was originally a small single-story frame dwelling comprised of two first-floor rooms and an attic. Hopkins acquired the residence and in 1742-43 enlarged and remodeled the structure into the existing L-shaped two-story Georgian frame house.

The house, which has a gabled roof and two chimneys is clapboarded. Cornices decorate the first-story windows. In 1928, during a major restoration, a reconstructed door, with triangular pediment and pilasters typical of the 18th century, was inserted in place of one of the four windows along the present front elevation. This door, the only major alteration in the house, became the main entrance. It replaced a door on the west side, which opens into the original kitchen and is still extant.

The central hall, along the east wall of which is the main stairway, divides the front of the residence into two rooms, study and parlor. The recessed parlor bookshelves, set in paneling above the hearth, are distinctive, while the paneling of the two fireplaces in the study and ell is simpler. A passageway leads from the parlor to the southwest ell, which consists of the original kitchen and a small bedroom. Five bedrooms, two of which have fireplaces, are located upstairs. The interior of the house, including stairs, woodwork, floors and fireplaces is largely original.

The house was located on the northeast corner of Hopkins and South Main Street until 1804, when it was moved to the east along the north side of Hopkins Street. In 1927 the structure was moved a second time to its present location to make way for the construction of a new court house. The house was acquired by the State of Rhode Island in 1927 and restored the next year. The grounds and exterior of the home are maintained by the State, and the interior is exhibited to the public by the Society of Colonial Dames in the State of Rhode Island.

Camden Battlefield, South Carolina

Location: Kershaw County, on Flat Rock Road, five miles north of Camden just west of U.S. 521 and 601. Ownership: Multiple public/private.

The Battle of Camden, August 16, 1780, was the climax of a series of American military disasters that had begun with the surrender of Charleston in May 1780, and which resulted in the complete British conquest of Georgia and South Carolina and the invasion of North Carolina. Two more years of fierce fighting under the leadership of the skilled American General Nathanael Greene were required to regain these three southern states for the United States.

The surrender of Gen. Benjamin Lincoln with an American army of 5,466 men, at Charleston on May 12, 1780, left only one organized American force in the South, and this force of 380 Virginia continentals under Colonel Abraham Buford was wiped out at Waxhaws on May 29. In July, however, another American army, consisting of 900 continentals and 3,200 militia, advanced into South Carolina from the north under General Horatio Gates, the victor of Saratoga and the choice of the Continental Congress to command the southern department. Confident that he outnumbered his opponent, Lord Charles Cornwallis, Gates detached part of his force to aid the partisan leader, Thomas Sumter, in a raid on distant British supply lines. Gates and Cornwallis collided near Camden on the morning of August 16, 1780.

The battle was of short duration. Gates formed the continentals under Baron de Kalb on the right and the militia on the left. As the 2,200 British soldiers advanced, the militia suddenly gave way and streamed from the field in wild flight. The British dashed through in pursuit and soon isolated and surrounded the 900 continentals. They continued to fight tenaciously until DeKalb was shot down, and 650 of the continentals, including 33 officers, were killed or captured before the remnants quit the field. Gates failed to rally the beaten army, and

managed to reassemble only about 700 of his original 4,100 men at Hillsborough on August 19. Cornwallis invaded North Carolina and occupied Charlotte on September 26. He evacuated that city on October 14 and fell back to Winnsboro, South Carolina, after learning of Major Patrick Ferguson's defeat at Kings Mountain, and Gates moved to Charlotte. There on December 2 Nathanael Greene relieved Gates of the command of the southern department.

The battlefield today is little changed from its original appearance. It is a flat area of open fields and pine woods, bordered on the east and west by small streams. The battlefield contains about 3,000 acres in various private ownership. Two acres are owned by the Hobkirk Hill Chapter, Daughters of the American Revolution. The only monument on the battlefield, a small stone marker standing on the approximate site where General DeKalb fell, is located on this two-acre tract.

Colonel John Stuart House, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, 106 Tradd Street, Charleston. Ownership: private.

Born in Scotland around 1700, John Stuart came to America about 1748. He was commissioned a captain in the South Carolina provincials in 1757, and two years later he married into the prominent Fenwick family. In 1762, he was appointed superintendent of Indian affairs for the southern district, with a salary of 1,000 pounds and 3,000 pounds for Indian presents and other expenses. At first, he was without definite powers and a staff, and he was subservient to the provincial governors who had largely handled Indian affairs themselves. Following the Proclamation of 1763, he became responsible to secretaries of state in Great Britain, though still cooperating with the governors. Two years later, he obtained full imperial status for his department and became active in handling the Indian affairs of East and West Florida. In order to strengthen his authority, Stuart suggested to Lord Hillsborough his appointment to the councils of all colonies within his district. Accordingly, the governors of Virginia and of the provinces southward received *mandamuses* in April 1770 naming Stuart "Councillor extraordinary" to advise them on Indian affairs. Thus, the superintendent was able during the next five years to extend his influence widely. By 1776, his annual expenditures for Indian presents and congresses amounted to 19,000 pounds.

Early in June 1775, his arrest was ordered by the South Carolina assembly on the charge of attempting to incite the Catawba and Cherokee in the British interest. Fleeing from Lady's Island, South



Colonel John Stuart House.

Carolina, to Savannah, Georgia, and thence to St. Augustine, where he arrived on June 21, 1775, Stuart remained a refugee in the Floridas until his death four years later. In February 1776, his wife and daughter were restricted to their Charleston home and allowed 100 pounds a month in currency from his estate, which had been sequestered. To carry into effect Sir William Howe's directions about the management of the Indians, Stuart removed to Pensacola in July 1776. From there he sent out deputies to the Cherokee and Seminole and also organized three companies of troops from the loyalist refugees.

Built by Colonel John Stuart about 1772, this house is a three-story frame structure with a hipped roof, captain's walk and one interior chimney. The three-bay-wide front facade is flush-boarded, and the other elevations are clapboarded. The fanlight entrance, located in the left bay of the front elevation is flanked by a pair of Corinthian columns and topped by a pediment. The first and second story windows are crowned with bracketed triangular pediments. The first story of the octagonal frame wing at the rear corner was added about 1800. Later in the 19th century, the double-decked porch on the left side, the two-story bedroom over the octagonal wing and a two-story frame service wing on the rear elevation were all added.

The entrance in the main house opens into a long hall that runs along the west wall to the rear door. Divided at midpoint, the rear portion of the hall serves as a stairhall. To the right of the hall are two rooms: the reception room in front and the dining room in the rear. This plan is repeated on the second floor, except that the large front drawing room occupies all three bays. Behind this is a bedroom and there are additional chambers on the third floor.

In 1930, the Minneapolis Museum of Art purchased and removed the elaborate Georgian woodwork and mantels of the two most important rooms in the house, the first floor reception room and the large second-floor drawing room. About 1936, the residence was acquired by the New York City architect and historian John Mead Howells, who had the missing woodwork accurately reconstructed and restored the octagonal wing to eliminate Victorian features. The Colonel John Stuart House is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

Cowpens National Battlefield, South Carolina

Location: Cherokee County, 11 miles northwest of Gaffney and two miles southeast of Chesnee at intersection of S.C. 11 and 110.
Address: P.O. Box 31, Kings Mountain, N.C. 23086.

At Cowpens, on January 17, 1781, using newly devised tactics that made effective use of American militia, General Daniel Morgan destroyed Colonel Banastre Tarleton's legion, a crack British fighting unit that previously had been the dread of American soldiers. Morgan's victory at Cowpens, the first American victory after a long series of southern defeats, disrupted General Cornwallis' plans for reconquering North Carolina and helped General Nathanael Greene's plans to regain the south.

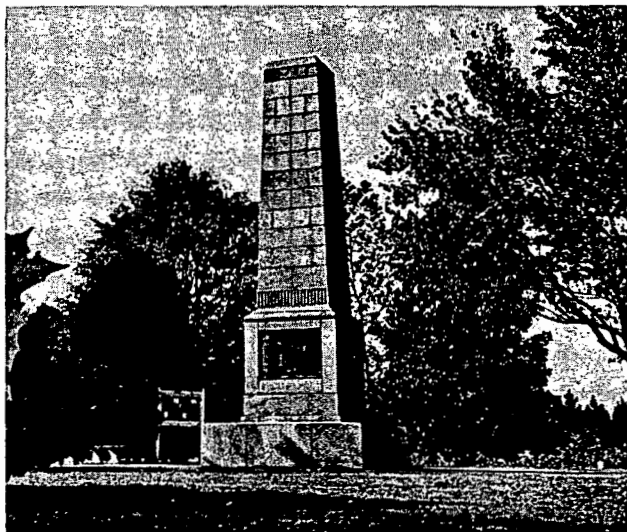
The American victory at Kings Mountain in October 1780 was the first setback to Lord Cornwallis' strategy for conquering the south. Falling back to Winnsboro, he learned that part of General Nathanael Greene's army had been sent to the northwestern part of the State under General Daniel Morgan for the purpose of protecting the people, annoying the enemy and collecting provisions. On January 2, 1781, Cornwallis dispatched his cavalry leader, Lieutenant Colonel Banastre Tarleton, with more than 1,100 men, to dispose of Morgan's 1,040, while the British commander moved into North Carolina against Greene.

On learning of Tarleton's approach, Morgan, using newly invented tactics that made effective use of his militia, formed his men into three lines, the first a picket line of untrained South Carolina militia; the

second the remainder of his South Carolinians plus North Carolina and Georgia militia; and the third his trained continentals and Virginia militia. As a reserve he had Lieutenant Colonel William Washington's cavalry and 45 mounted militiamen under Major James McCall. Morgan anticipated that his militia would not be able to hold their position in the face of Tarleton's attack, but he exhorted them to fire at least two volleys at close rank before falling back. The second line of militia was to retire to the left and so around to the rear of the third line or main formation, where they were to rally and re-form.

As Tarleton came upon the American position, he attacked immediately. The two forward lines of American militia fired and fell back as expected, closely followed by the British. Tarleton then made a flank attack on the third line as he simultaneously attacked it in front. In the confusion consequent to the shifting of troops to meet the flank attack, the Virginia militia began falling back, and the continentals were ordered to follow them. Morgan, seeing the necessity for prompt counteraction, halted the retreating continentals and at the same time counterattacked with the cavalry and the re-formed militia against both flanks of the advancing British troops. In little more than an hour, the British were driven from the field. Barely a fifth of Tarleton's command, which in turn represented about one-fourth of Cornwallis' total field army, escaped, while Morgan lost only 12 killed and 61 wounded. Along with the results of Kings Mountain and Guilford Courthouse, Cowpens renewed American hope and ultimately led Cornwallis to abandon his attempted conquest of the Carolinas.

Cowpens National Battlefield was established in 1929 and contains 1.24 acres out of the 800 to 900 acres that comprise the entire battlefield. A commemorative monument stands in the angle of the highway intersection near the rear of the American lines. The fighting took place for a distance of about 600 yards southeast along present S.C 11.



Cowpens National Battlefield.



Drayton Hall.

Drayton Hall, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, 12 miles west of Charleston on S.C. 61.
 Ownership: National Trust for Historic Preservation.

Drayton Hall was the boyhood and country home of William Henry Drayton, a major political leader in South Carolina during the War for Independence. An active writer on political affairs, he published a pamphlet under the signature "A Freeman," which substantially marked out the line of conduct pursued by the First Continental Congress when it met in September 1774. A member of all the important revolutionary bodies in South Carolina, Drayton performed valuable service in the spring of 1775 in preparing his colony for armed resistance. Elected president of the provincial congress on November 1, 1775, he assumed leadership of the progressives and urged aggressive measures for military preparedness. He served as chief justice of his state from 1776 until his death on September 3, 1779, and also as a delegate to the Continental Congress from March 30, 1778, until his death.

Drayton Hall is probably the finest unrestored and unaltered example of early Georgian architecture in the United States. Erected in 1738-42, Drayton Hall is also the most outstanding and progressive existing examples of an early Georgian plantation house in the southern colonies. The mansion is a monumental brick structure, two stories high over an elevated basement. Its roof is of the double hipped type, with two large interior chimneys and a classical cornice. The land facade is dominated by a projecting two-story pedimented portico with superimposed Doric and Ionic orders. The projecting portico fronts on a recessed central bay, permitting a sheltered porch to the main entrance and above it a balcony for the second floor drawing room.

The river elevation has a classical central pediment to emphasize the main axis, but it lacks a portico and pavilion. The center door and three windows over it are framed by pilasters and topped by triangular and segmental pediments in finely carved white Portland stone imported from England.

The interior of the mansion is embellished by a majestic entrance hall with fully paneled walls and ornamental ceiling. The hall contains an elaborate mantel, and the doors and corners are decorated with triglyphs and rosetted metopes. Beyond the entrance hall is a large two-story stair hall, also fully paneled, with a richly carved double staircase. To the left of the central hall are the dining room and a bedroom, and to the right are a drawing room, which opens on the second floor balcony of the east portico, and four chambers. All of these rooms have fully paneled walls, rich cornices and elaborate fireplaces, although two of the latter were replaced in 1800 by mantels of the Adam style. Originally, there were also two flanking symmetrically placed dependencies that adjoined a wide forecourt, but only the foundations of these buildings remain today.

Drayton Hall has never been restored, and it remained in the possession of the Drayton family until 1974 when the National Trust for Historic Preservation acquired the property. The National Trust plans to restore Drayton Hall and to open it to visitors.

Edward Rutledge House, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, 117 Broad Street, Charleston. Ownership: Roman Catholic Diocese of Charleston.

Built in 1787, this house was the residence of Edward Rutledge, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for South Carolina. The son of a physician, Rutledge studied law at the Middle Temple in London from 1767-72 and was admitted to the English bar in the latter year. Returning to South Carolina in 1773, he began the practice of law in Charleston and married Henrietta Middleton, the daughter of the wealthy planter Henry Middleton.

Rutledge began his public career in July 1774, when he was elected a delegate to the First Continental Congress and served until November 1776. He was also a member of the first and second provincial congresses of South Carolina in 1775-76. As the leader of the South Carolina delegation in Congress, he staved off action on the resolution for independence for nearly a month in 1776, but on July 2, under his influence, the South Carolina members voted for the Declaration. His last important assignment in Congress occurred on September



Edward Rutledge House.

11, 1776, when he accompanied John Adams and Benjamin Franklin on a vain peace mission to Staten Island to negotiate with British Admiral Lord Richard Howe, who with his brother, General William Howe, was belatedly attempting to resolve the differences between the colonies and the mother country.

