POLITICAL and MILITARY AFFAIRS, 1783-1830

"To Form a More Perfect Union"

THE NATIONAL SURVEY
OF HISTORIC SITES
AND BUILDINGS

UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
NATIONAL PARK SERVICE
ON THE COVER

The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings

Theme XII
Political and Military Affairs, 1783-1830

1959

United States Department of the Interior
Fred A. Seaton, Secretary

National Park Service
Conrad L. Wirth, Director
PREFACE

The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings is a resumption of the Historic Sites Survey begun in 1937, under the authority of the Historic Sites Act of 1935. During World War II, and the emergency following, it was necessary to suspend these studies. The Survey has now been resumed as part of the National Park Service MISSION 56 program.

The purpose of the Survey, as outlined in the Historic Sites Act, is to "make a survey of historic and archeologic sites, buildings, and objects for the purpose of determining which possess exceptional value as commemorating or illustrating the history of the United States." In carrying out this basic directive, each site and building considered in the Survey is evaluated in terms of the Criteria for Classification, which are listed on page 62 of this report.

When completed, the Survey will make recommendations to the Director of the National Park Service and the Secretary of the Interior as to the sites of "exceptional value." This will assist the National Park Service in preparing the National Recreation Plan, including sites which may be administered by the National Park Service to fill in gaps in the historical and archeological representation within the National Park System. It will also recommend and encourage programs of historical and archeological preservation being carried out by state and local agencies.

Each theme study prepared in the course of the Survey will consist of two parts: a brief analysis of the theme itself, and a discussion of the sites and buildings which were considered in connection with the
study. The historians who prepared this report made personal visits to the more important sites in 1958 and 1959.

This study is the result of a joint effort by three historians of the National Park Service; Robert F. Fenton, National Capital Parks; Frank Sarles, Region One Office, and Charles E. Shedd, Jr., Region Five Office, in consultation with the Branch of History in the Washington Office of the National Park Service. The historical summary of the theme was written by Mr. Shedd, who coordinated and assembled the report.

After completion, the study was presented to the Consulting Committee for the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings. The Committee consists of Dr. Waldo Leland, American Historical Association; Dr. S. K. Stevens, American Association for State and Local History; Dr. Louis Wright, Folger Library; Mr. Earl H. Reed, American Institute of Architects; Dr. Richard Howland, National Trust for Historical Preservation; Mr. Eric Gugler, American Scenic and Historical Preservation Society; Dr. J. O. Brew, Committee for the Recovery of Archeological Remains; and Mr. Frederick Johnson, Robert S. Peabody Foundation for American Archeology.

The over-all Survey, as well as the theme study which follows, is under the general direction of John O. Littleton, Chief, National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings, who works under the general supervision of Herbert E. Kahler, Chief Historian, Branch of History, and of Ronald F. Lee, Chief, Division of Interpretation of the National Park Service.

Conrad L. Wirth
Director
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The work of the National Survey profits from the experience and knowledge of a considerable number of persons and organizations. Every effort is made to solicit the considered opinion of as many qualified persons as possible in reaching final selection of the most significant sites. Assistance in the preparation of this study from the following is acknowledged:

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Battle of Plattsburgh
POLITICAL AND MILITARY AFFAIRS, 1783-1830

A Summary of the Theme
INTRODUCTION

In 1783 the union of American states emerged shaken but independent from eight years of warfare with the British motherland. The American-French victory at Yorktown in October 1781 had decided the military phase of the Revolution, but many months passed before the machinery of diplomacy succeeded in grinding out the peace settlement which spelled the formal end of hostilities between the warring powers in the Old World and the New.

Now the Congress faced the task of making workable the new union of states. During the long years of war there had been rivalry and jealousy among the 13 former colonies, but always the struggle against the common enemy had overridden internal dissension. Somehow, the loose Confederation had kept the states more or less united in their stand against the Empire. Now, with the end of the war, the old rivalries, a depressed economy, political instability and uncontrolled territorial expansion challenged the existence of the newly-independent union. For the next generation and more, the effort to complete the winning of independence and establish economic, political and military security would consume the talents and energies of the leaders into whose hands destiny had delivered the fate of the United States.

The summary which follows is devoted to the political and military events which influenced the history of the Nation in its first crucial years. An earlier school of history attempted to tell the country's story almost wholly in terms of battles and politics.
lected were the equally important economic, social and geographical in-
fluences which molded the republic. In attempting to redress the balance,
later scholars have perhaps gone too far afield in another direction, so
that, although partly right, their interpretations have been no less
distorted than those of the first American historians who saw in poli-
tics and war the key to an understanding of national development.

Of necessity, this outline returns to the historical approach
of an earlier day. Its purpose is to provide a background for the list-
ing of specific historic sites and buildings which relate to military
and political affairs from the end of the Revolutionary War to the Age
of Jackson. Accordingly, within the scope of this outline emphasis
must be limited to subject matter which introduces the selection of
sites and buildings most illustrative of the historical theme. While
it is recognized that a multitude of forces were at work in the period
under consideration, these can be treated only in their relationship
to the subject of military and political affairs. Other themes within
the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings are intended to
round out the picture of national development, of which the present re-
port constitutes only one aspect.

I. Victory and the New Challenge

The peace settlement of 1783 between Great Britain and her
late antagonists, the United States, France and Spain, found the new
western republic beset by difficulties which would have taxed the re-
sources of the most firmly-rooted national structure. War-time prosper-
ity was evaporating, paper currency issued by the millions during the
war was virtually worthless and public credit had reached the vanishing
point. Commerce had fallen to half its pre-war level and agricultural
products glutted a market which could neither dispose of them at home
or sell them abroad. Restless veterans returned to find their homes
and land burdened with debts they could not hope to discharge. Creditors,
forced to receive payment in depreciated currency, were little better
off than their debtors. Congress depended for its very existence on
the reluctant financial support of the several states and was powerless
to act in the face of economic chaos. Only foreign loans maintained the
precarious solvency of the central government. Unable to assure the
economic well-being of its citizens, the central government was equally
unable to protect the lives of the settlers who during the war had
helped to hold the western frontier against the incursions of the
British and their Indian allies.

Against this bleak picture could be set the positive results
of the peace with Britain. First and foremost, political independence
had been fairly won, and state legislatures sat where once Royal gover-
nors had ruled. If the legislatures were not "democratic" as that term
is understood today they were nonetheless more responsive to a broad
base of citizenship than had been any previous body of authority.1 In
the treaty of peace, Britain had recognized the United States' claim
to the vast territory which stretched westward from the Appalachians

1 During the years of Revolution most of the states had formed permanent
constitutional governments to replace the earlier colonial charters
or temporary wartime governments. The question of the actual degree
to the Mississippi, and lands once the property of the Crown, the Royal proprietors and the luckless Loyalists, were thrown open for purchase and settlement by small land owners, giving a broader segment of the population a stake in the survival and security of the Nation. In the period of Revolutionary reaction against the old order most of the ancient prerogatives of feudalism based on English law had disappeared. The final separation of church and state was at last begun and the foundations laid for the development of democratic processes, although at the time these were perceived only dimly or not at all. These were positive gains of the War for Independence, but they were only as firmly established as the central government could make them. Under the Articles of Confederation, the fruits of victory and peace seemed likely to wither before they could be picked.

The Articles were a relic of the Revolution, born of the urgent

of democracy in the original colonies, and, later, the states, is controversial. Some recent interpretations have attempted to show that, at least in some colonies, suffrage and consequently, political democracy were more widespread than earlier accounts would indicate. See Robert E. Brown, Middle Class Democracy and the Revolution in Massachusetts, 1691-1780, (Ithaca, N. Y., 1955). Brown points out, page 402, that the great majority of men could meet the property qualifications to vote, and claims that "In many respects, the people of Massachusetts had a government more responsive to the popular will than we have at the present time." Other historians have pointed out, however, that a wide base of popular suffrage does not necessarily imply representation from all classes. In the 18th century the broad mass of citizenship tended to follow, as it traditionally had done, the leadership of wealth and social position. Although the new state constitutions avowed a democratic philosophy, in practice most of them retained some form of suffrage qualification based on property. Despite the inconsistency between philosophical avowals and practical application, the legislatures could not ignore with impunity the wishes of the people who, as they demonstrated in the Shays uprising in Massachusetts, would strike back if their representatives failed to redress their grievances.
necessity for a concerted military and political effort. The few limited powers granted by the states to the Congress left that body virtually impotent to do more than act as arbiter among the former colonies. It has been said that the weakness of the Confederation was not in the Articles themselves but in the lack of powers to enforce even the limited powers granted to the Congress. With all their shortcomings the Articles did provide a framework of federal government which gave the several states a degree of unity essential to the armed struggle. But, with the removal of the immediate military threat, the inadequacy of the Confederation became glaringly evident. Congress could not wage war, coin money, regulate commerce, negotiate treaties or alliances, borrow money, or, in fact, carry out any policy, domestic or foreign, which did not meet the approval of the states. Despite these handicaps the Confederation was the government of the United States until 1788, and under the Articles the government limped along in its first crucial years.