In November 1776, Rutledge left the Continental Congress and returned to Charleston to resume his law practice. In 1778, he was elected to the State legislature.

As a captain of artillery in the militia, he participated in the battle at Beaufort, South Carolina, on February 3, 1779, and was captured by the British at the fall of Charleston on May 12, 1780. From that date to July 1781, he was a prisoner of war and held captive at St. Augustine, Florida. He was exchanged in the latter year and from 1782 to 1796 represented Charleston in the South Carolina House of Representatives as well as in the State conventions of 1788 and 1790. A staunch Federalist, he signed the new Constitution in 1787 and was elected a State senator in 1796 and 1798. In the latter year, he was also chosen governor of South Carolina and held this office until his death in 1800.

The Edward Rutledge House, which is the only existing structure that can be associated with Rutledge, is a large two-story frame house over a high basement with hipped roof. A two-story porch supported by columns extends along the west side and around the rear elevation. A central modillioned pediment with circular window rises from the main roof on the street facade and covers the three center bays. Windows adorned by exterior louvered shutters are topped by cornices.

The center doorway is now topped by a triangular pediment which replaced an earlier cornice. A two-story clapboard wing built on the main axis was added to the east side of the house in the late 19th century. The interior woodwork appears to date from the 1880's and partition walls have been inserted to subdivide the large original rooms into smaller areas.

The structure is now used as a home for elderly women and is not generally open to visitors, although portions of the first floor may be visited upon request.

Governor John Rutledge House, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, 116 Broad Street, Charleston. Ownership: private.

This was the home from 1763 to 1800 of John Rutledge, the governor of South Carolina during its most crucial period in the Revolution. One of the foremost young lawyers in South Carolina, Rutledge was an early advocate of the American cause. He zealously opposed the Stamp Act and in the Stamp Act Congress of 1765 he was chairman of the committee which wrote the petition to the House of Lords. From 1774-76 he was a delegate to the First and Second Continental Congresses. It was on his insistence that Congress exempted rice from the non-importation agreement—an achievement that carried Rutledge a long step towards the political leadership of South Carolina. He was elected to the South Carolina committee of safety and was one of the large committee which wrote the South Carolina constitution of 1776. When the provincial congress, by the adoption of that instrument, became the general assembly, he was elected president, serving in this position until March 1778.

In January 1779 when South Carolina was faced with invasion, Rutledge was elected governor and took to the field in a desperate effort to supply Generals Benjamin Lincoln and William Moultrie. The following year in March, Charleston was besieged by land and sea in overwhelming force. The assembly adjourned to meet no more for two years, after hastily granting the governor and “such of his council as he could conveniently consult, a power to do everything necessary for the public good, except the taking away the life of a citizen without a legal trial.” Rutledge slipped out of the beleaguered city in April and strove to gather militia for its relief, but on May 12 Charleston surrendered and taken prisoner were the entire southern continental army under Lincoln and virtually all of the military and civil leaders of South Carolina.



Governor John Rutledge House.

The destruction of a second American army under the command of General Horatio Gates at Camden, South Carolina, August 16, 1780, appeared to end the War for Independence in South Carolina and Georgia. Governor Rutledge, however, refused to give up the fight and retreated to border towns in North Carolina. From there he called upon the Continental Congress for a third army and encouraged South Carolina militia officers, such as Andrew Pickens, Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter, to wage guerrilla warfare in occupied South Carolina in order to wear down the British and bring the discouraged Americans back to the field.

Aided by the success of General Nathanael Greene and his continental army, Rutledge returned to South Carolina in August 1781. Rutledge set about a skilful restoration of civil government, issuing an offer of pardon to those who had joined the British on condition that they appear in 30 days for six months' militia service. When the new assembly met on January 29, 1782, Rutledge laid down his office of governor (the State constitution forbade him to succeed himself) and took a seat in the House. He had already been elected to the Continental Congress, however, and attended from May 1782 to September 1783. The following year he began his judicial career with his election to the chancery court of the state, and from 1784 to 1790 also sat in the State House of Representatives.

Rutledge was elected to the Constitutional Convention of 1787 where he played a conspicuous role in the debates. After signing the completed document and supporting its ratification in South Carolina, he was appointed (in 1789) senior associate justice of the U.S. Supreme Court by Washington. Two years later Rutledge resigned from this office to become chief justice of South Carolina. In 1795, he was nominated to be chief justice of the U.S. Supreme Court and presided at the August term. The intermittent insanity, of which he had occasionally shown signs since the death of his wife in 1792, now definitely ended his public career.

The John Rutledge House is a large three-story over-elevated basement brick structure with a slate-covered roof. A pair of large brick chimneys are set in either side wall, and an elaborate two-story cast and wrought-iron porch embellish the front elevation. The first two stories were built by Rutledge in 1763 and the third floor was added by Thomas M. Gadsden in 1853. The corners of the house are marked by quoins and the windows are topped by triangular pediments on the first floor, broken pediments on the second and segmentally arched hood moulding on the third.

A center hall extends through the house and divides the first-floor rooms into pairs. The second floor has a short center hall at the rear which is flanked by two bedrooms. The entire front half of the house is occupied by two large rooms, a drawing room and library that could be used together to form a large ballroom. The parquet flooring of the first and second stories is original, while the marble mantels on the eight fireplaces on these two floors probably date from the mid-19th century. Partition walls have been inserted and false ceilings installed to adapt the house for use as law offices but no important structural changes have been made to the building.

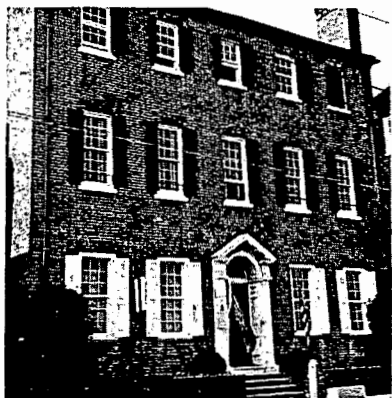
Heyward-Washington House, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, 87 Church Street, Charleston. Ownership: Charleston Museum.

This residence, also known as the Daniel Heyward House, was the town home from 1777 to 1794 of Thomas Heyward, Jr., a distinguished jurist and signer of the Declaration of Independence for South Carolina. Architecturally, the structure is a superb and little-altered example of a three-story brick Georgian town house of the Charleston "double house" type.

The eldest son of one of the wealthiest rice planters in South Carolina, Heyward was sent to the Middle Temple in London in 1765 to study law and was admitted to the South Carolina bar six years later. In 1772, he was elected to the South Carolina assembly. Active in the American cause, he was a delegate to the provincial convention meeting in Charleston in 1774 and to the provincial congresses of 1775-76. During this time, he also served on the South Carolina committee of safety and helped prepare a constitution for the state.

Heyward was one of the five delegates from South Carolina sent to the Second Continental Congress in 1776. He signed the Declaration and served in Congress until the end of 1778, when he returned to South Carolina and became a circuit judge. As a captain of a battalion



Heyward-Washington House.

of artillery in the Charleston militia, he participated in Moultrie's defeat of the British, February 4, 1779, on Port Royal Island where he was wounded. Heyward took part in the defense of Charleston and upon the fall of that city, May 12, 1780, was paroled as a prisoner of war. Soon after, however, his parole was recalled and he was sent to St. Augustine, Florida, where he was held prisoner in the Castillo de San Marcos until exchanged July 1781. Returning to South Carolina, he served in the State Legislature in 1782-84 and resumed his duties as circuit judge, a position he held until 1789.

Heyward retired from public life in 1789 and devoted his remaining years to agriculture. Earlier in 1785, he had been one of the founders and the first president of the Agricultural Society of South Carolina. He died in 1809 and was buried in the family cemetery adjacent to the "Old House" plantation in present Jasper County where he had been born.

In 1770 Daniel Heyward, the father of Thomas Heyward, Jr., purchased this lot and the two-story house then standing on it. During the next two years, it is believed that Daniel Heyward demolished the building and erected the existing three-story town house and some of its dependencies. His son, Thomas Heyward, Jr., inherited the house and lot on his father's death in 1777, and moved in the following year upon completion of his term in the Continental Congress. In May 1791, when President George Washington visited Charleston on his southern tour of the United States, the city rented the house from Heyward for Washington's use for a week.

The house is a square-shaped, three-story brick structure with a hipped roof that is pierced by a single dormer on the street front. The roof line is marked by a narrow denticulated cornice. There are two interior chimneys with their fireplaces arranged in pairs and set back to back. The main entrance is located in the center bay of the street facade. The fan-lighted door, surmounted by a pediment and flanked by a pair of classic columns, is an accurate reconstruction of the original.

The house has the typical Georgian four-room and center hall plan. The staircase, with mahogany handrail and paneling, is original and is lighted by a Palladian window in the rear wall. In Charleston houses of this "double house" type, the first floor rooms are simple, and the elaborate rooms for entertaining are located on the second floor. The large second-floor drawing room, located in the front at the southeast corner, is thus the most elaborate room in the house. All four walls of this room are covered with well proportioned paneling, and the cornice is coved into the ceiling above a line fretwork on the wall. The doors are topped by pediments and the fireplace has a carved Georgian mantel, with the panel above trimmed by a band of mahogany fretwork. To the side of this drawing room is a smaller parlor. In the rear of these two front rooms are two bedrooms, and the third floor contains four bedrooms.

Heyward sold this house in 1794, and subsequently it passed through many hands until 1929. In that year, the Charleston Museum acquired the residence to save it from possible demolition and restored it. The house is in excellent condition and is open to visitors.

Hopsewee-on-the-Santee, South Carolina ▲

Location: Georgetown County, on an unimproved road just west of U.S. 17, 13 miles south of Georgetown. Ownership: private.

"Hopsewee-on-the-Santee" was the birthplace and boyhood home from 1749 to 1763 of Thomas Lynch, Jr., a signer of the Declaration of Independence for South Carolina. The only son of a wealthy rice planter, Lynch attended Eton and studied law at the Middle Temple in London from 1764-72. He returned to South Carolina in the latter year, and, having acquired a distaste for law, his father permitted him to abandon this profession and become a planter. Toward this end, his father presented him with the Peach Tree Plantation, which was located on the south bank of the North Santee, not far from Hopsewee.

Lynch entered public life in 1774 as a member of the South Carolina legislature. He was a member of the first and second provincial congresses (1774-76), of the constitutional committee for South Carolina (1776), and of the first State general assembly (1776). In June 1775, he was appointed a captain in the First South Carolina Regiment, and the following month he went to North Carolina to recruit his company. On this trip, he contracted bilious fever, which left him a partial invalid for the remainder of his life.

On March 23, 1776, the South Carolina general assembly appointed Thomas Lynch, Jr., to the Second Continental Congress, so that he

might care for his father, also a delegate, and one of the most influential revolutionaries in his state who had been incapacitated by a stroke. Despite his own feeble health, Lynch was present and voted when the Declaration was adopted and shortly afterward signed the document. He did not remain long in Congress, however, for his health began to decline rapidly. Father and son began the journey homeward in easy stages, but his father died at Annapolis in December 1776. The son reached South Carolina and retired to Peach Tree Plantation. Late in 1779, he and his wife sailed for the West Indies in the hope of regaining his health, but the ship and all on board were lost at sea.

Built by Thomas Lynch, Sr., in the 1740's, Hopsewee is a two-and-one-half-story frame structure on a brick foundation covered by a scored tabby, with a hipped and dormered roof and two interior chimneys. A broad two-story piazza with square columns extends across the front of the house. The frame, comprised of black cypress, is of mortise and tenon construction and the walls are clapboarded. First and second story windows are adorned by exterior paneled shutters. The present roof is metal, and the front porches have been screened in.

Hopsewee-on-the-Santee.



The farmhouse has a central hall plan. The central hall extends through the house from front to rear and divides the four rooms on each of the first two floors into pairs. Each of these eight rooms has its individual fireplace. The mantels, wainscoting, cornice mold and heart pine floors are all original and of excellent craftsmanship. The full cellar is brick and divided into rooms. The two one-story cypress shingled outbuildings were probably used originally as kitchens. The main house and its garden were restored in 1948. Still used as a private residence, Hopsewee is open to visitors.

Kings Mountain National Military Park, South Carolina ☒

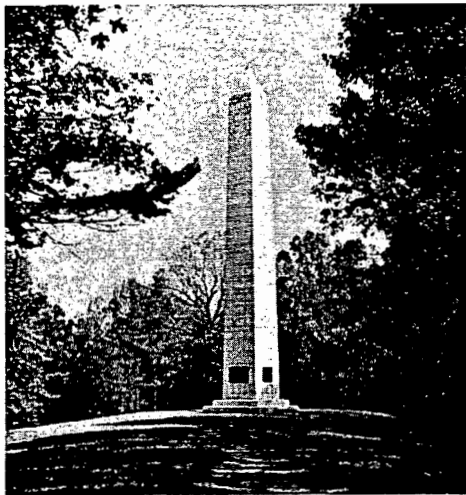
Location: York County, 4 miles south of U.S. 216, between Charlotte, North Carolina, and Spartanburg, South Carolina. Address: P.O. Box 31, Kings Mountain, N.C. 28086.

The Battle of Kings Mountain, October 7, 1780, was an overwhelming and completely unexpected blow struck by the Americans against the heretofore victorious British forces engaged in conquering the Southern Colonies. This surprising victory kept the spark of rebellion alive in South Carolina and Georgia, forced the British to cease their invasion of North Carolina for the time being, and enabled the Americans to build a new continental army in the south.

Lord Cornwallis' triumphant northward thrust through South Carolina in the summer of 1780 left the scattered settlers of the Appalachian foothills comparatively undisturbed. Preoccupied with pushing the frontier across the mountains and defending themselves against Indians, they took little interest in the war to the east. Cornwallis, however, dispatched Major Patrick Ferguson with 1,100 loyalists to operate in the Carolina piedmont. Aroused by this threat, about 1,000 frontiersmen from Tennessee, North Carolina and Virginia rallied at Sycamore Shoals of the Watauga River in Tennessee to meet the invader. On October 7, 1780, a force of about 1,800, under Colonels Isaac Shelby, John Sevier, Charles McDowell, Benjamin Cleveland and William Campbell surrounded Ferguson's 1,100 soldiers posted on Kings Mountain. In a one-hour battle the frontier marksmen stormed up the slope and overwhelmed the British. Ferguson was slain and his entire command destroyed: 57 were killed, and 947 men, including 163 wounded, were taken prisoners. American casualties numbered 28 killed and 62 wounded. Kings Mountain compelled Cornwallis to abandon his plans for the subjugation of North Carolina, and on October 14 retreated from Charlotte, North Carolina, to Winnsboro, South Carolina. The rainy season now set in, and the tiny American army

under Gates at Hillsborough, North Carolina, was given nearly three months to rest, refit and reorganize before Cornwallis again invaded that state.