Although the treaty of peace was not signed until September 3, 1783, nor ratified until the following January, Congress had voted in May to furlough most of the army. Without waiting for certificates of pay due them, most of Washington's troops simply melted away from their camps in the Hudson Highlands. Some disgruntled soldiers in Pennsylvania

2 "As an experiment in confederation the Articles are not to be despised. They were weak enough, to be sure, but it is by no means certain that, given better times and longer term of life, they might not have developed into a satisfactory form of government for the Americans." Max Savelle, The Foundations of American Civilization: A History of Colonial America (New York, 1942), 696.
marched on Philadelphia to air their grievances before the state authori-
ties and the Continental Congress. The impotence of the central gov-
ernment was strikingly revealed when Congress decamped in the face of
the mob and moved first to Princeton and, a few months later, to Annap-
olis, Maryland.

In December 1783, the British evacuated their last foothold in
New York and on December 4, Washington took leave of his officers in
Fraunces Tavern in New York City. A few days later the Commander in
Chief appeared before Congress in Annapolis and resigned the commission
which that body had given him more than eight years before. With this
last act, Washington set aside any fears Congress may have had that
the victorious General was ambitious to rule as dictator over the Nation
he had led to independence.

The Problems of Peace

One of the most pressing problems thrust upon the Nation by the
peace of 1783 was that of the western domain beyond the Alleghenies. It
was essential to national growth that the trans-Appalachian west be
made safe for settlement but the opening of the region was to prove a
worrisome undertaking. This western territory had long been claimed by
the colonies, later states, who based their possession on charters from

Theme XI of The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings is de-
voted to a study of "The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830." The
subject is summarized here to preserve the background and continuity
of political and military affairs during the period under considera-
tion in the present report.
the British crown. Only reluctantly, and at the stubborn insistence of those seaboard states without western claims, did the states with territory beyond the mountains surrender their lands to the central government.

Imperial Britain had never solved the problems of administration and disposition of western land, or reached a satisfactory understanding with the Indian inhabitants of the interior. Speculators, hunters, traders and land-hungry settlers, all had a stake in the solution of the western dilemma and all brought pressure on the government for action most favorable to their personal interests. The inevitable disposition of the land to the settlers who could hold it meant friction with the Indians and treaties counted for little as long as the white man's government could not enforce them. At one time at the end of the war the army had virtually ceased to exist, and during the period of the Confederation the Congress, fearful of a large standing army, was powerless to do more than maintain a token show of its authority over the western lands. Nevertheless, in this period the government of the Confederation achieved its most notable accomplishments in the enactment of the Ordinances of 1785 and 1787. The former measure, largely the work of a committee headed by Thomas Jefferson, provided for the orderly survey and sale of western land, while the latter act ensured orderly settlement, administration and eventual statehood for the western territories. The 1785 Ordinance was revised from time to time as the country spread westward, but it is a tribute to the framers of the Ordinance that the measure remained the basic Federal land policy until the passage of the Homestead
Act in 1862.

The Ordinance of 1787 was equally significant as the solution to the problem of western administration. Although the Ordinance has been criticized as placing an illiberal concentration of power in the hands of the territorial governors it nevertheless paved the way for the settlement of the new territories and for their eventual incorporation into the Union as states equal in every respect to the original thirteen. In its guarantees of civil rights, the enactment specifically excluded slavery from the Northwest Territory. The Ordinance's rejection of the colonial concept, its promise of full and equal status to newly-acquired lands, was the solution Britain had rejected. For this rejection she paid with the loss of her Atlantic colonies.

Unfortunately, no amount of legislation could settle the Indian problem. Scattered army detachments could do little more than observe the troubled zone where white and red men clashed. In June of 1784 Congress had drowned its fear of a standing army, and called upon the states to furnish 700 troops to protect the frontier and garrison the posts which it was optimistically hoped would soon be given up by the British under the terms of the peace treaty. The troops so mobilized were to come from the militia and were to be organized as a "regular" army to serve for 12 months. Not all the states answered the call for men but Lieutenant Colonel Josiah Harmar was able to organize and march to Pittsburgh what he called the "First American Regiment." From its base at the Forks of the Ohio this force erected and manned the Ohio forts, but could do little more than serve as a token of the govern-
merit's authority on the frontier. Harmar's First American Regiment and small detachments at West Point on the Hudson and at the supply depot in Springfield, Massachusetts, constituted the American Army during the period of the Confederation. Not until the ensuing decade would the Army become a force to be reckoned with on the western frontier.4

Britain's refusal to carry out her treaty obligation to get out of the frontier posts on American soil was not the only headache His Majesty's ministers were giving the former colonies. An act of Parliament and subsequent orders in council had cost American merchants their trading privileges within the Empire and Congress was too weak to retaliate.5 To add to the country's burden, the old Spanish problem remained unresolved. Spain, fearful for her Florida territory and jealous of her control of the vital mouth of the Mississippi, was not interested in the concern of the young republic for its southern flank. Nor did it have any sympathy for the American desire for a practicable outlet for its

4 James R. Jacobs, The Beginning of the U. S. Army: 1783-1812 (Princeton, 1947), 13-39, discusses the First American Regiment and the plight of the regular army under the Confederation. "It was really no more than a frontier constabulary for making the Indians behave and a police force for protecting arsenals and supply bases in the more populous sections of the country."

5 Trade with Britain was a one-way street. Raw materials needed by the British could be carried in American ships, but goods of American manufacture were forbidden to compete with products of English industry. There was no inclination on the part of the British to assist a potential commercial rival, especially one which had defied the Mother Country and had no powers of retaliation. During the period of the Confederation and for many years after, American commerce was at the mercy of a British government interested only in its own convenience and profit. Samuel Flagg Bemis, A Diplomatic History of the United States, 4th ed. (New York, 1955), 69.
western agricultural produce via New Orleans. In the period of the Confederation the weak and struggling United States commanded only the disdain of autocratic Europe.

From within as well as without, the troubles of the Confederation grew apace. The decline of commerce, currency collapse and shortage of specie, the uncontrolled commercial rivalry among the states and the ever-growing burden of taxation and debt placed an almost intolerable strain on the meager resources of the central government. It was taxation and debt which struck immediately and deeply at the great mass of citizens and raised the spectre of anarchy among the debtor class. To the numerically superior agrarian population the panacea was the issue of more and more paper money and in 1786 a majority of the state legislatures passed into the hands of the "paper money" men. In other states, notably Massachusetts, where the legislatures refused to bow to the paper money advocates, the unrest of the farmers and small property holders erupted in mob violence. For a few months in 1786 and '87, mobs of farmers led by Daniel Shays, a former army officer, roamed Massachusetts, preventing the county courts from sitting and rendering judgment for debts. Congress authorized the raising of a "federal" force to put down the insurrection but ruthless action by the Massachusetts authorities scattered the Shaysites after their abortive attack on the Springfield arsenal in late January, 1787. The gravity of the events in Massachusetts was not lost on the Nation's leaders. Wrote Washington to his friend James Madison, "What stronger evidence can be
given of the want of energy in our government than these disorders? If there is not power in it to check them, what security has a man for life, liberty, or property?" Clearly, as its leaders had long realized, the central government must be strengthened if the Nation was to survive.

Toward the Federal Constitution

A few months before the rising of the mobs in Massachusetts, Congress had debated proposals to revise the Articles of Confederation but the matter had not been submitted to the states. Later, even as Shays and his followers were on the march, a convention of states took place which was to have far-reaching effects in the establishment of a permanent federal government. From a discussion between Maryland and Virginia concerning navigation rights on the Potomac emerged the decision to call a convention of all the states to discuss the formulation of a commercial code for the entire Nation. This, its sponsors hoped, would lead to a definite move to revise the Articles. Less than half of the states attended the Annapolis meeting in September 1786, and the chief result of the convention was a resolution urging a conference of all the states "to devise such further provisions as shall appear to them necessary to render the constitution of the Federal [sic] Government

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6 Worthington C. Ford, ed., The Writings of George Washington: 1785-1790, (New York, 1891), X, 82. In this same letter Washington wrote, "Thirteen sovereignties pulling against each other, and all tugging at the federal head, will soon bring ruin on the whole; whereas a liberal and energetic constitution, well guarded and closely watched to prevent encroachments, might restore us to that degree of respectability and consequences, to which we had a fair claim and the brightest prospect of attaining."
adequate to the exigencies of the Union; and to report such an Act for that purpose to the United States in Congress assembled, as . . . will effectually provide for the same."7

Congress acceded to the proposal and in February 1787, while the Massachusetts rebels were scattering to their homes, sent out a call for state delegates to assemble at Philadelphia in the following May for the purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation.

The Federal Convention

At the time appointed, the delegates went into session at Philadelphia's State House, with only Rhode Island refusing to attend. Some leaders of the Convention realized that their task went far beyond a mere revision of the Articles, despite the fears of the smaller states that they would be overridden by the larger if radical changes were made in the central government. What many delegates wanted was a new compact of states which would ensure the stability of the Nation by giving adequate authority to the central government, with a clear-cut separation of powers between the state and Federal governments.8


8 Scholars have not agreed on the motivations of the framers of the Constitution. Certainly the patriotic concept of an earlier day can be dismissed - that the "Fathers" were wholly wise, pure and prescient demi-gods who created with divine inspiration a document that answered the Nation's every need. But neither were they solely the defenders of property and privilege which some interpretations have portrayed. The framers included some of the best-informed minds of the day. These came, as might be expected, from the propertied and professional classes which, in the tenor of their time, sincerely believed that the rights and protection of property brought stability to government and society. If in today's terms the framers were ultra-conservative, the document
The Assembly Room, Independence Hall, Philadelphia. Here the Declaration of Independence was adopted and the Federal Constitution drawn up.
As the Convention, presided over by Washington, got underway Edmund Randolph presented 15 resolutions which made up Virginia's plan of union. The plan provided for three separate and equal branches of Federal government - executive, legislative and judicial, with representation in the two legislative houses based on population. This was what the small states had feared - a system of representation that would leave them at the mercy of the more populous states. To counter the Virginia resolutions, the New Jersey plan was offered, retaining the Articles of Confederation but broadening the powers of Congress in matters of finance and commerce. Most importantly to the smaller states, the legislature would consist of a single house in which all states would be equally represented. The Convention finally adopted the plan to form a wholly new system of government, and, after weeks of debate, voted that representation in the lower house would be on the basis of population, while each state would have an equal voice in the upper chamber.

These fundamental questions resolved, the Convention proceeded to hammer out the Federal Constitution. In the point-by-point debate could be found the germs of future trouble as North and South fought they produced, as one historian has pointed out, lacked "the most elementary safeguards for property." Rather, the framers "took advantage of the complexity, the diversity, the pluralism, of American society and economy to encourage a balance of interests. They worked out sound and lasting political solutions to the problems of class, interest, section, race, religion, party." Henry Steele Commager, "The Constitution: Was It an Economic Document?", American Heritage, Vol. X, No. 1 (December, 1958), 103. Another historian has aptly characterized the framers as "impelled by class motives more than pietistic writers like to admit, but they were also controlled . . . by a statesmanlike sense of moderation and a scrupulously republican philosophy." Richard Hofstadter, The American Political Tradition and the Men Who Made It (New York, 1948), 15.
out each issue for sectional advantage. Southerners feared that the more numerous and populous northern states could by taxation and regulation of commerce dominate the new Federal union. Fortunately the majority of delegates faced up to their paramount responsibility to create a workable central government and in secret sessions and by slow and painful compromise, solutions acceptable if not always palatable to the states were arrived at. Certainly few delegates were wholly satisfied with the document which was finally approved on September 17, 1787. Nevertheless, in Article VI in one supremely important declaration the fundamental concept of the new federal government had been clearly and simply stated:

"This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding."

A tremendous step forward had been taken in a remarkable demonstration of the national will to survive. But there were many critics who could see only the shortcomings of the new Constitution. It is possible that the Constitution would not have survived a popular vote, but ratification was in the hands of the state conventions, whose members by and large were determined to secure the stability of the Nation. The sponsors and active proponents of the Constitution commanded money and the press, and, not least, had the best writers to
propagandize the proposed federal government. Delaware ratified first on December 7, 1787, and on June 21, New Hampshire cast the ninth and deciding vote for ratification. A short time later an ordinance established the national capital in New York City and called for the appointment of presidential electors. The first Congress under the Constitution was likewise called to assemble on March 4, 1789.

New Government and the Rise of the Opposition

It was natural that the leader who had brought the War for Independence to its successful conclusion should be called by unanimous vote to serve the Nation as its first President. On April 30, 1789, on the balcony of New York's Federal Hall, Washington took the oath of office. Regretful at leaving the domestic tranquility he loved and anxious for the country's future, the President took up the task of forming his administration. The newly-elected Congress was already in session. One of its first acts had been to submit for the ratification of the states a series of proposed amendments to the Constitution. These additions were the outcome of the prolonged and bitter ratification controversy. Ten of these proposals were eventually accepted by the states and the Bill of Rights became part of the Federal Constitution.

In organizing his administration Washington had available a

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9 The Federalist Papers, largely the work of Hamilton and James Madison were brilliant pieces of persuasion. Of the work of these two able spokesmen for ratification one historian has commented that "they formed such a team as constitutional history has not seen before or since." Broadus Mitchell, Alexander Hamilton: Youth to Maturity, 1755-1788 (New York, 1957), 434.
brain-trust of uncommon abilities. To the key post of Secretary of State came the red-haired idealist Thomas Jefferson and to the equally important office of Secretary of the Treasury Washington appointed the brilliant and energetic Alexander Hamilton. Jefferson, the agrarian philosopher, envisioned the Nation as the abode of peaceful farmers and contented artisans. Hamilton saw the country's salvation only in the firm hands of the business community which, with the aid of strong Federal support and controls, would develop a land of bustling cities, banks and industries. The ideological gulf between these two brilliant and persuasive minds would affect profoundly the shape and destiny of the Nation.

In the first decade of Federal government under the Constitution it was Hamilton who called the turn in pushing through his program to put the Nation on a sound financial and commercial footing. Hamilton's plan was a bold and realistic one, calling for payment at face value of depreciated Federal securities, assumption by the Federal Government of the state debts, establishment of a national bank and the raising of revenue by import duties and an excise tax. The Treasury Secretary also proposed protection of budding American industries, expansion of

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10 Most of the government securities, which had fallen far below face value, had been acquired by speculators who could afford to buy and wait for better times. Hamilton knew that his plan to pay off the public debt would enrich these investors, but this was not his motive. The government owed more than $54,000,000, and the states more than $18,000,000. "To Hamilton these were contracts between the government and its creditors. It was a matter of honor for the former to fund its debt with new securities, dollar for dollar, and for reasons just as cogent to assume the debts of the states. It was also a matter of wisdom." Edward C. Kirkland, A History of American Economic Life, 3rd. ed. (New York, 1951), 266-267.
ALEXANDER HAMILTON
1755-1804

"The local interests of a state ought, in every case, to give way to the interests of the Union . . . ."  
(Speech to the New York Rati­fication Convention, June 23, 1788)

Paintings by Charles Willson Peale (c. 1791). Independence National Historical Park collection.

THOMAS JEFFERSON
1743-1826

"Still one thing more, fellow citizens - a wise and frugal government, which shall re­strain men from injuring one another, which shall leave them otherwise free to regu­late their own pursuits of industry and improvement . . . ."  
(First Inaugural Address, March 4, 1801)
trade and a sound balance between agriculture and industry.

The Nation benefitted immediately from the restoration of public credit, but the new fiscal policies did not go unchallenged. Wealthy businessmen and the omnipresent speculators aroused deep public resentment when they reaped profits from government's redemption of securities purchased from their original owners for a fraction of the face value. Those states which had paid off their debt bitterly opposed the Federal Government's funding of the debt owed by other states, and only after a compromise with the Virginia bloc which established the Nation's permanent capital on the banks of the Potomac was Hamilton able to secure the support necessary to put his plans into action. Some of the new policies were resisted by physical force. The excise tax on whiskey struck at the farmers of western Pennsylvania and when mob violence erupted in the summer and autumn of 1794, Washington raised a militia force to put down the disorders. The Government demonstrated in unequivocal terms its determination to enforce the Federal law.

Of great significance economically and politically, was Hamilton's establishment of the First Bank of the United States, designed to control the Nation's credit through the issuance of sound currency and, at the same time relieve the abuses of the state-chartered banks which frequently lacked the specie to redeem their notes. Jefferson and his followers argued that as the bank was not specifically provided for in the Constitution, the measure was unconstitutional. Hamilton fell back on the Constitution's Section 8 of Article I which stated in part that "The Congress shall have the power ... to pay the Debts and provide for
the common Defense and general Welfare of the United States . . . ."
This first success of the doctrine of implied powers was full of portent for the future; out of that convenient interpretation would grow the basic controversy of strict vs. loose construction of the Constitution.\textsuperscript{11}

The initial successes of Hamilton and his Federalists spurred the rising opposition under Jefferson and James Madison to greater efforts. Jefferson left the Cabinet at the end of 1793 and threw himself into the struggle against Hamilton. Skillfully weaving together dissident groups of Southern planters, northern workingmen and small businessmen, frontiersmen, discontented farmers and the splinter groups which had opposed the Constitution, the Virginians brought forth a full-fledged opposition party of "Republicans." Further contributing to the breach between the administration and its foes was the Republicans' sympathy for the revolution which continued to convulse France.