The Kings Mountain ridge on which the battle occurred rises from the center of the 3,950-acre Kings Mountain National Military Park. The park includes the entire battlefield and is little changed from 1780. A self-guiding trail leads from the visitor center and museum to the scenes of action on the mountain, marked by four large commemorative monuments.



Kings Mountain National Military Park.

Middleton Place, South Carolina ▲

Location: Dorchester County, 13 miles northwest of Charleston on S.C. 61. Ownership: private.

Middleton Place was the birthplace and home from 1742 to 1787 of Arthur Middleton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for South Carolina. His father, Henry Middleton, who owned some 20 plantations, 50,000 acres of land and 800 slaves, was one of South Carolina's wealthiest planters. After studying law in London from 1757 to 1763, Arthur returned to South Carolina and entered politics. He attended the first and second provincial congresses of 1775-76 and served on the committee which framed a constitution for South Carolina in February 1776. In April of that year, he helped to direct the seizure of munitions from public storehouses and to raise funds for colonial resistance. He served as a delegate to the Continental Congress from May 1776 to October 1777. Although reelected in 1779 and 1780, he failed to attend any of these sessions. During the siege of Charleston in 1780, Middleton served in the militia, was taken prisoner when the British captured the city and was sent to St. Augustine, Florida, as a prisoner of war. Exchanged in July 1781, he served in the

Continental Congress in 1781-82. After the Revolution, he spent his remaining four years in repairing the damage suffered by his plantation during the war.

The three-and-one-half-story main brick house of Middleton Place was built by John Williams, the father-in-law of Henry Middleton, in 1738. The mansion was enlarged in 1755 by the addition of two two-story brick flankers, the north building serving as a library and the south building as a gentleman's guest wing. During the Revolution, the British sacked the plantation, taking away its objects of art and



Middleton Place.

pillaging its stores. The mansion, however, was left standing. In February 1865, the slaves burned the mansion as Union troops approached, leaving only the brick walls standing. The ruined walls of the north unit and the central block were felled by the earthquake of 1886.

The original south flanker, a two-story brick structure with gable roof and stepped and curvilinear gable ends was restored. In the 1930's the house was enlarged by the addition of a two-story brick service wing constructed in the 18th-century style. A one-story brick porch was also added along the river facade of the original flanker. The house is furnished with many original pieces of Middleton furniture. In excellent condition, the structure is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.

To the east and north of the south wing are the famous gardens that Henry Middleton began to lay out in 1741. For about 10 years, 100 slaves labored to complete the 45-acre garden and 16-acre lawn. The gardens rise from the river toward the house in sweeping terraces and at their foot are the paired Butterfly Lakes. The grave of Arthur Middleton is located in a mausoleum in the gardens which are open to the public year round.

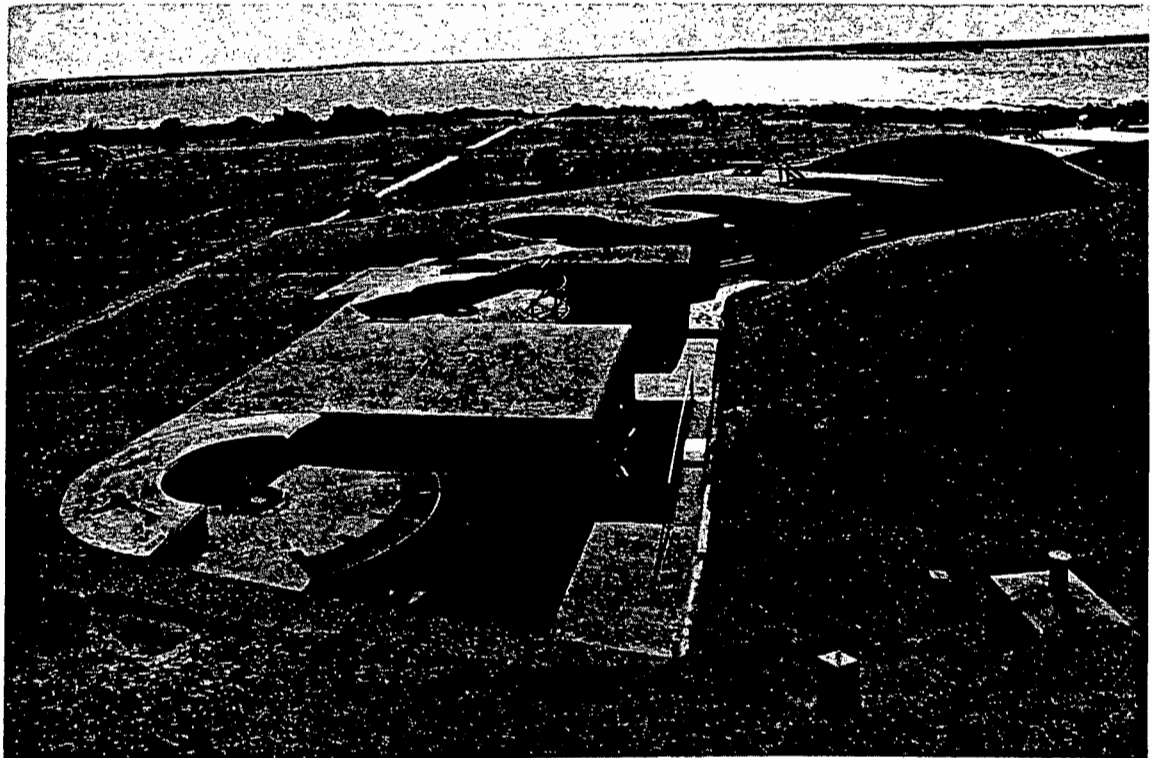
Old Ninety Six and Star Fort, South Carolina ▲

Location: Greenwood County, 2 miles south of present Ninety Six on S.C. 248. Ownership: Star Fort Historical Commission.

The siege of Old Ninety Six and Star Fort, May 22 to June 19, 1781, illustrates General Nathanael Greene's 11-month campaign to reestablish American control in South Carolina and Georgia. In 1781, his brilliant strategy against the strong chain of British fortified posts completely undid the British defense system. Although the British successfully defended Old Ninety Six, their long supply lines and manpower shortages forced them to abandon the post in July 1781. With the fall of Ninety Six, the last important British fort in the interior of South Carolina and Georgia was gone.

Ninety Six began as a trading post in 1730 and continued during the colonial period as an important trading center and seat of justice for much of up-country South Carolina. The sizeable village was fortified during the Cherokee outbreak of 1759-60, and the population of the area was predominantly loyalist as the Revolution came on. American forces were inconclusively besieged at Ninety Six for three days in November 1775, but in December the loyalists were defeated and dispersed. The British captured Charleston in May 1780 and in June they invaded the interior, strengthened the existing defenses of the stockaded village of Ninety Six, and constructed the Star Fort to the northeast of the town. The fort was an earthwork with eight salient and eight re-entrant angles, enclosing about one-half an acre. General Nathanael Greene's American force invested and assaulted the fort unsuccessfully in May-June 1781 but withdrew when 2,000 British reinforcements approached. The British, unable to hold the interior of South Carolina, burned Ninety Six and withdrew to Charleston, thus relinquishing their last major post in interior South Carolina and Georgia.

Extensive military works dating from the siege of Old Ninety Six include the earthen ramparts and dry moat of the British Star Fort and the approach trenches dug by the Americans. Scattered brick fragments mark the location of the town, which was burned by the British, later rebuilt, but lost its court in 1800 and declined in importance. Some identifiable remains include the knoll on which the 1775 siege occurred and on which stood the British stockade fort of 1781, the ravine in which flowed the stream supplying water to the garrison, the jail site, the old Charleston road, and, some distance from the village site, the site of the 1759 fortification. A unique survival of 18th-century warfare is about 90 feet of a mine that was constructed under the supervision of Colonel Thaddeus Kosciuszko, Greene's brilliant engineer.



Site of first Fort Moultrie, Fort Sumter National Monument. The concrete fortifications in foreground were erected in 1898-99.

Site of the First Fort Moultrie, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, Sullivan's Island (included in Fort Sumter National Monument). Address: Drawer R; Sullivan's Island, S.C. 29482.

On June 28, 1776, a powerful squadron of nine British vessels under Sir Peter Parker attacked this fort, then unnamed, on Sullivan's Island in Charleston Harbor. The half-completed palmetto fort was garrisoned by 364 South Carolina continental soldiers commanded by Colonel William Moultrie. While the Americans suffered 38 casualties, one British ship was burned and the others heavily damaged in addition to 195 men wounded and killed. Unable to effect a landing, the British withdrew from Charleston on July 21. This first decisive American victory in the war, together with the loyalist defeat at Moores Creek in February 1776, kept the south free from British control for four years. News of the unsuccessful British effort to take Charleston reached Philadelphia shortly after the Declaration of Independence was proclaimed, and the victory bolstered the spirit of the Americans as they struggled to implement the bold statements in that document.

The fort, named Moultrie several days after the battle, was a square about 550 feet long on a side that would contain 1,000 men when finished. The fort was built of palmetto logs laid one upon the other and arranged in two parallel rows 16 feet apart. The space between the two lines of log walls was filled with sand. The palmetto-faced walls absorbed the British cannon balls rather than splintering and filling the air with dangerous projectiles. Platforms, supported by brick pillars, mounted the 31 cannon which severely damaged the enemy fleet. In June 1776 the fort was completed only on the southeastern and southwestern sides, but thick long planks were placed upright against the unfinished outside walls prior to the battle, increasing their height to from 10 to 15 feet.

There are no surface remains left of the first Fort Moultrie. However, it is believed that the existing Fort Moultrie (No. 3) erected in 1807-09 occupies a portion of the Revolutionary War fortress site.

Snee Farm, South Carolina ▲

Location: Charleston County, County Road 97 about 4.5 miles northwest of Mount Pleasant. Ownership: private.

Snee Farm was built about 1754 by Colonel Charles Pinckney, a wealthy lawyer and planter. Upon his death in September 1782, the farm passed to his son, Charles, author of the "Pinckney draught" at the Constitutional Convention in 1787 and a signer of the Constitution.

As a lieutenant in the state militia, the younger Pinckney took part in the siege of Savannah in October 1779, and was captured at the fall of Charleston in May 1780. He remained a prisoner at the Castillo de San Marcos until exchanged in June 1781. From November 1784 to February 1787, he attended the Continental Congress where he was a staunch supporter of measures to strengthen the handicapped central government under the Articles of Confederation.

One of the most active participants at the Constitutional Convention of 1787, Pinckney submitted a plan for the new government which influenced the final draft of the document and helped prepare the rules of procedure for the floor debates. Pinckney served as governor of South Carolina from 1789-92 and again in 1795. In 1798, he became a United States senator, and three years later was appointed minister to Spain, where he became embroiled in the delicate negotiations with the Spanish government concerning the Louisiana Purchase. Returning to South Carolina, he was elected to a seat in the State assembly in 1806, and in December of that year became governor for the fourth



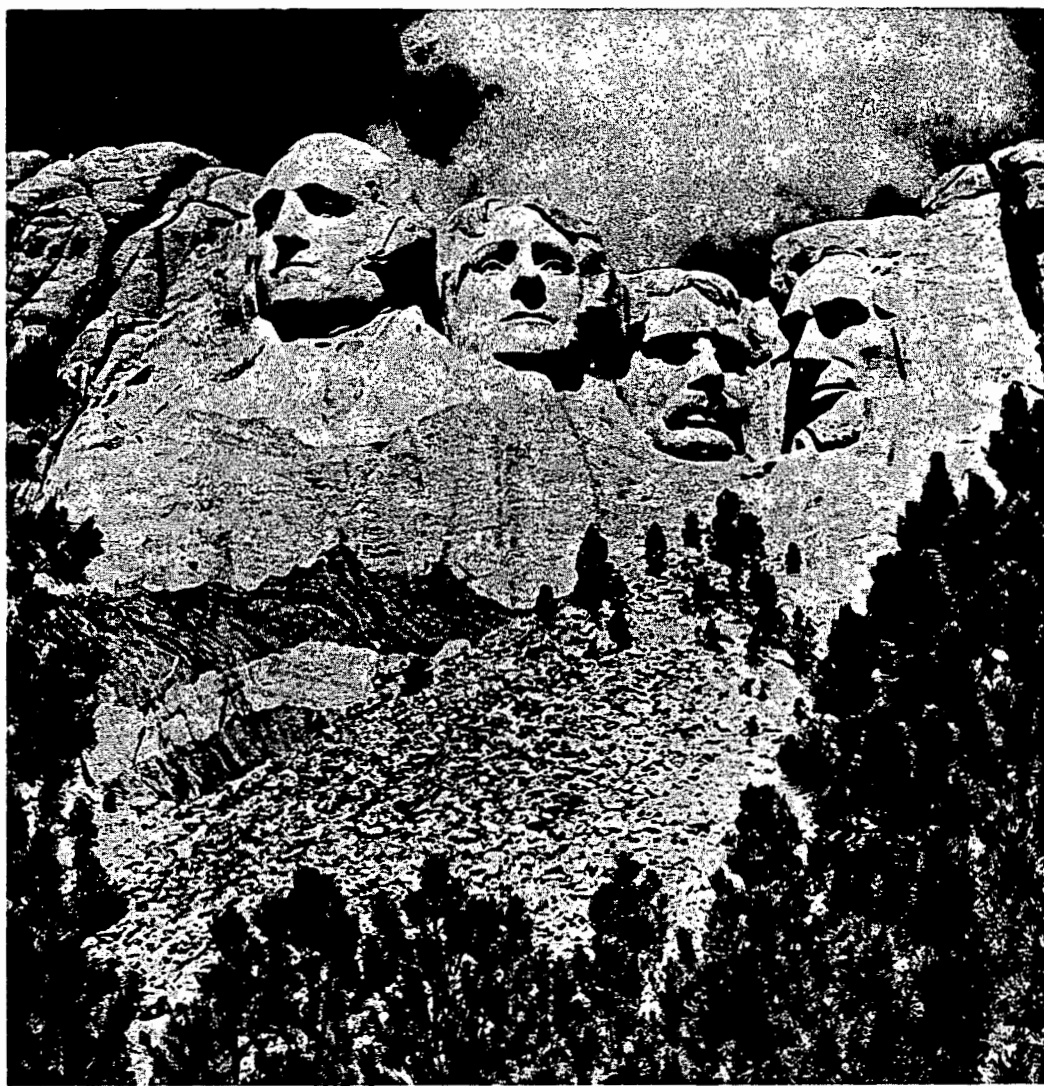
Snee Farm.

time. Before retiring from public life in 1820, he served three more times in the State assembly from 1810-14 and 1818-20.