In Jefferson's opposition the "Federalists" - supporters of Hamilton and strong central government - professed to see sacrilege, if not actual illegality. Washington, himself, saw in the rising opposition

\textsuperscript{11} As it turned out, Jefferson's fear of the bank was groundless. Soundly administered, it performed its functions well. However, Jefferson mistrusted Hamilton and the potential despotism which strong national power represented. Jefferson's attitude toward Hamilton went deeper than mere political rivalry - it was a manifestation of the fundamental difference in the philosophy of government which each man represented. Jefferson's defeat in the Bank controversy was to bear important fruit in the further cleavage of the administration factions. Jefferson "was beginning to realize that if Hamiltonianism was to be combatted effectively, more aggressive tactics would have to be employed . . . and other weapons than constitutional agreements must be used." Dumas Malone, \textit{Jefferson and the Rights of Man}, Vol. II of \textit{Jefferson and His Time} (Boston, 1951) 350.
a danger to the country. With the lines thus drawn the political makeup of a National two-party system emerged.

While Hamilton was pushing forward his domestic program, the foreign situation showed little comparable improvement. If many leaders still retained some nostalgia for the glory and stability of the British Empire, it did them little good in their relations with the Mother Country. The Peace of Paris had been in effect for a decade when Washington began his second term in 1794, but beyond a disdainful recognition of American independence little had been done to reconcile the long-standing differences between the two nations. British trade restrictions hurt, but of more immediate importance and potential danger was the continued presence of British troops on American soil in the Northwest. These remained, said the British with considerable truth, because the United States had not lived up to its treaty obligations. In 1794 Chief Justice John Jay, Washington's special envoy, negotiated a new treaty with the British in which their only "concessions" were the long-promised abandonment of the Northwestern outposts and the easing of some of the restrictions on American commerce. In turn Jay played into British hands by agreeing to restrict American trade in a number of important agricultural items and allow the British to retain fur trading rights on American territory.

Although there was an immediate outcry from the Jeffersonian Republicans and not a few Federalists with commercial interests, Jay's unpopular treaty was a timely one in view of the improved situation on the frontier. Where the Confederation Congress had been unable to cope
with the bloody warfare between whites and Indians in the Northwest, the new Federal Government had finally managed to break red resistance north of the Ohio. After a series of military disasters, President Washington despatched General "Mad Anthony" Wayne to subdue the Indians. Wayne made his preparations with deliberate care and at Fallen Timbers, on Ohio's Maumee River, August 20, 1794, routed the redmen in a sharp fight. When the Indians sought the protection of their erstwhile British "allies", the warriors found that sanctuary closed to them. Sadly disillusioned, they fled to their villages to brood on the perfidy of His Majesty's officers who always had seemed to promise so much help in the struggle against the white intruders. Wayne's victory and the ensuing Treaty of Greenville had been a giant step toward peace on the frontier. Now with Jay's treaty securing the removal of the British posts a long period of relative peace descended on the Northwest.¹²

As Britain had done in the Northwest, Spain encouraged Indian resistance in the South. Early negotiations were hampered by the impotence of the Confederation and by the vacillating Spanish policy in America. Frontiersmen bitterly resented the obvious willingness of eastern commercial interests to sacrifice the west in return for favorable trade concessions from Spain. At times it appeared that the West

¹² Wayne's campaign, and exceptionally valuable sites associated with it, are treated in some detail in "The Advance of the Frontier", Theme XI of The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings (National Park Service, February 1959).
would turn its back on the Federal union and either go its way alone or cast its lot with Spain. Spain, however, was realistic enough to recognize that American expansion could not be restrained indefinitely, and the danger of a new war with Britain made the Spanish more amenable to a peaceful settlement of the Southwestern controversy. In the Treaty of San Lorenzo, 1795, Spain surrendered the disputed northern boundary of Florida and guaranteed freedom of navigation on the Mississippi. Under mounting pressure from aggressive frontiersmen, Spain concluded that she could not hope to hold Louisiana and in 1800 sold that ill-defined province to France, the original claimant.

The return of France to the Mississippi Valley was a most unwelcome turn of affairs. American relations with the old ally had steadily worsened during the period of Federalist, pro-British administration. Washington had declined to accept a third term, and his successor, the old Federalist workhorse John Adams, attempted to restore relations by sending to France a three-man commission instructed to negotiate a treaty of commerce and friendship. The Americans were greeted instead with the pointed suggestion that the United States give France a large loan and pay a bribe of several thousand dollars. The alternative, it was hinted, might be war. When the XYZ Correspondence, so named for the code by which the French agents were identified,

13 The apparent ambition of the West to go its independent way, or ally itself with Spain, was more illusory than real. Despite the intrigues of American and Spanish officials, most Westerners realized that they could not go their way alone and few had any desire to give up their freedom as American citizens to come under the autocratic sway of Spain. See Ray A. Billington, Westward Expansion: A History of the American Frontier (New York, 1949), 238-239.
fied, was made public, Americans of every political persuasion agreed with the propagandists' cry of "Millions for defense but not one cent for tribute."

Hostilities appeared imminent, but Adams resisted strong Federalist pressure that he declare war, and stalled for time while the Nation's defenses could be made ready. Once again Washington was called to the supreme command, and the Navy Department was established to meet the French challenge at sea. Undeclared war broke out between American and French warships and in the course of more than two years American ships and crews repeatedly demonstrated their combat efficiency, inflicting losses far in excess of those they suffered. When the French indicated a willingness to resolve the troubles, a commission appointed by Adams negotiated a treaty which terminated the old Revolutionary War alliance with France, effective on December 21, 1801.

The blackest consequence of the naval war with France was the excuse it gave the Federalists to pass the notorious Alien and Sedition Acts aimed at liberal refugees from Europe and at long-time Republican foes. A direct attack on the cherished rights of speech, press and assembly, the Sedition Act in particular gave Jefferson his golden opportunity to consolidate the anti-Federalist opposition. Playing on fears that the Federalists intended to reinstitute virtual monarchial rule over the Nation, Jefferson and his lieutenants engineered in the Kentucky and Virginia legislatures a series of resolutions, the import of which was that a state could of its own volition nullify any Federal act which it deemed unconstitutional. Although the resolutions set forth the dangerous doctrine of nullification neither state took any
overt steps toward resisting the Alien and Sedition Acts. A few Repub­licans were prosecuted under the Acts but with the settlement of the naval war with France in 1800 and the defeat of the Federalists in that year, the measures were allowed to expire and restitution made to their victims.

The close of the 18th century found the Nation sharply divid­
ed, with political animosity at fever pitch. Mounting taxes, the Alien and Sedition Acts, continuing maritime restrictions imposed by Britain and rising resentment against the British Empire, all cost the Federalists much-needed support. The party Jefferson and Madison had worked so long and diligently to create - the planters and farmers, the frontiersmen and workingmen and small businessmen - carried the day in the election of 1800. By the vagaries of the electoral system then in effect Jefferson and Aaron Burr, both Republican candidates, tied for the presidency.14 Only after prolonged maneuvering in the

14 The Constitution originally provided for presidential electors in each state equal to that state's representation in Congress. Each state's electors were to vote for two persons, one of whom must be from out of the state, but there was no provision for showing presi­dential preference between the two. If any individual received a majority of votes by all the electors he was elected president, but in event of a tie vote, or failure of any candidate to win a majority, the names of the five leading candidates would come before the House of Representatives where each state would cast one vote. The candi­date with the largest number of votes was elected president and the runner-up was declared vice-president with ties for second place to be decided by Senate vote. The rise of the two-party system made it increasingly probable that the president would be of one party while the vice-president would be of the other, as in the election of 1796 when Federalist John Adams was elected to the presidency, with Democratic-Republican Jefferson in the second position. The election of 1800, in which the Republicans Jefferson and Burr won the electoral college but were deadlocked in the House vote pointed up the need for a change in the electoral system. The 12th amend­ment to the Constitution, in effect prior to the election of 1804, recognized the two-party system and required separate ballots for the offices of President and Vice-President.
"MAD TOM IN A RAGE"

A Federalist cartoon depicts the devil helping a drunken Jefferson in his effort to pull down the government.

By permission of The Huntington Library
San Marino, California
lame duck Federalist House of Representatives did Jefferson squeak by with the unenthusiastic endorsement of his old rival Hamilton, leaving Burr in the Vice-Presidency.

The Virginia Dynasty

On March 4, 1801, Jefferson took the oath of office, the first president to be inaugurated in the new Federal City of Washington on the Potomac. His address, a mild and conciliatory appeal for national unity, called for "a wise and frugal Government" which would support the rights of the states, at the same time promising to preserve the "whole constitutional vigor" of the Federal Government.

Jefferson's moderate program of domestic goodwill, peace and trade with foreign nations, economy in government and development of agriculture was not to be carried out. Ironically, it was early overshadowed by events which, far from encouraging and preserving the pastoral tranquility envisioned by Jefferson, sent the restless farmer and workman plunging into new lands, involved American ships in battles an ocean away, strangled commerce and finally carried the Nation into war with England. And, despite the President's attempts to steer the Nation with a loose, benign hand, it was the staunch Federalist Chief Justice John Marshall who, from the security of his post beyond the

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Before 1800 Congress sat in eight cities: Philadelphia, Baltimore, Lancaster, York, Princeton, Annapolis, Trenton and New York. The Constitution provided that Congress should have "exclusive legislation" over a district, not to exceed ten miles square, which by cession of the states and acceptance of Congress would become the seat of Federal government. In 1790 Congress approved the location of the Federal district on the Potomac River and authorized the President to appoint three commissioners to survey the district, acquire the necessary lands and provide the buildings of government. In 1800 the government moved to its new Federal City.
reach of partisan politics, led the high court in the far-reaching decisions which entrenched the powers of the Federal Government and sanctioned the doctrine of implied powers. These constitutional interpretations, far more than acts of the Republican Congress, determined the form and development of the growing Nation.

The greatest single accomplishment of Jefferson's administrations was the acquisition of the Louisiana Territory; a windfall which even the most ardent expansionist could hardly have expected. Jefferson knew that America's western destiny hinged on securing the commercial outlet afforded by the mouth of the Mississippi, and his original intention was to try to purchase the Isle of Orleans from France. Napoleon, for his part, needed money to resume the death struggle with Britain and realized that when war came Louisiana would be vulnerable to British attack. To the astounded American negotiators, Napoleon offered to sell all of Louisiana. Although they lacked authority to do so, Jefferson's representatives quickly accepted, with the subsequent blessing of the President who swallowed any misgivings he may have had as to the constitutionality of the purchase. The sale was consummated for the sum of 15 million dollars, one-quarter of which was to settle American claims against France. On December 20, 1803, in New Orleans' Place d'Armes, the American flag was raised and more than 800,000 square miles were added to the Union. In the following year, at Jefferson's order, army officers Meriwether Lewis and William Clark led a small party of troops across the new territory, into the far
northwest to the shores of the Pacific.\textsuperscript{16}

In other foreign matters the pacifistic Jefferson had no diplomatic success comparable to the Louisiana plum which dropped into his lap. In 1801 the Pasha of Tripoli had declared war on the United States, with the intention of forcing an increase in the bribes which the British and American governments had given him for many years in exchange for maritime security along the North African coast. Jefferson refused to bow to the Pasha's arrogance and ordered warships into the Mediterranean. The campaign was a desultory one for the first two years but in 1803 Commodore Edward Preble, sent out with a compact and efficient force, quickly infused new life into the war with the Barbary Pirates. Despite the gallantry of individual Americans, it was the iron grip of the American blockade that compelled the Pasha to make peace in the summer of 1805.

During the period of the war with Tripoli the government took an important step to provide for the Nation's defense when in March, 1802, an act of Congress established the United States Military Academy. On the following July 4 the school for future army officers was formally opened at West Point, New York.

When Jefferson began his second term in March 1805, he headed a Nation involuntarily caught up in the world struggle between Napoleon's France and the British Empire. American vessels were confiscated by both sides in an effort to deny neutral shipping to the enemy and the British, plagued by desertions, did not scruple at seizing from American

\textsuperscript{16} The Lewis and Clark Expedition is the subject of Subtheme 2, of Theme XV, "Westward Expansion and the Extension of the National Boundaries to the Pacific, 1830-1898", in The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings (National Park Service, January 1959).
American seamen led by Lieutenant Stephen Decatur boarded and burned the Frigate Philadelphia off Tripoli on the evening of February 16, 1804. The U. S. warship had been captured earlier by the Tripolitans.

New York Historical Society
vessels seamen who might or might not be fugitives from His Majesty's warships. In June 1807, the British frigate Leopard poured a broadside into the U. S. Navy's Chesapeake when the American commander refused to permit a search of his vessel for deserters from the Royal Navy. With news that British guns had killed and maimed American sailors, a wave of anger and demand for war swept the Nation. Jefferson, clinging to his principle of international justice without recourse to war, attempted to retaliate with an embargo which blocked all exports from American ports. The embargo was a grave mistake. It succeeded only in further depressing the northern maritime industry and benefited only the smugglers who reaped quick profits while honest ships lay idle. Aside from the havoc it wreaked on Yankee commerce, Jefferson's policy of "peaceable coercion" split the Republicans and gave the Federalists a powerful weapon against the Administration. At the end of his second term Jefferson signed the non-intercourse act repealing the embargo and substituting for it a measure restricting trade with Britain and France only.

Despite Jefferson's scrupulous efforts to maintain the Nation's neutrality, British provocation at sea and the ambition of western expansionists to annex British Canada nurtured the seeds of conflict. When the mild and indecisive James Madison entered the White House as Jefferson's hand-picked successor, he found himself swept up by the
winds of the gathering storm. If Madison's shortcomings as a leader have been somewhat overstated by critical historians, the fact remains that with his entry into the White House national leadership passed to Congress where a body of vigorous and aggressive young Republicans led by Henry Clay thumped for active defiance of Britain. Expansion was in the air and even Madison had to go along. When an American-led revolt broke out in Spanish West Florida, the President, in a proclamation of October 27, 1810, announced that the region was henceforth a part of the American Orleans Territory.

It was not by chance that Clay and most of the "War Hawks" were Westerners and Southerners. It was the West which had suffered from years of bloody warfare with Indians supplied and urged on by the British in the Northwest, and it was the West which stood to gain if war with Britain brought Canada into the American orbit. For the South, war meant expansion into territory occupied by Spain, now Britain's ally in the epic struggle with Napoleon. Moreover, neither the South nor West would suffer greatly from the disruption of Northern trade which war would inevitably bring. Even the moderate Jefferson concluded that war was the only alternative to ignominious submission to Britain.

As the war clouds gathered, Western resentment against the British was further inflamed by the machinations of the great Red leader Tecumseh, who, with British blessings, threatened for a time to unite the Indians of Northwest and South in a confederacy aimed at blocking the spread of white settlement. Tecumseh's prospects were dimmed when, in his absence, his tribesmen were defeated at the Battle of Tippecanoe by an American force under William Henry Harrison.
Now the Indians were biding their time, waiting for the opportunity to rise again and slaughter the white invaders. Westerners, fully aware of the menace, were eager to wipe out once and for all the British bases in Canada from which, they were convinced, came all of their troubles with the Indians.

The Second War with Britain

On June 19, 1812, a state of war was proclaimed with Britain over the opposition of the maritime states whose lifeblood was the commerce certain to be driven from the sea in a war with the world's mightiest naval power. The West, self-confident and impetuous, immediately opened the long-awaited campaign against Canada, but despite the boasts of the War Hawks the war, from the outset, was a series of failures which were not offset by infrequent and usually indecisive victories. The small regular army and the state militia forces were ill-supplied and equipped, and incompetently led. The Government's financial structure was not up to the exigencies of a full-scale war. The National Bank had expired in 1811 and the government was forced to turn to public subscription for funds with which to carry on the war. Congress was so confident of quick and cheap victory that no taxes were voted to support the sagging war effort.

18 The First Bank of the United States had provided efficient control of the currency of the state banks and had served the Federal government well as its fiscal agent. However, many anti-Federalists resented and feared its monopoly and continued to doubt its constitutionality. The rapidly-growing state banks wanted a share in the Federal Bank's operations while diminishing its control. The strong Federalist character of the bank antagonized political rivals while believers in the precious metals opposed the Bank's circulation of paper currency. The bill to recharter the Bank died in the House and the tie vote in the Senate was broken by the negative vote of Vice President Clinton.
The British and their Indian allies quickly overran exposed northwestern outposts, and the much-vaunted drive on Canada suffered a humiliating set-back when the American commander at Detroit surrendered his important post without a shot in August 1812. Fort Dearborn, on the site of present Chicago, was evacuated at the same time, and many of its garrison, soldiers and their families, were slaughtered by the Indians.

In the Niagara Frontier and Lake Champlain region affairs went no better. The American high command, mostly tired old veterans of the Revolutionary War, was not equal to the task of molding regulars and raw, politics-ridden militia into an effective fighting force. The feeble blows aimed at Canada did little more than discredit the American command and reveal the shocking inadequacy of the militia system which, on paper, appeared well able to carry the war to the enemy. The militia could be assembled and made to stand in defense of their home states, but in all too many instances the war along the Canadian border presented the dismal spectacle of the militia leaning on its muskets while regulars were slaughtered nearby. By the end of 1812 the bankruptcy of American leadership was shockingly evident and early in the new year President Madison undertook to remove the dead wood.