Snee Farm remained the property of Charles Pinckney until his death on October 29, 1824. During a tour through South Carolina in 1791, President George Washington stopped for breakfast at Snee Farm, which he referred to in his diary as "the Country seat of Govr. Pinckney."

Snee Farm is a square-shaped one-and-one-half story clapboard structure with a gabled and dormered roof and two interior chimneys. The flanking symmetrical single-story frame wings at the rear corners of the main house were added in 1936. The original house rests on brick piles, and a short flight of masonry open-string stairs lead up to the open porch which extends across the front elevation. The shed roof over this porch is supported by six evenly spaced square columns. The center door is topped by a rectangular transom and is flanked on either side by a pair of windows that are adorned with louvered shutters.

Inside the house, a center hall, divided into two sections by means of an arch, extends through the house. The hall walls have vertical paneling and a dado. All of the rooms on the first story except the bedroom have wooden dados, and the dining room contains a shell cabinet. Originally, there were four bedrooms on the second floor, but one of these has been subdivided to create two baths. The house, largely original, was restored in 1936. Still used as a private residence, Snee Farm is not open to visitors.



Mount Rushmore National Memorial.

Mount Rushmore National Memorial, South Dakota ★

Location: Pennington County, 3 miles west of Keystone off U.S. 16A.
Address: Keystone, S.D. 57751.

Mount Rushmore National Memorial has been designated as a bi-centennial area by the National Park Service. One of the greatest sculptural projects ever conceived by man, the 465-foot statues of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln and Theodore Roosevelt, hewn from a 700-foot granite face of the mountain by Gutzon Borglum, commemorate the memory of four distinguished presidents of the United States.

A noted American sculptor and painter, Borglum studied at the San Francisco Art Association and the Jullian Academy in Paris from 1890-93. After exhibiting both sculpture and painting in Paris and London, he settled in New York in 1901 to produce American art. By his skillful use of the free technique of Rodin, he gained popularity among a considerable section of the public. He was an able representor of movement, as in his *Mares of Diomedes* at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, although he used the quality rather in the manner of an illustrator than of a creator of sculptural design. Well-known works by Borglum include the Sheridan equestrian monuments in Washington, D.C., and Chicago; the colossal head of Lincoln at the Capitol; the memorial commemorating the *Start Westward of the United States*, a group of six heroic stone figures in Marietta, Ohio; and the enormous figures of the 12 apostles for the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York City.

His best-known work is the group of gigantic sculptured heads of the four presidents he was engaged in carving on Mount Rushmore in the Black Hills of South Dakota at the time of his death in 1941. The work was begun in 1927, and his son, Lincoln, added the finishing touches. For this masterpiece, Borglum chose Washington because of his qualities of leadership and prudence; Jefferson for his efforts to bring about a broadly based democracy in the interests of the common man; Lincoln because of his efforts to preserve the Union and free the slaves; and Theodore Roosevelt, the rugged individualist, for his representation of the vigor and dynamism of 20th-century America.

Mount Rushmore National Memorial was authorized as a unit of the National Park Service in 1925 and today includes more than 1,245 acres.

Sycamore Shoals, Tennessee ▲

Location: Carter County, 2 miles west of Elizabethtown on the Watauga River. Ownership: Watauga Historical Association.

In the early 1770's, many colonists from the Atlantic seaboard migrated across the Appalachian Mountains into the Watauga River region of eastern Tennessee to establish the first permanent American settlement in the west. By 1772 several hundred families were settled in eastern Tennessee, and an independent government, the Watauga Association, was established and centered at Sycamore Shoals. The pioneers negotiated a treaty at the shoals with the Cherokee in March 1775 to purchase the Watauga River lands and 20 million acres of additional Kentucky woodland. Their title was more firmly established



Sycamore Shoals. Courtesy Tennessee State Planning Office.

by the Treaty of Long Island of the Holston in July 1777 by which the Cherokee, who had unsuccessfully attacked Fort Watauga the previous year, gave up all claims to the Watauga lands.

The Sycamore Shoals area was the site where some 1,000 "mountain men" from the back country of Tennessee, North Carolina and Virginia met, trained and mobilized on September 25-26, 1780, before marching across the Appalachians to turn back the British menace to their western settlements. These men had been angered by the British-supported Indian raids directed against the American frontier and by the British loyalist expedition led by Major Patrick Ferguson that plundered the western North Carolina countryside that fall. Hearing of this force, Ferguson fled east of the mountains, but the American forces caught him at King's Mountain, South Carolina, where their decisive victory on October 7 ended British forays into the interior.

Less well-known is the participation of these western Americans in numerous other engagements throughout the South during the Revolution. Feared as "yelling devils," they not only fought the British, but, under the leadership of General John Sevier, they are credited with 35 battles against the Indians who were often allies of the redcoats.

Located in Happy Valley just west of Elizabethtown, Sycamore Shoals lies along a westward flowing stretch of the Watauga River. Some industrial and residential developments have encroached on the historic setting, but wooded land edging the river and open fields on the other side recall the appearance of the landscape when it witnessed the momentous events that took place here. The traditional site of Fort Watauga is on a low ridge beside Tenn. 67, about one-half mile southwest of the lower end of Sycamore Shoals. A concrete and stone marker has been placed nearby, by the Daughters of the American Revolution. The site is in a developed residential area.



Mount Independence.

Mount Independence, Vermont

Location: Addison County, east shore of Lake Champlain opposite Fort Ticonderoga, Orwell. Ownership: State of Vermont and Fort Ticonderoga Association.

Fortified by the Americans in 1776-77, Mount Independence formed the heart of the great defensive complex known generally as "Fort Ticonderoga" during the War for Independence. The fall of these two

fortresses, famous throughout the colonies as "The Gibraltar of the North," on July 6, 1777, was a severe shock to American political and military leaders and to American morale in general. George III was so exultant over the news from Ticonderoga that he is said to have exclaimed: "I have beat them! I have beat all the Americans!" As the key to the northern Hudson River Valley, the fall of the Mount Independence-Fort Ticonderoga complex laid the northern colonies open to the fateful Burgoyne invasion of 1777.

On June 17, 1777, Lieutenant General John Burgoyne embarked on Lake Champlain from St. Johns, Canada. By keeping his naval vessels, 400 Indians and 1,500 light troops well advanced as a screen, Burgoyne secretly moved a British army of 9,300 men and 138 cannon down Lake Champlain, arriving before Ticonderoga and Mount Independence July 1. When the British assumed a commanding position over this defensive complex by mounting cannon on the summit of 853-foot high Mount Defiance on the evening of July 4, Major General Arthur St. Clair transferred his 5,300 men from the fort to Mount Independence, leaving behind immense stores and 100 cannon. After dark on July 5, St. Clair secretly evacuated Mount Independence, marching his main army east over the military road through the wilderness, while the sick, guns and supplies were to move by boat down South Bay to Skenesborough, where the main army would join them. St. Clair's decision to retreat from Mount Independence saved from certain capture the American army that was later to defeat Burgoyne at Saratoga, but as St. Clair predicted at the time, when the news of the evacuation of Ticonderoga reached the Continental Congress, it cost both General Arthur St. Clair and General Philip Schuyler, commanding officer of the northern department, their commands.

Mount Independence was garrisoned by a British regiment from July to October 1777, but these were withdrawn because of supply problems. Although reoccupied from time to time by scouting and raiding parties in the period 1778 to 1781, Mount Independence was never garrisoned by a military force.

Since the Revolution, Mount Independence has been lumbered occasionally and its land used for pasture, but never farmed or otherwise developed. Thus, the 1776-77 remains are remarkably distinct. Among these are the earthen walls of the horseshoe-shaped battery located halfway up the north slope, the parade ground and the stone foundations of the hospital.

In 1965 the State of Vermont acquired about half of the acreage of Mount Independence, which it plans to develop as a State historic park. The remaining half of Mount Independence is owned by the Fort Ticonderoga Association. Mount Independence is completely undeveloped and is not open to visitors.

Berkeley, Virginia ▲

Location: Charles City County, 8 miles west of Charles City Court House via Va. 5. Ownership: private.

Erected in 1726, Berkeley was the birthplace and life-long home of Benjamin Harrison V, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Virginia. Berkeley was also the birthplace of William Henry Harrison, a noted soldier and ninth president of the United States.

Benjamin Harrison V, the son of a well-to-do planter, was born at Berkeley in 1726. He attended the College of William and Mary but left without graduating in 1745, on the death of his father, to take up the management of the family estate. Four years later, he was elected to the House of Burgesses and served in that body until 1775, often as its speaker. He was a delegate to the Continental Congress from 1774 to October 1777. As Chairman of the Whole in 1776-77, he chaired the

Berkeley.



deliberations leading up to the adoption of the Declaration of Independence and the early debates on the proposed Articles of Confederation. Also active in state politics, he was a member of the Virginia conventions of 1775-76 and of the House of Delegates during 1777-81 and 1784-91. In November 1781, Harrison was elected governor of Virginia and was twice reelected, serving until 1784. He died April 24, 1791, and was buried in the family cemetery adjacent to his plantation home.

Berkeley was built by the signer's father, Benjamin Harrison IV, in the early Georgian style in 1726. Benedict Arnold, leading British troops in 1781, plundered the Berkeley plantation. The mansion was architecturally altered and its interior redecorated in the Adam style sometime during the period 1790-1800.

During the Civil War in 1862 the plantation, then known as Harrison's Landing, sprang into prominence again with the withdrawal of the Northern Army of the Potomac from the Battle of Malvern Hill. The plantation was the supply base for the Union Army, which lay camped in the fields about and General George McClellan maintained his headquarters in the mansion itself until his army was withdrawn to northern Virginia. While the army encamped here, General Daniel Butterfield originated the bugle call "Taps."

The mansion is two-and-one-half stories high and has a dormered gable roof with two tall interior ridge chimneys. The brick walls are of Flemish bond, the window jambs and corners are treated with narrow rubbed brick dressings and the openings with gauged, flat brick arches. The house has a beveled water table and gauged, flat belt course. The roof line and gable ends have modillioned cornices, and the ends are treated as pediments.

By 1800, Berkeley was flanked by two brick dependencies that were set slightly south of the house facing the James River. The existing two-story brick dependencies, which occupy the same positions, were erected in the period 1840-50.

The plan of the mansion is the familiar center hall plan, with two rooms on either side and two interior chimneys. The center hall extends through the house and on either side are two pairs of large square rooms. The existing center hall stair, located on the west wall near the south end of the hall, has been reconstructed in the position where such stairs were usually situated. The framing and some fragments of 18th-century trim indicate that Berkeley was altered and its woodwork largely redone in the Adam style during 1790-1800.

In 1937-38, the present owners carried out an extensive restoration program to return the structure to its 18th-century appearance. The first floor and basement are open to visitors, and the upper floors are used as a private residence.



Elsing Green.

Elsing Green, Virginia ▲

Location: King William County, 2.1 miles southwest of the intersection of Routes 632 and 723. Ownership: private.

Carter Braxton, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Virginia, was the son of a wealthy planter. He was educated at the College of William and Mary and was later a member of its board of visitors. After living in England during 1758-60, he returned in 1760 and was elected to the Virginia House of Burgesses the following year where he served until 1776. In 1767 he moved to his new plantation house on "Chericoke" plantation in King William County.

Braxton was a member of the provincial conventions of Virginia from 1774 to 1776. He was appointed a delegate to the Continental

Congress as a successor for the deceased Peyton Randolph and took his seat on February 23, 1776. Braxton was not reappointed to Congress in 1777, probably because of his extremely conservative view of government and his distrust of democracy. In that year, he returned to the Virginia legislature and was a member of this body until 1797. Losses during the Revolution, his long public service and a series of unfortunate commercial ventures undertaken during his last years ruined his fortune. In 1786, he took up residence in Richmond where he died in 1797. He was buried in an unmarked grave in the family graveyard on the Chericoke plantation.

Elsing Green was the home of Braxton from 1760 to 1767. His later plantation house, Chericoke, to which he moved in 1767, is no longer standing. Elsing Green is believed to have been built for him in 1758-60 by his brother George, while Carter was absent in England.

Elsing Green is a large brick U-shaped early Georgian mansion on a high terrace overlooking the Pamunkey River. In elevation, the house is seven bays long on the river front, and is two full stories high beneath a hipped roof. Each side elevation is five bays long with a center door, and on the rear facade appear the two wings and the axial court. The brickwork, regularly laid in Flemish bond throughout, has rubbed and gauged dressings and a high molded water table. Windows are topped by flat arches of splayed bricks. The second floor level is marked by a string course of gauged brick, unmolded and four courses high. Restoration work resulted in evidence of a pedimented gauged brick doorway installed in the center of the river facade.

The main house is flanked by two detached dependencies. These are of brick, a story and a half high, and parallel to the long axis of the mansion. The eastern dependency may date from 1719. The western dependency is a restored kitchen. A smoke house and dairy have been reconstructed on their original foundations and are placed symmetrically in the building complex.

In plan, an off-center hall extends from the south center door halfway through the mansion, to intersect an east-west cross hall that runs the length of the mansion. The ends of this hall each contain a stairway set against the south wall. The southeast corner is occupied by a large parlor, the southwest corner by a smaller living room and each of the wings by a single large room. This plan is repeated on the second floor where there are four bedrooms. The original interior finish of Elsing Green was destroyed in a fire around 1800, and the existing woodwork dates from reconstruction work in 1930. The mansion and grounds are well kept, and much care has been used in restoration, which was carried out with the help of specialists from Colonial Williamsburg. The mansion is used as a private residence and is not open to visitors.



Wakefield.

George Washington Birthplace National Monument, Virginia

Location: Westmoreland County, on the Potomac River, just off Va. 3, about 38 miles east of Fredericksburg. Address: c/o Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park, P.O. Box 679, Fredericksburg, Va. 22401.

The memorial mansion at this site symbolizes "Wakefield," where George Washington was born, on February 22, 1732, and spent the first three years of his life. His family then moved farther up the Potomac to the Hunting Creek plantation that later became known as Mount Vernon. Four years later the family moved again, to an estate on the Rappahannock River opposite Fredericksburg.

In 1718 Augustine Washington, George's father, bought 150 acres fronting on Popes Creek, one mile southeast of his Bridges Creek home. On this tract he built Wakefield, probably between 1723 and 1726. Upon the death of his father, it passed to George's half-brother, Augustine, Jr., who lived there until he died, in 1762. The farm eventually passed to his son, William Augustine, who was living in the home during the War for Independence, when fire accidentally destroyed it. The home was never rebuilt.

In 1882 Washington heirs and the Commonwealth of Virginia donated to the United States the old Washington family burial ground and a small plot of land at the house site. A year later the U.S. government bought an additional 11 acres, and in 1896 erected a granite shaft where members of the family had placed a stone marker in 1815. In 1923 the Wakefield National Memorial Association organized to recover the birthplace grounds and restore them as a national shrine.

Several years later Congress authorized the erection of a house at Wakefield as nearly as possible like the one built by Augustine Washington. By 1931 the association, aided by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., was able to transfer to the government enough land to bring the holding to 349 acres.

Because extensive research on the birthplace house and grounds failed to yield reliable information about the appearance of the original house, the reconstructed memorial mansion is only a general representation of an 18th-century Virginia plantation house. Its design is based on tradition and surviving houses of the period. Archeological excavations by the National Park Service and others, however, have revealed foundation remnants that might well have been those of the original house.

Reconstruction took place in 1931-32, at which time workers moved the granite shaft to the present location. The house has eight rooms, four downstairs and four in the half story upstairs. A central hallway is located on each floor. The bricks were hand-made from the clay of an adjoining field. A tilt-top table in the dining room is the only surviving piece of furniture reported to have been in the original house. The furnishings are designed to portray life in the early 18th century.

In the garden near the house are found only those flowers, vines, herbs and berries common to Virginia gardens of the period. About 50 feet from the house is a typical colonial-period frame kitchen, built on the traditional site of the old kitchen. It is furnished to represent a plantation kitchen of the period of Washington's youth, and displays artifacts recovered on the plantation.

About one mile northwest of the memorial mansion, on the banks of Bridges Creek, are the family burial plot and the site of the home that John Washington, George's great-grandfather, purchased in 1664. The burial plot includes the graves of George Washington's father, grandfather and great-grandfather.

George Washington Birthplace National Monument was established in 1930. It consists of more than 390 acres, all in Federal ownership.

George Wythe House, Virginia ▲

Location: James City County, west side of the Palace Green between the Duke of Gloucester Street and Prince George Street, Williamsburg. Ownership: Colonial Williamsburg, Inc.

This house was the home from 1755 to 1791 of George Wythe, the first professor of law in the United States and a signer of the Declaration of

Independence for Virginia. Designed and built by the amateur architect Richard Taliaferro about 1755, the Wythe House is a superb example of a Georgian brick town house.

Admitted to the bar in 1746, Wythe became associated in practice with John Lewis, a prominent Spotsylvania County attorney, for a period of eight years. In 1755, his eldest brother died and George inherited the large family estate near Hampton, Virginia. Having represented Williamsburg in the House of Burgesses in 1754-55, he now made his home in that town. His brilliant political career resumed in 1758 as a representative in the House of Burgesses (1758-68), mayor of Williamsburg (1768) and clerk of the House of Burgesses (1769-75).

Wythe was sent in 1775 as a delegate to the Continental Congress, where he ably supported Richard Henry Lee's resolution of independence and signed the Declaration. As a speaker of the Virginia House of Delegates in 1777-78, he became one of the three judges of new Virginia high court of chancery. With Thomas Jefferson and Edmund Randolph, Wythe was assigned the task of revising the laws of Virginia, his portion covering the period from the revolution in England to American independence. The committee's report, embracing 126 bills, was made to the Virginia general assembly in 1779, most of the



Wythe House.

bills being adopted in 1785 under Madison's leadership.

On December 4, 1779, Wythe was appointed "Professor of Law and Police" at the College of William and Mary, the first chair of law in the United States. Among his students were Thomas Jefferson, John Marshall and James Monroe. In 1787, he attended the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, and the following year, he represented Williamsburg at the Virginia convention and voted for ratification of the Constitution. That same year he became the chancellor of Virginia, serving in this position until 1801, when, as a result of a judicial reorganization, he became presiding judge over the Richmond and chancery district.

This house was built for Wythe by his father-in-law, the noted Virginia architect Richard Taliaferro about 1755, and Wythe inherited it upon Taliaferro's death in 1757. During the War for Independence, the house served as headquarters for George Washington prior to the siege of Yorktown and for Comte de Rochambeau after the surrender of Lord Cornwallis.

Carefully designed in the early Georgian style, the Wythe House is brick, laid in Flemish bond, the dwelling is two stories high over a basement and has a low hipped roof and two interior chimneys. Smaller windows on the upper level create an illusion that the modestly sized house is larger than it actually is. The simple facade is enriched mainly by the broad muntins and wide frames of the windows and a fine-paneled double door with rectangular transom. Windows, doors and house corners have rubbed dressings, and a modillioned cornice decorates the eaveline.

Each floor consists of four rooms bisected into pairs by a central hall. Chimneys between each of the pairs afford fireplaces for all eight rooms. The handsome stairway contains the only elaborate woodwork, but plaster dados are found in every room, with chair rails on plasterboard, and single molded cornices. On the first floor are a study, parlor, students' room and dining room; on the second, four bedrooms. Furnishings are of the late 18th century or earlier and represent American craftsmanship. Extending behind the house is the formal garden, and to the north are the kitchen, smokehouse, laundry, lumber house and stable.

In 1926, when Bruton Parish acquired the Wythe House, it was in very poor condition. By 1931 the Parish had restored it. The building was then used as a parish house until 1937, when it was acquired by Colonial Williamsburg, Inc. The Wythe House underwent a second restoration in 1939-40, when the existing mantels were installed as the originals had long since disappeared. Today, the building is one of the main attractions at Colonial Williamsburg and is part of the Williamsburg Historic District.



Gunston Hall.

Gunston Hall, Virginia ▲

Location: Fairfax County, on Va. 214, 4 miles east of U.S. 1, near Woodbridge. Ownership: Commonwealth of Virginia, administered by the National Society of Colonial Dames of America.

This house, overlooking the Potomac River a few miles south of Mount Vernon, was the home from 1755 until his death in 1792 of George Mason, a leading political theorist during and just after the War for Independence. Among the various political and constitutional papers he wrote were the "Fairfax Resolves" of July 8, 1774, which asserted the rights of the colonists in their relations with England; the "Virginia Declaration of Rights," in May 1776, which influenced the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Bill of Rights; and the "Objections to the Proposed Constitution," in 1788, which expounded the basis of his opposition to the adoption of the Constitution. Almost as important as his writings was his influence upon younger colleagues, many of whom became leaders in Virginia and national politics.

Mason was an active member of the Virginia legislature from 1775 to 1780. Here in 1776 he framed the major part of the new constitution for Virginia and later was a member of the committee of five entrusted

with the complete revision of Virginia's laws. In 1787 he attended the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia where he was one of the five most frequent speakers in the debates. Because of his opposition to slavery, he refused to sign the Constitution which incorporated the compromise between the New England states and those of the south on the tariff and slave trade.

Mason built Gunston Hall, based on his own design, during the years 1755-58. He employed William Buckland, a skilled craftsman from Oxfordshire, England, to do the rich interior woodcarving. Buckland also designed and constructed the two porches. The Mason family owned the house until 1867. From then until 1932, when the Commonwealth of Virginia acquired it, it was in the hands of various private owners, one of whom restored it in 1912.

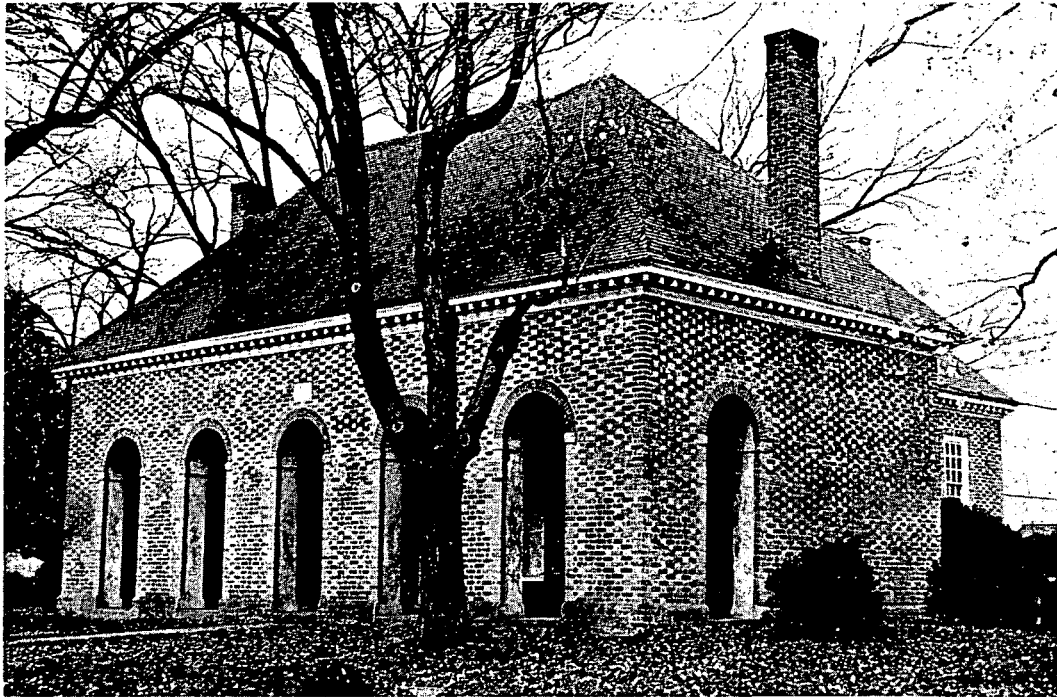
The house itself is unpretentious, but it has elaborate one-story wood porches projecting from both the land and river sides. It is one and one half stories high over a basement and is constructed of red brick, laid in Flemish bond. There is a fine modillioned cornice and two pairs of tall end chimneys. Stone quoins square the corners, and five dormers on both the north and south elevations penetrate the steep gabled roof.

The interior of the house is surprisingly spacious and notably well ornamented. The central hall is broken at the stairway by an unusual pair of parabolic arches. The most outstanding rooms are the Palladian drawing room and the Chinese Chippendale room, both of which are embellished by a variety of intricately carved and brocade covered walls. In the former, the doors and windows are framed with Doric pilasters and entablature, the friezes and moldings are carved with lavish ornament and the corner cupboards are crowned with broken pediments. The other two rooms on the first floor, a library and master bedroom, are relatively unadorned. On the second floor there are six bedrooms which open on each side of a hall that runs from gable to gable. The house is furnished with period pieces, though a few of them belonged to Mason. The grounds feature a boxwood allee, 12 feet high and 250 feet long, surrounded by the restored formal gardens. The house and grounds are open to the public.

Hanover County Courthouse, Virginia ▲

Location: Hanover County, U.S. 301 at its intersection with County Route 1006. Ownership: County of Hanover.

Hanover Courthouse, erected around 1735, is an excellent and well preserved architectural example of a type of courthouse building used



Hanover County Courthouse.

widely in Virginia during the 18th century. The little-altered courthouse has been in continuous use since its construction, and is still utilized for its original purpose.

Hanover County was created by an act of the Virginia assembly from the western part of New Kent County in 1720, and the existing courthouse was built near the center of Hanover County some 15 years later. Patrick Henry first came into prominence when he successfully pleaded the Parson's Cause in Hanover Courthouse in December 1763. In this case which involved a year-long dispute over ecclesiastical salaries, he challenged the right of the Crown to disallow any Virginia law approved by the Governor. He argued that such action violated the British Constitution and the fundamental rights of British subjects. Henry lived across the road for some time at the still extant Hanover Tavern, which his father-in-law John Shelton acquired in 1760. The early 19th-century, small brick clerk's office and stone jail typical of a small Virginia courthouse group are nearby.

Hanover Courthouse is a one-story, T-shaped brick structure with a high hipped roof and modillioned cornice surrounding the entire building. Its most distinguishing feature is the beautifully executed five-bay wide front arcade. The walls are of brick laid in Flemish bond with glazed headers, and there are three interior end chimneys, one located at the end of each arm. The courtroom occupied the entire long central arm and is flanked by a room for the judge on one side and a jury room on the other.



Menokin.

Menokin, Virginia ▲

Location: Richmond County, on an unimproved road about 1 mile west of County Route 690, some four miles northwest of Warsaw.
Ownership: private.

Menokin was the home from 1769 to 1797 of Francis Lightfoot Lee, a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Virginia. Lee, the son of a wealthy planter, was born at the Lee family seat, "Stratford Hall" on October 14, 1734. He did not attend college but received an excellent education at the hands of tutors. Leaving Stratford in 1758, he settled in Loudoun County, Virginia, on an estate near Leesburg which he inherited from his father, Thomas Lee, in 1750.

Less widely known than his oratorical brother, Richard Henry Lee, Francis Lightfoot nevertheless took part in virtually every measure of defiance against the British government. In 1758, he was elected to the House of Burgesses, a body in which he served for 18 years. In 1766, he signed the Westmoreland Association against the Stamp Act, and he was one of the guiding spirits behind the formation of the Virginia committee of correspondence in 1773. After serving in the Virginia conventions of 1774 and 1775, he was chosen as a delegate to the Continental Congress in the latter year. Remaining in Congress until 1779, he demonstrated farsighted vision by insisting that the Americans make one of their goals the free navigation of the Mississippi River. Because of his desire for a quiet country life, he returned to Virginia where he sat briefly in the Virginia Senate before retiring to Menokin.