19 "The United States had recruited the Regulars to about 15,000 by the end of the year and had enrolled 49,187 militiamen - a total of 65,000 on the Federal payrolls - in that first year of war. A British force that never exceeded 3,000 Regulars and 3,000 Canadian militiamen and Indians, scattered from the head of Lake Champlain to Detroit, had defeated four set attempts at invasion!" General James E. Edmonds, Fighting Fools (New York, 1938), 86; quoted in R. Ernest Dupuy and Trevor N. Dupuy, Military Heritage of America (New York, 1956), 128.
As the campaign on land went from bad to worse, Americans could bolster their spirits with pride in the Navy's brilliant showing in the early months of the war. The picture of the frigate Constitution and other stout ships of the U.S. Navy sinking and capturing warships of the proud Royal Navy boosted American morale, but aside from needling British pride they contributed little to the outcome of the war. By the war's end most of the American warships had been swept from the seas, but in their brief moment of glory they had written an imperishable chapter in the story of warfare in the age of sail.

On the fresh water lakes which providentially guarded the Nation's northern border, American naval victories were much more than incidental blows to British prestige. In the region south of Lake Erie, William Henry Harrison was heading an expedition to retake Detroit. Despite costly setbacks Harrison moved north and at Fort Meigs, near present Toledo, Ohio, successfully withstood a siege by the British and Indians and turned back a threatened invasion of the Ohio Country. Yet, as long as the British controlled Lake Erie Harrison was balked in his move to seize Detroit. The stalemate was broken when, on September 10, 1813, a hastily-built American fleet under 29-year-old Oliver Hazard Perry outfought a more heavily-gunned British squadron on western Lake Erie's Put-in-Bay. Perry's stunning success forced the British to give up Detroit and take up the defensive along the Canadian border in the Northwest.

Harrison was quick to follow up the initiative handed him by the Battle of Lake Erie and early in October brought the enemy to bay
Going to the Wars, 1812 style. The cartoonist takes a good-natured poke at the raw army which was supposed to make an easy conquest of Canada.

New York Historical Society
The epic duel between the Constitution and the Guerriere off Nova Scotia, August 19, 1812, left the British warship a drifting hulk. This was the beginning of "Old Ironsides" glory.

From Roger Butterfield, The American Past
Courtesy Simon and Schuster
U.S. and British regulars clashed at Chippewa on the west shore of the Niagara River, July 5, 1814. The hard-won victory in Canada boosted American morale at the war's lowest ebb.

From Roger Butterfield, The American Past
Courtesy Simon and Schuster
"We Have Met the Enemy and They are Ours." Lieutenant Oliver H. Perry transfers his flag from the badly damaged Lawrence to the Niagara in the decisive American victory on Lake Erie, September 10, 1813.
on Canadian soil. The ensuing Battle of the Thames on October 5, 1813, secured the northwestern frontier and, to the relief of the frontiersmen, marked the end of the Indian leader Tecumseh who was killed in the action.

Elsewhere on the long Niagara frontier the futile game of give and take went on. Despite local successes, including the repulse of a British landing force at Sackets Harbor on the New York shore of Lake Ontario, the American effort in 1813 did little more than maintain the status quo. In autumn, a drive on Montreal held some initial hope of success but the stout British defense, lack of communication and reinforcement, and the failure to coordinate the invading columns cost the Americans any chance of victory. At the end of the year the situation on the northern frontier was about where it had been when the year opened.

Although Britain had looked upon the American war as an annoying sideshow to the death struggle with Napoleon, the contest for Canada was an unwelcome drain on an empire already sorely-pressed to meet its military and colonial commitments around the globe. When, late in 1813, His Majesty's government invited Madison to negotiate, the President jumped at the chance to get out of a situation which daily grew more desperate. Failure and discontent at home, and British victory in Europe promised even blacker days ahead. Discussions between American and British negotiators opened at Ghent, Belgium, in late summer of 1814, but even before the talks began the war had reached its gloomiest depths for the Americans.
By 1814 the British navy cruised the American coast almost at will, plundering seacoast towns whose inhabitants had opposed the war all along. The blockade was in full force, and the smugglers who maintained a flourishing blackmarket trade with the enemy climbed to wealth on the ruins of New England's maritime commerce. The Federal government, almost bankrupt, kept its fiscal head above water only with the loans of private bankers. On the northern frontier the only cause for hope was the improvement of the army under the able leadership of Generals Jacob Brown and Winfield Scott. These commanders proved with hard-won victories that two years of trial and failure had weeded out the bunglers and the tired old men. But while they showed the mettle of the developing American army these hollow victories did nothing to alter the relative military positions of the opposing forces.

Even as Brown and Scott were breathing new life into the military effort in the north, events of grave portent were in the making. During the summer, the struggle with Napoleon having come to a temporary end, British veterans began to arrive in America as part of a plan to bring a quick end to the war. As the British envisioned it, the war's final stage would consist of a two-pronged invasion of the United States, by way of the Niagara Frontier and Lake Champlain, and New Orleans, with a diversionary attack in the Chesapeake Bay area. Happily for the Americans, the northern attack down the traditional Champlain route of invasion came to grief on September 11, 1814, when in Cumberland Bay, off Plattsburgh, New York, Captain Thomas Macdonough virtually wiped out the British invasion fleet and forced a strong
enemy army to fall back on Canada. This was a decisive military action of the war, comparable in significance, if not drama, to the Battle of Lake Erie. Had Macdonough failed, the Champlain-Hudson route into New York State would have been open to the British, and there was little to bar their way. Further, if they could obtain a secure foothold on American soil, the British hoped to negotiate, by right of possession, the surrender of American territory on the Canadian frontier, thereby ensuring British dominion over the northern lakes. Thanks to Macdonough and his jerry-built fleet a "forlorn hope was converted into an overwhelming victory", and the Nation was spared a disaster of incalculable proportions.

Although the northern invasion had been thrown back, the Chesapeake Bay attack force had, a few weeks prior to the naval Battle of Plattsburgh, inflicted a humiliating defeat when it took and burned the Nation's capital late in August. Landing below Washington, the invaders had brushed aside the forces, mostly militia, which made a half-hearted effort to protect the Federal City. A small body of sailors offered a stout defense until they too were swept away, leaving Washington open to capture and partial destruction by fire on August 24 and 25, 1814. A few weeks after the burning of the capital, the enemy made an unsuccessful attempt to take Baltimore. In the course of the British attack small Fort McHenry was subjected to a 25-hour bombardment. Washington lawyer Francis Scott Key watched the bombardment throughout the night and saw in the dawn "that our

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Dawn over Fort McHenry reveals that "Our Flag was still there." September 14, 1814. From the painting by George Gray in the museum of Fort McHenry National Monument and Historic Shrine, Baltimore, Maryland.
flag was still there." The Nation had an anthem of victory, and little
Fort McHenry's resistance helped wipe out the shame of Washington's
capture. Baltimore was successfully defended and the British commander
was killed leading his troops. The enemy fleet dropped back down Chesap­
ake Bay, signaling the failure of the second invasion stroke.

With the failure of the northern and central attacks, the
British pinned their hopes on the southern attack on the lower Missis­
sippi. In December, British forces appeared before New Orleans and,
stealing a march on the city's defenders, managed to get into position
a few miles below the great river port. Commanding the defenses of
New Orleans was tough, impetuous Andrew Jackson. "Old Hickory" had
won his military reputation in the war with the Creeks in 1813-14. At
the battle of Horseshoe Bend, March 27, 1814, he had crushed the
Creek Nation and their Cherokee allies, and in the ensuing treaty of
Fort Jackson had forced the cession of most of the Creek lands. For
his service Jackson was given the rank of Major General in the regu­
lar army and placed in command of forces in the Southwest.

Thanks to the leisurely approach of the British, Jackson
had ample time to retrieve his original failure to spot the enemy's
advance. He took position on the left bank of the Mississippi, post­
ing his 4,500 men behind a canal, with the Mississippi on his right
flank and a swamp on the left. Jackson did not intend to risk his army
in open combat with the veterans who had fought Napoleon, preferring
to let the enemy seek him out. After some preliminary skirmishing,
on January 8, 1815, British General Pakenham sent more than 5,000
troops forward against the 4,000 Americans who waited behind their earthworks. In 25 bloody minutes it was all over. Jackson's motley army had won, at negligible cost, the most smashing American victory of the war. Among the 300 British dead were Pakenham and his ranking subordinate. 1200 British wounded and 500 prisoners completed the American bag.

The battle sent a surge of pride and elation through the Nation which did not yet know that the negotiators at Ghent had come to terms some weeks before, on December 24, 1814. By an irony which did not escape the rest of the country, representatives of the New England states had met in that same December at Hartford, Connecticut, to protest the conduct of the war and offer resolutions designed in the main to strengthen the powers of the states over those of the Federal government. Contrary to the accusation, frequently made, that the Hartford Convention plotted treason, all of its proposals were made within the framework of the Federal Constitution. Nevertheless, coinciding as it did with the conclusion of the Treaty of Ghent and the stunning, if barren, victory at New Orleans, the Convention discredited the New England Federalists in the eyes of the Nation. 21

21 The Convention represented both the rabid and moderate factions of the embattled Federalist party. The former were convinced that the British attack from the Gulf of Mexico would succeed in closing the mouth of the Mississippi and result in severing the West from the Union. Therefore, they argued, New England should draft a new Federal Constitution, aimed at protecting the interests of the Northeast. If the other states would not accept, New England should seek a separate peace with England. Fortunately, the moderate wing prevailed and while the Convention proposed a few Constitutional amendments and made vague allusions to the dissolution of the Union, it did not advocate a separate peace or the secession of New England. Had the Convention not chosen to meet in secrecy, much of the suspicion which was attached to it might have been averted.
The British King extends a warm welcome to the New England states meeting in the Hartford Convention, December 1814, promising "plenty molasses and codfish; plenty of goods to smuggle; Honours, titles and Nobility into the bargain - ." This unsubtle view reflects the Nation's contempt for the Convention which turned out to be an innocuous affair.