Built as a gift by Colonel John Tayloe of Mount Airy, Menokin was completed in 1769 when Tayloe's 17-year-old daughter Rebecca married Francis Lightfoot. The exterior of Menokin, a two-story, hip-on-hip roofed house of late Georgian design, is unusual in that it possesses the qualities of a mansion although the residence is modest in its actual dimensions. The house is constructed of local brown sandstone which is covered with plaster except for the elaborate stone trim, in the form of quoins, belt courses and window and door trim. The main facade is divided horizontally by two stone belt courses which occur at the second floor line and at the sill level of the upper windows. The center doorway is surmounted by an arched fanlight, and the whole is framed by broad pilaster-piers and unmoulded archivolt. The mansion quality of the composition was once heightened by two detached two-story, gable-roofed symmetrical service buildings, a kitchen to the east and an office to the west, that were located on the forecourt at right angles to the main house. Neither of these outbuildings are standing today.

In the main house, a center hall containing the stair extends halfway through the structure. On the first floor are a kitchen, dining room, drawing room and bedroom. Upstairs, there are four bedrooms divided into pairs by the central hall. The main rooms once had paneled dados, and the large drawing room a paneled overmantel and cornice enriched with dentils. The stairs was of the open string type with square balusters set at an angle and simply scrolled stair-end brackets.

Menokin has been unoccupied for many years and is now in ruinous condition. The roof and walls on the southeast side have collapsed. The original paneling has been removed from the rooms and placed in storage by the owner for its protection. The yard and grounds, part of a 590-acre farm, are overgrown with vegetation and small trees. Extensive reconstruction work will be required to restore Menokin to its original condition. Menokin is not open to the public, and the land is used for agricultural purposes.

Monticello, Virginia ▲

Location: Albemarle County, just off Va. 53, about 2 miles southeast of Charlottesville. Ownership: Thomas Jefferson Memorial Foundation.

"Monticello," Italian for "Little Mountain," is an enduring tribute to the genius and versatility of Thomas Jefferson, who personally designed and supervised erection of the splendid mansion. He resided in it from 1770 to 1826, and his spirit lives on its architecture and

ingenious devices with which he equipped the home. Sitting amid pleasant gardens and lawns on a hilltop, the residence overlooks Charlottesville and the University of Virginia which Jefferson founded and some of whose buildings he designed.

The eldest of two sons in a family of ten, Jefferson was born in 1743 at Shadwell, a frontier plantation in Goochland (present Albemarle) County, Virginia. On the death of his father in 1757, Jefferson inherited 2,750 acres which he named "Monticello." He attended and graduated from the College of William and Mary in 1760-62 and then studied law in the office of George Wythe at Williamsburg. In 1767, Jefferson was admitted to the Virginia bar and began the practice of law.

At Shadwell, Jefferson assumed the civic responsibilities and prominence his father, a surveyor-magistrate-planter, had enjoyed. In 1770, when fire consumed the structure, he moved to his nearby estate Monticello, where he had already begun building a home. The first part of it completed was the small southwest pavilion, which Jefferson occupied as a bachelor's quarters until January 1772, when he brought his bride, Mary Wayles Shelton, to share it with him. It is still known as "Honeymoon Cottage."

Meanwhile, Jefferson had entered the House of Burgesses in 1769, where he remained until 1775. A literary stylist, he drafted many of the Revolutionary documents of that body, one of his most influential essays being *A Summary View of the Rights of British America* (1774). A delegate to the Continental Congress in 1775-76, he again utilized his literary talents as the chief author of the Declaration of Independence. After resigning from Congress in September 1776, he entered the Virginia House of Delegates, where he helped prepare a constitution for the state. Jefferson also worked with George Wythe and Edmund Pendleton during 1776-78 revising the laws of Virginia, his share including the laws of descent and criminal law. His bill for establishing religious freedom, which completely separated church and state in Virginia, was presented in 1779 and passed seven years later.

Jefferson was elected governor of Virginia in 1779 and served in that capacity until 1781. The British invasion of Virginia in 1781 made his last year in office chaotic. Leaving office on June 3 of that year, Jefferson and the entire Virginia legislature, which had sought refuge at Charlottesville, were forced to flee and barely escaped being taken prisoner by Tarleton at Monticello.

After a two-year period of retirement at Monticello, Jefferson was elected to the Continental Congress in June 1783. The following year, he was appointed by Congress a commissioner to assist Benjamin Franklin and John Adams in negotiating treaties of commerce in



Monticello.

Europe. Upon arriving in Paris, Jefferson was appointed Franklin's successor as minister to France and he remained in that country until 1789.

Jefferson returned to Monticello in December 1789 and the following March Washington appointed him as the first secretary of state under the new United States Constitution. He served in this office until the end of 1793, when he resigned because of serious disagreements over policy with Alexander Hamilton, the secretary of the treasury. On his second retirement from public life, Jefferson returned to Monticello in 1794 and resumed the rebuilding of his Georgian plantation house, remodeling it into a two-story Roman revival mansion of 35 rooms. A cofounder with James Madison of the Democratic-Republican Party, Jefferson became vice president of the United States in 1797 and president in 1800.

After eight years as chief executive, Jefferson retired for the last time to his home and became known as the "Sage of Monticello," corresponding with and entertaining scientists, explorers and statesmen. His pet project during most of his last decade was founding the University of Virginia (1819) in Charlottesville.

Jefferson died only a few hours before John Adams at the age of 83 on July 4, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. For his tombstone at Monticello, ignoring his many high offices and achievements, he chose three accom-

plishments for which he wanted to be remembered: authorship of the Declaration of Independence, the Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom and the founding of the University of Virginia.

The first Monticello, vastly different from the present one, was probably completed about 1775. Constructed of brick with cut-stone trim, it consisted of a central two-story unit, with pedimented gable roof, running from front to rear and one-story gabled wings, set perpendicularly to the central block. The chief architectural accent was the main two-story portico, Doric below and Ionic above, Jefferson made numerous alterations and major changes after the War for Independence. The present two-wing structure, built between 1793 and 1809, incorporates the rooms of the original house at its rear. It also reflects a shift in architectural preference in the United States from Georgian to Roman revival—both elements of which are represented. Jefferson was almost entirely responsible for starting the Roman revival.

The mansion consists of two and one-half stories over a basement and contains 35 rooms. The dominating feature is the central dome over an octagonal room. The house is furnished largely with Jefferson belongings, including a replica of the small portable desk on which he probably wrote the Declaration of Independence. Some of his clever inventions in the residence are a seven-day calendar-clock and a dumb-waiter. One room contains one of the first parquet floors in the United States. The upper levels, accessible only by narrow staircases, are not shown to the public.

In designing Monticello, Jefferson sought to make the plantation outbuildings as inconspicuous as possible. His solution was to construct two series of rooms for these purposes beneath the outer sides of two long L-shaped terraces extending from the house. Below the south terrace are the kitchen, cook's room, servants' rooms, room for smoking meat and the dairy. At the end of this terrace stands the "Honeymoon Cottage." Under the far side of the north terrace are the stables, carriage house, icehouse and laundry. Jefferson used the small building terminating this terrace, adjacent to which is the paddock, as an office. An underground passageway, containing storage rooms for wine, beer, cider and rum, connects the basement of the main house with the series of service rooms along the outer sides of the two ells.

Upon Jefferson's death in 1826, his daughter Martha inherited Monticello, but was soon forced to sell it because of his heavy debts. The property was acquired by Uriah Phillips Levy in 1836 and remained in the possession of his heirs until 1923, when the Thomas Jefferson Memorial Foundation purchased the mansion and 658 acres of land for \$500,000. The house and grounds were restored and opened to the public in 1924.



Montpelier. Courtesy Virginia State Library.

Montpelier, Virginia ▲

Location: Orange County, on Va. 20, about 4 miles west of Orange.
Ownership: private.

James Madison, president and statesman, owned Montpelier for 76 years. He was born in King George County in 1751. In 1760 his father moved to Orange County to settle on a tract of land that had been in the family since 1723. There his father built the central portion of the present house. Madison lived at Montpelier all his life except for periods of public service—notably as a member of the Continental Congress, 1780-93; as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention, 1787, in which he helped draft the Constitution; as a member of Congress, 1789-97, as Jefferson's secretary of state, 1801-09; and as fourth president of the United States, 1809-17.

During Madison's first term as president, he retained William Thornton and Benjamin H. Latrobe to remodel the house. They added single one-story wings to both sides and changed the exterior walls from brick to Virginia limestone; apparently Madison later added the huge Doric portico. After serving his second term, he and his wife, Dolley, retired to Montpelier, where they held court for an unending succession of visitors, including Lafayette and Daniel Webster. After Madison's death, in 1836, at the age of 85, Dolley returned to Washington, where she lived until her death, 13 years later. She and her husband are buried at Montpelier.

In 1907 the owners of the house enlarged the wings and raised them to a level with the central portion of the house. Montpelier retains its historic appearance. Except for the Madison family cemetery, it is not open to the public. The grounds are beautifully landscaped and have been carefully maintained, as has the house.



Mount Vernon.

Mount Vernon, Virginia ▲

Location: Fairfax County, on Mount Vernon Memorial Highway, about 7 miles south of Alexandria. Ownership: Mount Vernon Ladies' Association.

Overlooking the Potomac River, in a setting of serene beauty, is George Washington's plantation estate, Mount Vernon. Its sweeping lawns, beautiful gardens, magnificent mansion and carefully planned outbuildings are a superb representation of a Virginia plantation home. Many shrines commemorate George Washington as president, military leader and statesmen, but only Mount Vernon reveals the plantation farmer and country gentleman.

The history of the estate dates back to the late 17th century. In 1674 John Washington and Nicholas Spencer obtained a 5,000-acre grant of land along the Potomac. In 1690 they divided it. Mildred Washington inherited the Washington half, and in 1726 sold it to her brother Augustine, George's father. He deeded it to his eldest son, Lawrence, George's half-brother, who settled on the estate and probably began to construct the present mansion. In 1754, two years after Lawrence's death, George Washington inherited the property. Military service in the French and Indian War kept him away until 1759, when he married and brought his new bride there. For 15 years he lived on the estate, whose mansion had by that time been partially built, as a prosperous planter; and planned the mansion and grounds as they appear today. He had hardly begun to enlarge the mansion and carry out his plans, when, in 1775, he went to Philadelphia to serve

in the Second Continental Congress. Congress appointed him commander-in-chief of the continental army, and it was six years before he again saw Mount Vernon.

While Washington was away, during the War for Independence, a kinsman, Lund Washington, carried out his plans for the estate; he enlarged the main house, built the outbuildings, landscaped the grounds and extended the gardens. Washington found the mansion almost completed in 1781, when he stopped off on his way to and from Yorktown. After resigning his commission two years later, he returned to Mount Vernon. In 1789, elected president, he departed once again and was able to return only about twice a year for the following eight years. In 1797 he returned for a final time, retired and died two years later. He and his wife are buried on the estate.

In 1858 the Mount Vernon Ladies' Association of the Union acquired title to Mount Vernon from Washington's great-grandnephew. By that time only the mansion remained; all the furnishings disappeared. The association has refurnished the house with period pieces, including many of the originals. At its peak, during Washington's lifetime, the estate contained about 8,000 acres and was divided into five farms. After Washington's death four of them were divided and subdivided and only the present 500-acre tract remains.

Mount Vernon is a noteworthy late Georgian mansion with a palladian villa plan. Most striking is the high-columned piazza, extending the full length of the structure and overlooking the Potomac. The exterior wood siding is beveled, and its paint contains sand to give the appearance of stone. The first floor of the house is divided by a central hall. From the piazza side, to the right are the music room, west parlor and banquet hall; to the left, the bedchamber, dining room and library. On the second floor are the blue bedroom, Lafayette's bedroom, the yellow bedroom, Nelly Custis' bedroom and George Washington's bedroom. The third floor includes three bedrooms and two storerooms. The kitchen and pantries are located outside but adjacent to the house. Various outbuildings have been restored in detail, as have the gardens and lawn. The mansion and grounds are open to the public.

Peyton Randolph House, Virginia ▲

Location: James City County, Nicholson Street at North England Street, Williamsburg. Ownership: Colonial Williamsburg, Inc.

Peyton Randolph, a president of both the First and Second Continental Congresses and a widely respected political leader in Virginia, lived in this house from 1745 until his untimely death in 1775. Ran-

dolph was the king's attorney from 1748 to 1766 and speaker of the Virginia House of Burgesses from 1766 to 1775. Conservative in temperament and representing the point of view of the colonial planter aristocracy, Randolph nevertheless moved steadily with the current of revolutionary sentiment in Virginia after the 1765 Stamp Act crisis, though he was moderating in his influence and cautious in his leadership. He was made the presiding officer of every important revolutionary assemblage in Virginia. In 1773, he was named chairman of the committee of correspondence, and he presided over the provincial conventions of 1774-75. Randolph was selected first in the list of seven delegates appointed by the Virginia convention of 1774 to the First Continental Congress, and in turn was elected the first president of that body in 1774 and again in 1775. His sudden death in Philadelphia on October 22, 1775 from a stroke of apoplexy brought great distress in Virginia, where his leadership abilities were widely respected.

The Peyton Randolph House is a superb example of an early Georgian frame house with fine and largely original interiors. The house was erected in three steps between 1715 and 1725. The oldest portion, the west end, was constructed by William Robertson in 1715-16. The east end was built as a separate house around 1724 by Sir John Randolph, who acquired the older house and soon united the two structures into a single house with a symmetrical facade seven-bays-long by building a connecting center section.

Peyton Randolph House, Courtesy Colonial Williamsburg Foundation.



The Peyton Randolph House is a long rectangular two-story frame house with gable roof, modillioned cornice and weather boarded siding. The second floor line is marked by a wood string cornice. The oldest portion of the house has its four rooms arranged in a double row, and there is no center hall. The rooms are grouped around a central chimney, and one of the rooms is utilized as the stair hall. The center section of the house contains a large stair hall; the east portion of the residence is comprised of one large drawing room which occupies the entire depth of the building and has a large interior chimney. The main rooms are fully paneled, and most of these early Georgian interiors are original. The house has been restored and is open to visitors.

St. John's Episcopal Church, Virginia ▲

Location: Henrico County, East Broad and 24th Streets, Richmond.
Ownership: Congregation of St. John's Episcopal Church.

In St. John's Church on March 23, 1775, Patrick Henry, spellbinding orator and radical political leader of the Revolution, achieved immortal fame with his "Liberty or Death" speech, which sounded a clarion call for his fellow Virginians. Henry had been in the public eye for a dozen years. His brilliant defense of colonial self-government in the "Parson's Cause" of 1763 attracted widespread attention. Two



St. John's Episcopal Church.

years later his "Virginia Resolutions," inspired by the Stamp Act, stirred the colonies and propelled Henry to leadership of the radical party in Virginia. None who heard the speech was likely to forget the the concluding words: "Caesar had his Brutus—Charles the first, his Cromwell—and George the Third . . . may profit by their example." Henry continued to hold the forefront during the decade of increasing colonial agitation that ended in war. As a delegate to the First Continental Congress in 1774, he supported strongly the radical measures, and his conduct gave evidence of strong nationalistic leanings.

Virginia's royal governor, Lord Dunmore, called a meeting of the general assembly for late in November 1774 but prorogued it when he learned of the participation of the Virginia leaders in "The Association" to boycott British goods. Members of the discontinued assembly arranged to meet in Richmond on March 20, 1775. For the meeting place, they chose the largest building in the community, the "New Church" or the "Church on Richmond Hill," as it was variously called. When the convention assembled, most of the leaders of Virginia politics were present. Among the approximately 120 members were George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Patrick Henry, George Wythe, Benjamin Harrison, Carter Braxton, George Mason, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Andrew Lewis, Richard Bland, Robert Carter Nicholas and Edmund Pendleton.

The tone of the convention was conciliatory at first, but Henry soon offered a series of resolutions to put the colony into a state of defense. The resolutions were defended by Lee, Washington and Jefferson, but the conservative members attacked them as rash and provocative. On March 23, Henry rose to defend the resolutions in a short speech, which closed with the stirring words: "I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death."

The speech swept the convention to Henry's viewpoint, and his resolutions passed. True to his prophecy, news of the outbreak of fighting at Lexington and Concord came within a short time, and the colonies were at war.

The church in which Henry made his speech was built in 1740-41, on land donated by Col. William Byrd, and remained the only church in Richmond until 1814. Originally constructed as a simple rectangular building, 25 feet wide and 40 feet long, with the long axis running east and west, the church was enlarged in December 1772. At this time, an addition was built on the north side and the interior rearranged so that the addition became the nave. At the same time, also, a belfry was constructed over the west end of the original church. This was the church as it existed at the time of Patrick Henry's famous speech.

St. John's Church has been altered several times since 1772. In 1830

the nave was enlarged and the interior of the church rearranged. In the next few years, the original belfry was taken down and replaced by a tower and bell at the north end. A chancel and vestry room were added to the south end in 1880, giving it the cross shape it now has. A hurricane blew the spire down in 1896. The replacement was similar to the original spire of the time of Henry's speech. In 1799 the City of Richmond added two lots to the church property, and the church cemetery became a public burying ground. It was the only public cemetery in Richmond until 1826. Among the graves are those of George Wythe, a Virginia signer of the Declaration of Independence, and Elizabeth Arnold Poe, mother of Edgar Allan Poe. The church is attractively maintained and is one of the most noted of Richmond's historic shrines.

Saratoga, Virginia ▲

Location: Clarke County, County Route 723 about .5 mile south of Boyce. Ownership: private.

Daniel Morgan, a brigadier general in the continental army and one of the ablest American military leaders during the War for Independence, lived at Saratoga from 1780 until 1798. Morgan gained his first military experience in 1755 when he accompanied Braddock's expedition against the French as a wagoner. In 1771 he was appointed a captain in the militia and in 1774 saw service in the Ohio Valley against the Indians. He led one of Virginia's two companies of riflemen to Boston and joined Washington's army in August 1775. In December of that year, he took part in Colonel Benedict Arnold's assault on Quebec. After Arnold was wounded, Morgan assumed command and penetrated a considerable distance into the city, where he was trapped and surrendered to overwhelming odds. When he was released the following fall, Congress commissioned him colonel of the 11th Virginia Continental Regiment of Riflemen.

Joining Washington's army at Morristown, New Jersey, in the spring of 1777, Morgan and his regiment participated in various movements until August 17, when Washington ordered him north to assist Gates in opposing Burgoyne's advance down the Hudson River. As commander of an elite corps of riflemen and light infantry he took a major part in the two battles of Saratoga and in November 1777 rejoined Washington's army to participate in operations around Philadelphia. Ill health and dissatisfaction at being passed over for a promotion led to his resignation on July 18, 1779, when he retired to his Virginia farm and began construction of Saratoga.



Saratoga.

At the recommendation of General Horatio Gates, Morgan was recalled to duty in the summer of 1780, and on October 13, Congress promoted him to brigadier general. His victory at Cowpens, South Carolina, on January 17, 1781, was one of the most decisive battles of the war. For this victory, he received the thanks of Congress and was awarded a gold medal. Plagued by ague and rheumatism, Morgan left for Saratoga on February 10, 1781, and completed construction of his home the following year. Ill health forced him to move to Soldier's Rest, one of his smaller farms, in 1798, and again in 1799, when he took up residence with his daughter's family in Winchester until his death in 1806.

Saratoga survives as one of the largest and best preserved Revolutionary period mansions in the Shenandoah Valley. It is a massive two-and-one-half-story stone structure laid in random gray limestone and covered by a gable roof. A chimney is built within the walls at either end. The modillioned cornice on the north and south elevations are original, but the six dormers may be later additions.

The central entrance in the front facade is sheltered by a simple gable-roofed porch. In the central bay above the porch, and in a similar position on the rear elevation, is a large semicircular arched window. All other windows have flat arches. The one-story brick wing, adjoining the main house on the west side, is a later addition. This wing is con-

ected by means of a one-story frame passageway with the original stone kitchen that stands to the northwest of the mansion. Other original buildings include the smokehouse, a stone shed and stone dairy.

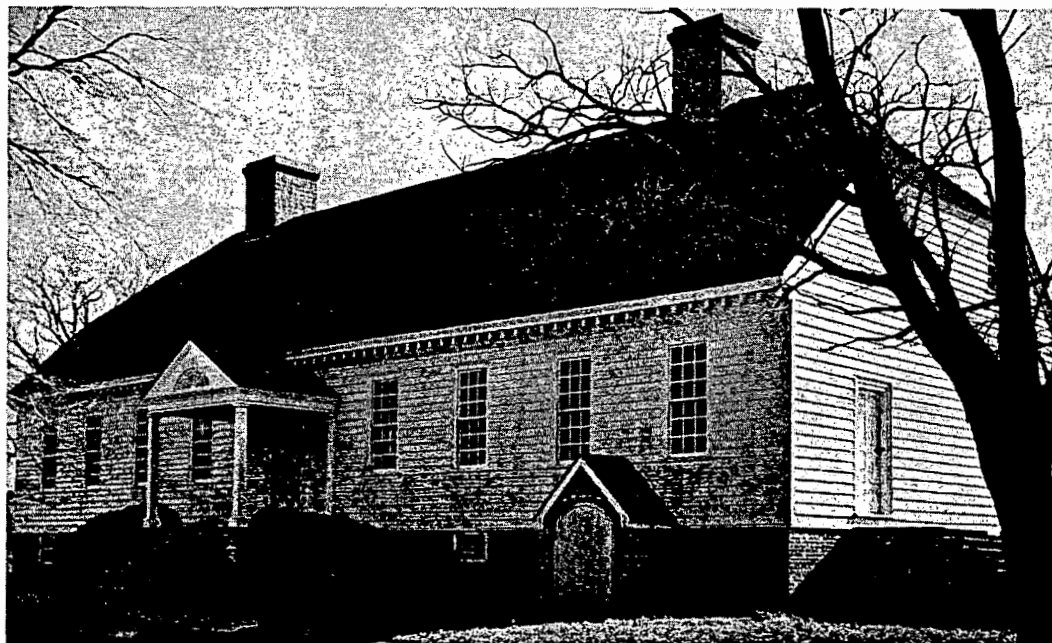
The central stairhall, which originally extended the depth of the house, has been partitioned into two sections, resulting in alterations to the staircase. The large drawing room to the right features a paneled dado, modillioned cornice and projecting paneled chimney piece. To the left of the hall are two rooms, each containing a corner fireplace and good woodwork. The most distinguished woodwork on the second floor is found in the large bedroom over the drawing room which features a projecting paneled chimney piece similar to the one beneath it. Still used as a private residence, Saratoga is not open to visitors.

Scotchtown, Virginia ▲

Location: Hanover County, on Va. 685, approximately 10 miles northwest of Ashland. Ownership: Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities.

Scotchtown, an impressive frame mansion built about 1719, was Patrick Henry's home from 1771 until 1777—tumultuous years during which the noted orator and wartime governor of Virginia secured his

Scotchtown. Courtesy Virginia State Chamber of Commerce.



place in American history. From here he left in September 1774 to attend the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia. The next year, as a delegate to the Virginia convention sitting in St. John's Church in Richmond, he gave his famous "Liberty or Death" speech. Before leaving for the Second Continental Congress in May 1775, he learned of the outbreak of war and marched his militia force of 5,000 toward Williamsburg, where he forced Governor Dunmore to pay for colonial gunpowder he had seized. After anxious deliberation in Philadelphia, Henry returned to organize and train Virginia troops. He was appointed colonel of the First Virginia Regiment, one of two regiments of state regulars raised in August 1775. Elected governor of Virginia in June 1776, he served in this capacity until the summer of 1779. A vigorous wartime governor, he sent George Rogers Clark on a secret military mission to the Illinois country with Virginia militia in 1778, which resulted in the expulsion of the British from the northwest.

Built by Colonel Charles Chiswell of Williamsburg for his country home on a tract he acquired in 1717, Scotchtown is a one-and-one-half-story frame structure on a brick foundation with a jerkin-head roof and two massive center chimneys. On the first floor is a wide central hall extending from the front to the rear porches. On either side of the hall are four rooms grouped around the chimneys. The full basement is partitioned into eight rooms and a wine cellar with exterior entrances on the north and east sides.

Scotchtown was purchased by the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities in 1958. Restoration of the structure was completed in the 1960's. The house and grounds are open to visitors.

Stratford Hall, Virginia ▲

Location: Westmoreland County, just north of Va. 214, about 1 mile northeast of Lerty. Ownership: Robert E. Lee Memorial Foundation, Inc.

This architecturally outstanding mansion along the Potomac River was the ancestral home of the Lee family. The list of noted men who were born or lived there reads like a miniature "Who's Who" for Virginia: four members of the governor's council, 12 burgesses, four members of the Virginia convention of 1776, two signers of the Declaration of Independence, several governors of Virginia, members of the Continental Congress, diplomats and military leaders. Of those born at Stratford Hall, in addition to the great Confederate general, the list includes the signers of the Declaration: Richard Henry, who introduced the resolution of independence from Britain on June 7, 1776,



Stratford Hall.

and Francis Lightfoot Lee; and three other Revolutionary leaders (William, Arthur, and Thomas Ludwell Lee). A later resident was Col. Henry "Lighthorse Harry" Lee, a military hero in the War for Independence. His son, Robert E., Confederate leader during the Civil War, was born in the house in 1807.

Architecturally, Stratford Hall is a magnificent residence that illustrates the transition from the 17th-century William and Mary style to early Georgian. Its H-plan gives it a kinship with the capitol building at Williamsburg and Tuckahoe in Goochland County, Virginia. The mansion is one story high over an elevated basement and has a hip roof. Variations in color and size between the Flemish bond brickwork in the basement and upper story soften the austerity of the bold mass of the house. In the central connecting arm the flights of stone steps leading up to the north and south entrances, which diminish in width as they ascend to the main floor level and are flanked by ponderous balustrades, are conjectural reconstructions, erected in 1929.

One of its distinguishing characteristics is the presence of twin sets of four-chimney stacks on the wings, connected by arches and enclosing balustraded roof decks from which the Lees could view navigation on the Potomac River.

"Lighthorse Harry" Lee, who took up residence at Stratford Hall after 1782, made many changes. By 1800 he had altered or replaced the exterior stairs and changed most of the interior trim (except that in the central block's great hall) to the Adam style. The floor plan is unusual in colonial dwellings. The two wings each have four rooms,

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divided laterally by a central hallway on the main floor. The connecting central block consists of the fully paneled great hall—one of the most formal and monumental rooms of the early Georgian period in the English colonies. The basement contains service rooms and some bedrooms; the main floor, living quarters and bedrooms.

Four service buildings flank the mansion at each corner of the square. In the entrance forecourt are the kitchen and library, one-and-one-half-story brick structures with jerkin-head roofs. At the rear corners are a school and office, with hip roofs. Also on the grounds are a stable, smokehouse and mill. Seven of the 12 original structures that were still standing in 1929 have been restored.

In 1929, the Robert E. Lee Memorial Foundation, Inc., acquired the mansion and 1,100 acres of the original 16,000-acre estate on which Col. Thomas Lee built the house in 1725-30. The Stratford Hall estate, maintained as a historic-house museum and operating 18th-century plantation, is in excellent condition. The formal gardens have been restored, as well as the walks and shrubbery.