By permission of The Huntington Library
San Marino, California
The treaty of peace brought an end to the war but it settled none of the issues over which the war had been fought. Impressment, the blockade and neutral rights were not mentioned. The only result of the treaty was the appointment of a commission to adjust the long-standing feud over the American-Canadian boundary.

If the War of 1812 was, as many historians have said, an unnecessary conflict, it was not devoid of results for the United States. The Northwest was fairly won and now lay open to peaceful settlement. The Nation had engaged the foremost world power and come through intact - shaken but not shattered. Granted that Britain never brought her full power to bear on her former colony, the small U. S. Navy and Army had shown that properly equipped and led they were, man to man, the equal of England's veteran professional fleet and army. Experienced British regiments which had taken the measure of Bonaparte were shot to pieces on the bloody fields of Chippewa and Chalmette, and Yankee frigates had engaged and defeated His Majesty's ships on waters Britain claimed as her own. If it did nothing else, the "War for Completion of American Independence" proved that the United States of America was henceforth to be reckoned with in the affairs of nations.

The Shifting National Pattern

The 15-year period from the end of the second war with Britain to 1830 was marked by unprecedented national growth and internal change. The year 1815 which saw the end of the war in America was also the year of Waterloo and the dawn of a long era of peace in Europe. On both sides of the Atlantic the late antagonists in world-wide conflict
turned increasingly to domestic matters. In America the great tide of western settlement, temporarily halted by the war, resumed in full vigor. Improved roads and, a little later, canals knitted together the markets of the east and the farms of the trans-Appalachian west in a new economic complex full of portent for the future development of the Nation.

The Republicans, traditionally the party of local sovereignty, had, under the pressure of national expansion and war, turned increasingly to the concept of strong Federal authority. The attitude of New England during the late war demonstrated the danger inherent in localism, and the discredit of the Federalists, the return of peace to the frontier and the resumption of westward expansion all enhanced the spirit of nationalism which pervaded the Nation in the decade after 1815. Curiously, it was the Federalists, smarting under Republican rule, who now espoused the doctrine of State's rights. The election of the Virginian James Monroe in 1816 insured the continuation of the Republican dynasty and for the time being the opposition was dormant, giving the Nation the superficial appearance of unprecedented unity. Yet, flowing beneath the surface in this "Era of Good Feelings," the currents of sectionalism were carrying the Nation toward the gulf which few men could perceive.

In the period of readjustment after 1815, the new spirit of nationalism was manifest in every activity of government. The strength of the peacetime regular army was set at 10,000 men, and even this new high was only half the number recommended by the administration.
ocean-going Navy was maintained at war strength and provision made for future additions. The old Jeffersonian policy of "peaceable coercion" was a thing of the past. An even more remarkable indication of the Republican adoption of nationalism was the reestablishment of the National Bank, the measure so bitterly opposed by Jefferson and his followers a generation earlier. And, if this was not evidence enough of the Republican about face, the administration recommended a protective tariff to aid the development of native American industry, and called for a national system of roads and canals, if Constitutional grounds for such a program could be found. A bill for Federal control of internal improvements was passed by Congress but despite the new nationalism, the early Republican mistrust of the doctrine of implied constitutional powers was too strong in President Madison and he vetoed the measure. Nonetheless, if the shade of Alexander Hamilton had returned to view the Nation after 1815 it probably would have been sardonically amused to see the Republican espousal of the principles for which he had contended.

Despite the Republican shift to nationalism, it was not the administration or the Congress which gave the movement its major strength. Rather, it was the Federal judiciary under the firm hand of Chief Justice John Marshall which had, time and again, handed down decisions upholding and broadening the implied powers of the Federal government to make and enforce laws "in the manner most beneficial to the people." What was "beneficial" was, of course, many things to many people, but to the old Federalist Marshall it implied Federal
supremacy in virtually every phase of national life. Some of the Court's decisions were heavily weighted on the side of propertied interests but even those most unpalatable to a large segment of the people would take many years to modify, so strong and persuasive was the spirit of Marshall. If some of its interpretations seem archly conservative to a later day, the decisions of Marshall's Court gave form and substance to the American constitutional system.\(^{22}\)

That the new spirit of nationalism did not end at the country's borders was demonstrated a few months after the end of the war with Britain when a naval expedition was despatched to Algiers to end once and for all the depredations of the Barbary States. The arrogant pirate nations had seized on the involvement of the United States and Britain to resume their harrassment of American shipping in the Mediterranean. Led by Captain Stephen Decatur, the American fleet cowed Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli and wrung from them restitution for damages, return of American prisoners and guarantees that henceforth there would be no interference with American vessels. If, as the Algerians requested, a token tribute of gunpowder should still be provided, Decatur warned that they "must expect to receive BALLS with it."\(^{23}\)

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22 Marshall's domination of the Court set its judicial tone throughout the long period of the Chief Justice's tenure, from 1801 to 1835. "Decades came and decades went; for thirty-five years Marshall remained at the head of the national judiciary, and for thirty-five years he remained a Federalist. Moreover, as one of the old Federalist justices after another died and his place was filled by a Republican . . . he fell immediately under the overwhelming influence of the Chief Justice." Edward Channing, A History of the United States: vol. V, The Period of Transition, 1815-1848 (New York, 1921), 309.

Decatur's humbling of the Barbary States was a sop to the vanity of the republic, but the Nation's major foreign affairs were far from settled in the years after the Treaty of Ghent. It is a tribute to statesmen on both sides of the Atlantic that in the 19th century, when twisting the tail of the British Lion was a favorite American sport, and when British resentment toward her Yankee cousins was at its height, the two nations could resolve their differences peacefully if not always amicably. As early as 1815 many of the British commercial restrictions had been lifted, and two years later the Rush-Bagot agreement to limit war vessels on the Great Lakes was a first step toward demilitarization of the long United States-Canadian border. Subsequent negotiation finally settled the disputed northwest border and not even Andy Jackson's summary execution of two British traders in Spanish East Florida could wreck the spirit of peaceful negotiation.

In the spring of 1818 Jackson had marched into Florida on his own initiative, designing the removal of this long-time Spanish threat to the southern flank of the United States. Although the government repudiated Jackson's aggression, there was no denying that it moved Spain finally to abandon Florida. In the face of Secretary of State John Q. Adams' demand that Spain either control Florida or get out, the Spanish relinquished all claim to the region in 1819. Thus another obstacle to national expansion was removed at little cost in a demonstration of power diplomacy, American style.

The growth of sectionalism, obscured for a time by the first flush of post-war nationalism, was starkly revealed in 1819 when the ad-
mission of two new states, Maine and Missouri, came before the Congress. The Union's 22 states at the end of 1818 were equally divided between slave and free. The South, well aware that she was falling behind the other sections in population and Congressional representation, was determined that the balance of power should be maintained. The Federal government had now come face to face with a problem that, apart from its social and moral significance in terms of human slavery, would have far-reaching effects on the developing pattern of sectional politics. Early in 1819 Missouri statehood had come up for consideration but no agreement could be reached as to the status of slavery in the proposed state. Late in the year Maine applied for statehood, making possible a compromise solution to the Missouri impasse. Let Missouri come in slave, with the provision that slavery be prohibited in the rest of the Louisiana Purchase north of the line 36 degrees, 30 minutes, along which ran the southern border of Missouri. The admission of Maine would maintain the balance between slave and free states. On this basis the Missouri Compromise was effected and a line drawn between slave and free territory which would serve for an uneasy generation as the guide for subsequent admissions to the Union. The flames of sectional conflict were contained, but they were not quenched.24

24 In a letter of April 22, 1820, Jefferson expressed his fears concerning the Compromise and made the famous "fire-bell in the night" statement. Wrote Jefferson, "This momentous question, like a fire-bell in the night, awakened and filled me with terror. I considered it at once as the knell of the Union. It is hushed, indeed, for the moment. But this is a reprieve only, not a final sentence." P. L. Ford, ed., Writings of Jefferson (New York, 1892-.899), X, 147.
President Monroe, unopposed for a second term in 1820, was the last of the Virginia dynasty. With him would pass the leadership of men who had known the heady days of revolution and government-making. An era was ending in these last years of the Virginia succession, but they were to produce one far-reaching statement of American foreign policy which, bearing Monroe's name, became with the passing of years the shield behind which the Western Hemisphere pursued its destiny free from the colonial exploitation of Europe.