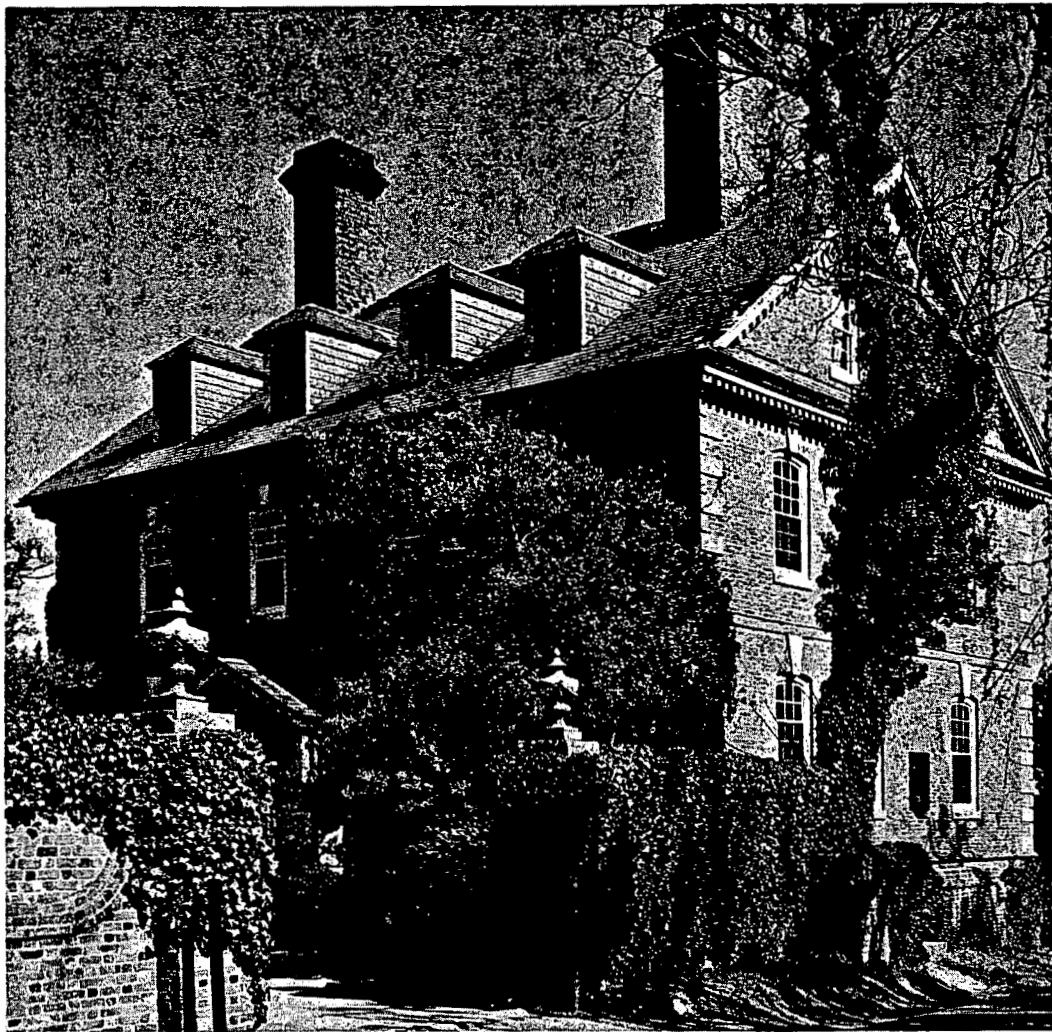
Thomas Nelson, Jr., House, Virginia ▲

Location: York County, Main and Pearl Streets, Yorktown; included in Colonial National Historical Park.

Thomas Nelson, Jr., a signer of the Declaration of Independence for Virginia and wartime governor of his State, was the son of a wealthy planter and merchant. After attending Christ's College in Cambridge, England, he was elected to the House of Burgesses from 1764-74 and later three of the provincial congresses from 1774-76. A strong supporter of Patrick Henry's motion to arm Virginia in March 1775, Nelson served in the Continental Congress from 1775-77 and again briefly in 1779. In the Virginia convention of 1776, he introduced and won approval of a resolution calling upon Congress to declare independence which he later took to Congress in Philadelphia.

Appointed brigadier general and commander-in-chief of the Virginia militia in 1777, Nelson raised a company of light cavalry at his own expense and marched to Philadelphia in July 1778. As a result of the British invasion of Virginia in May 1781, the legislature elected him governor and granted him powers approaching those of a military dictator. In September 1781, he led more than 3,200 Virginia militiamen to assist Washington in the final siege operations against Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Nelson sacrificed much of his personal fortune to pay public debts accumulated in security for Virginia's loan in 1780 and in provisioning



Thomas Nelson Jr. House. Photograph taken prior to restoration. Courtesy Thomas L. Williams.

troops. These activities left him impoverished and he was forced to move to a small Hanover County estate, "Offley Hoo," where he died in 1789 as a result of a severe asthmatic condition.

Built about 1740-41, this residence served as Nelson's home from 1766 to 1781. According to family tradition, the house served as the second headquarters of Cornwallis during the siege of Yorktown, and with Nelson's permission, American artillery shelled and hit the house. The Marquis de Lafayette was quartered there when in 1824 he attended the celebration of the anniversary of the Battle of Yorktown, in which he had played a key role. The house was rehabilitated in 1920-21 and was acquired by the National Park Service and added to Colonial National Historical Park in 1968. When this volume went to press, an extensive research and restoration program was being carried out preparatory to opening the building to the public.

The Nelson House is an impressive specimen of early Georgian

architecture. It is a rectangular, two-story brick house with a steep, strongly dentiled cornice, broad gabled roof and two massive interior chimneys. The Flemish bond brickwork includes a fine gauged-brick water table and a gauged belt course. The corners are quoined in stone; the window sills and lintels and their tall keystones are of stone, while the deep flat window arches are of brick with segmental soffits. The quoins and two levels of tall windows give the house a strong vertical effect. The north center door, which is original, has simple gauged and molded brick piers that are topped by a brick pediment.

The interior of the house, except for the balustrade and handrail of the stairs which was damaged in the Civil War and since restored, remains almost intact. On one side of the off-center hall are two small rooms, with a lobby and service stairs between them. On the opposite side of the hall, are two larger rooms, divided by a tiny one, probably a pantry. The general plan is repeated upstairs, where there are four bedrooms. From a decorative standpoint, the most striking chamber is the northeast drawing room.

Yorktown Battlefield, Colonial National Historical Park, Virginia ☒

Location: James City County and York County, 13 miles east of Williamsburg on U.S. 17. Address: P.O. Box 210, Yorktown, Va. 23490.

Here on October 19, 1781, after a 20-day siege, Lord Cornwallis surrendered his British army to an allied French and American force under George Washington, virtually ending the war and assuring American independence. Smaller scale fighting continued and two more years of negotiations were necessary however, before the British government would accept defeat and consent to sign the Treaty of Paris, September 3, 1783, formally recognizing the independence of the United States.

In May 1781, Lord Cornwallis transferred the scene of his operations from North Carolina to Virginia, and in August, receiving order from Sir Henry Clinton to fortify a naval base in the Lower Chesapeake Bay, he selected Yorktown and Gloucester Point, on opposite sides of the York River several miles above its mouth. The Americans and their French allies moved swiftly to trap Cornwallis in Yorktown. The French fleet under Admiral de Grasse blockaded Chesapeake Bay on August 30 and cut off the British from all aid by sea. Earlier on August 19 Washington and Rochambeau began their march south from New York City and laid siege to Yorktown from September 28 to October 17. With superiority of numbers—8,845 Americans and 7,800 French to 8,300 British—Washington quickly rendered the British position un-

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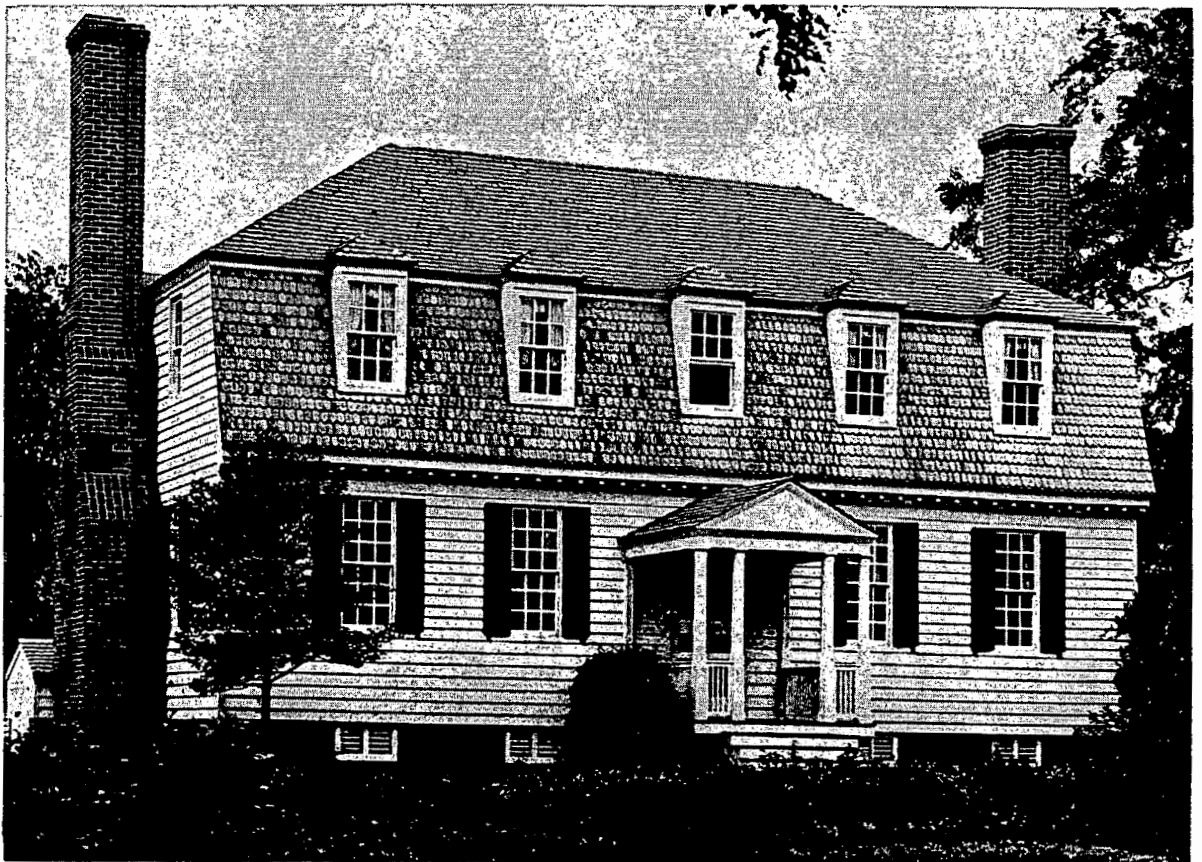
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tenable. On October 17, Cornwallis asked for terms. On the 19th the British army marched out of its fortifications and surrendered. Although a treaty of peace was not signed until two years later, Yorktown was the military climax of the Revolution and virtually ended the fighting.

Yorktown Battlefield lies in and around the colonial town of Yorktown. The park contains the restored fortifications and gun emplacements of the opposing armies. A self-guiding tour road with interpretive markers and field exhibits leads to the principal historic features. One mile from Yorktown is the restored Moore House, where the articles of capitulation for Cornwallis' army were drafted. Several historic buildings within the town itself have also been restored. A visitor center provides information and orientation service and houses museum exhibits relating to the events that ended the Revolution. Yorktown Battlefield is linked with Jamestown Island, scene of the first permanent English colony in America, by the Colonial Parkway, and all three units are administered as Colonial National Historical Park. Together with nearby Williamsburg, the park offers a unique panorama of America's colonial and Revolutionary history.

Moore House, Yorktown Battlefield, Colonial National Historical Park.





Traveller's Rest.

Traveller's Rest, West Virginia ▲

Location: Jefferson County, on W.V. 48, 3.3 miles northeast of Lee-town, Kearneysville vicinity. Ownership: Private.

Traveler's Rest was the home from 1773 to 1790 of Horatio Gates, a major general in the continental army. Gates played a leading military role during the War for Independence. He participated in the victory at Saratoga in 1777, and for a time in 1777-78 some members of the Continental Congress seriously considered him as a possible replacement for George Washington as commander-in-chief.

Born in Great Britain, Gates served in the British Army during the French and Indian War and rose to the rank of major. In June 1775 he accepted a commission as brigadier general to become the first adjutant general of the continental army.

Gates joined the army besieging Boston where his talent as a capable administrator soon brought effective results. By writing the first army regulations and maintaining military records, Gates brought order to the chaotic situation in the amateur army. His professional experience enabled him to set up procedures for recruiting and training new soldiers. Gates' role in the northern department throughout much of 1776 and 1777 was marked by intrigues through Congress over whether he or Major General Philip Schuyler should command. Gates, who gained command just after the fall of Fort Ticonderoga, was fortunate since the brilliantly conducted defensive campaign by Schuyler had set the stage for an American victory. Aided by such superb com-

bat officers as General Benedict Arnold, Colonel Daniel Morgan and General Benjamin Lincoln, the cautious Gates won the two battles of Saratoga, and on October 17, 1777, took General Burgoyne's entire army of 5,800 men prisoner. This victory marked the turning point of the War for Independence and led to the French Alliance.

Gates' influence rose sharply and he now began to overshadow Washington, who had just been defeated in the battles of Brandywine and Germantown. In November 1777, Congress appointed Gates president of the board of war, a position that made him technically superior to Washington. In June 1780, Gates accepted command of the southern army at a time when the military situation was extremely critical. The British had just captured Charleston and had established control over most of Georgia and the Carolinas. Disregarding the advice of his general officers, Gates began a direct advance on the British with his tiny army. This led him to Camden, where he suffered one of the most crushing American defeats of the entire war. As a result, the South passed almost entirely under British domination, and General Nathanael Greene assumed Gates' command in December 1780. In August 1782, Congress called Gates out of retirement, and he served as Washington's second-in-command with the main army at Newburgh, New York, from 1782-83.

Traveller's Rest was built by Horatio Gates in two stages, starting with the eastern portion of the existing house in 1773 and ending with the addition of the western section a few years later. Both the original portion and the addition are constructed of local limestone laid in ashlar style. The eastern section is a one-and-one-half-story structure over a full basement with a gable roof, once covered with wood shingles but now covered with metal. There is a chimney at the east end and a second chimney located in the center of the rear wall. The basement and first floor each contained three rooms, and the attic space was probably then one large room which was lighted by gable windows. The large basement room at the front of the house was paved with stone and served as the kitchen and possibly a dining room.

The entrance door, located in the westernmost bay of the four-bay-wide front facade of the 1773 house, opens into a small stair hall. Extending across the front of the residence is the main parlor, which is the most noteworthy room in the house. This room has a wood cornice and its fireplace is paneled from floor to ceiling as is the hall.

Gates' addition to the western end of the 1773 house is also a one-and-one-half-story structure with a full basement. This stone addition has a chimney on its west end and originally contained one large room in the basement and also on the first floor. The basement room has a large fireplace, a brick floor and a ceiling of plaster. The chimney and chimney breast of the fireplace in the room above is paneled from floor

to ceiling. This room was subdivided in the 19th century by means of partitions to form the present dining room, kitchen and pantry. On the second floor, partitions were introduced, probably by Gates, to form a center hall and small storage room, and two end bedrooms. The dormers lighting these rooms were probably added in the early 19th century. Most of the original wrought iron door hinges have survived, and there are wide board floors throughout the first and second stories.

Gates lived at Traveller's Rest until 1790, when he sold his plantation, emancipated his slaves and moved to New York City. The house is largely original and has never been restored. Still used as a private residence, Traveller's Rest is not open to visitors.

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