The "Monroe Doctrine" which, in fact, did not become a doctrine for many years, was the joint effort of Monroe and his able Secretary of State, the blunt and introverted John Quincy Adams. The American statement was an answer to a British proposal that the United States and Britain jointly oppose any French meddling in troubled South America, now swept by the winds of revolution. Adams urged that the United States assert its independence in the Western Hemisphere by going its way alone. When Britain received French assurances of non-interference in Latin America the question of joint American and British action was allowed to die. Adams still maintained that the time was ripe for the United States to assert the inviolability of the Western Hemisphere from foreign intervention. In his annual message to Congress on December 2, 1823, President Monroe warned Europe that the Americas were no longer subject to foreign imperialism, although existing European colonies would not be disturbed. Monroe further assured Europe that her wars would henceforth be of no concern to the United States. In unmistakable terms, Adams and Monroe had proclaimed the
sovereignty of the Western Hemisphere.25

The Rise of the Opposition

Monroe's last years in office were troubled by the growing rivalry within his cabinet among three would-be successors to the presidency, John Q. Adams, Henry Clay and William H. Crawford. Opposition to the party nominating caucus had thrown presidential nominations to the state legislatures and in 1824 Tennessee put forward her favorite son, the western hero Andrew Jackson. John C. Calhoun, who had allowed his name to be placed in nomination for the vice-presidency on both the Adams and Jackson tickets, was elected on the first ballot but none of the presidential candidates received a majority and the issue was taken to the House of Representatives. On his elimination from the race, the opportunist Clay threw his support, and the election, to Adams. The bitterly-resentful Jacksonians professed to see a corrupt bargain when Clay was appointed by Adams to be his successor as Secretary of State.

The hotly-contested election of 1824 had sounded the death-knell of the old Republican party of Jefferson, Madison and Monroe.

Two distinct factions now emerged as parties in their own right - the conservative National Republicans of Adams and Clay, and the Democratic

25 The Doctrine has been described as "a document rather of the future than of the time of its first utterance. Europe really paid little attention to it . . . . The significance in 1823 of the Monroe Doctrine is that it served as a capstone to a very positive structure of American foreign policy that had been built up from a half-century of independent dealing with foreign nations. It proclaimed in strong Republican tone an American system for the New World." Bemis, A Diplomatic History of the United States, 208.
Republicans who hitched their wagon to the rising star of Andrew Jackson. When Adams showed himself as nationalistic as any old-time Federalist, at a time when sectionalism was on the rise, Southern states-righters closed ranks for the long struggle which now was inevitable.

Adams' opponents, rallying around the hard-driving and popular Jackson, had their quarry at a disadvantage from the start. Adams, cold and conscientious, was not a politician and refused to wield the power and patronage of his office to construct a strong administration machine. Vice-President Calhoun bitterly opposed the high protective tariff which threatened ruin to his state's cotton economy. Using his appointive power, he stacked important Senate committees with men hostile to the administration. Still, for a time, the coalition of New England advocates of the high protective tariff and the western supporters of Henry Clay and his American System of internal improvements was sufficiently strong to maintain Adams' position.

His long experience in foreign affairs notwithstanding, Adams' term of office was not distinguished in the realm of diplomacy. The President showed himself reluctant to take the lead in inter-American affairs despite the initiative asserted by the Monroe pronouncement. When the South American republics proposed a convention of American states, to meet in Panama in 1826, Adams accepted an invitation for the United States to attend, but in submitting his acceptance for Congressional approval the President stirred up a hornets' nest. Had Adams simply asserted executive leadership and sent his representatives to Panama the storm of opposition probably would have quickly
blown itself out. The United States might then and there have emerged as the acknowledged leader of the West, although neither Adams nor Secretary of State Clay had any such ambitious results in mind. When Congress finally gave its reluctant approval for American representation in Panama it was too late. Circumstances prevented the American delegates from getting to the conference and so the opportunity was lost. Even so, approval for American attendance at the Conference represented Adams' only political success with Congress.26

In domestic affairs the rising opposition found a weapon in the tariff which continued the strong protectionist trend set by the Tariffs of 1816 and 1824. Northern industry profited by the high duties on imports but the Southerners who purchased abroad, and Northern commercial interests which dealt in imported goods joined hands in opposition. In 1828 the "Tariff of Abominations" took protectionist duties to the highest point yet reached. A political maneuver in the upcoming presidential race of 1828, the tariff was designed to present Jackson to the South as an enemy of high protection while assuring the key Middle Atlantic states that Jackson would be a protector of their manufactures. Since New England was certain to go for Adams, and the South seemed assured for Jackson, the tariff was drawn up to protect the middle-states producers of iron and other raw materials, while taking away protection from New England's textile industry. This, the Jackson

26 Ibid, 209. Channing notes the possibility that with strong support for Adams and Clay, the United States might have taken the lead of the western nations, but comments: "Probably nothing would have come of the enterprise had the United States been represented at Panama and it may have been for the best that no such league of American nations was formed." Channing, X, 361.
"Jackson is to be President, and you will be HANGED."

An anti-Jackson cartoon left little to the imagination of voters in the bitter election campaign of 1828.

The New York Historical Society
men confidently believed, would insure the opposition of the Northeast and the defeat of the bill. The defeat by New England of a bill favorable to the industry of the middle states would send those states into the Jackson camp and insure his election. Despite the blatant political overtones of the tariff, New England, surprisingly, accepted it as maintaining the cherished principle of protection. Although their plan had backfired, the Jacksonians emerged as the friends of the producers of raw materials and won the votes of the middle industrial states in the ensuing election.

The election of 1828 was a thumping victory for the Jackson Democrats. The West, suspicious of Adams' avowed intention to administer the public lands on a business basis unfavorable to the mass of settlers, went overwhelmingly for its favorite son, 'Old Hickory.' The South was bitter over the new tariff but went solidly for Jackson as a defender of states rights. The crucial states of Pennsylvania and New York also declared for the hero of New Orleans, in a contest marred by some of the most scurrilous campaigning in the Nation's history. While the election of 1828 can be interpreted as a sectional struggle, it was also the first to reflect broad popular suffrage, with the people rather than the state legislatures voting for the presidential electors in all but two states. In the swelling ranks of ordinary citizens - farmers, small businessmen, frontiersmen and workmen - there was sentiment in every quarter of the Nation for the colorful, plain-spoken Andy Jackson who seemed to promise a new day for the plain people. The election which appeared to pit the privileged few against the many was
not nearly as simple as that, but the image was what counted. The carefully-cultivated picture of Jackson as frontier democrat was enough to carry him into the White House on a wave of popular enthusiasm. If the country was not aware of it before, any doubts that a new political era had opened were removed by the rampaging reception for the new Chief Executive following his inauguration March 4, 1829. The crowd that tore down the White House drapes, climbed on the furniture and roared toasts to Old Hickory may have sent a shiver down Whig spines, but in their exuberance the Jackson partisans were giving an eloquent sendoff to a new age. The clouds of sectional strife were fast gathering and at the end of the next generation the Nation would plunge into the abyss, but for now the mass of voters exulted in their new-found strength and cheered the dawn of the age of Jackson.

The popular image of Jackson was that of the typical democratic frontiersman - the plain-spoken man of the people. Although born on a South Carolina farm, Jackson had, early in his career, determined to secure the pleasures and privileges of wealth, and from the beginning of his public career considered himself an aristocrat, a view shared by those with whom he associated. With his income as a lawyer Jackson bought land and slaves and took for his associates men of wealth and power in Tennessee. If Jackson, possessing wealth and position, did not consider himself one of the great mass of common citizens to whom he appealed, he nevertheless reflected their aspirations and spirit to an uncommon degree. He did not create or even fully comprehend the democratic movement which came to bear his name, but he was willing to have it center around him in the persons of the new race of professional politicians who recognized and were prepared to exploit the rising mass sentiment which took Jackson for its hero. Writes Hofstadter, "A man like Jackson who had been on the conservative side of economic issues in Tennessee could become the leader of a national democratic movement without feeling guilty of any inconsistency. When we find a planter aristocrat expressing absolute confidence in popular judgment, it is unfair to dismiss him as a demagogue. He became a favorite of the people, and might easily come to believe that the people chose well." Richard Hofstadter, The American Political Tradition, 47.
Conclusion

The critical years between 1783 and 1830 witnessed the birth pangs of the Federal Union, the completion of the American struggle for independence from foreign domination and the dawn of popular government. In this same period the Nation turned its back on Europe and declared itself the shield behind which the Western Hemisphere would be free to pursue its destiny.

From its eclipse after the Revolution, American military strength emerged to wrest the trans-Appalachian West from the enemies, red and white, who barred the paths of settlement. In armed conflict with the mightiest powers of Europe, American forces on land and sea asserted the determination of the young republic to maintain its newly-won sovereignty. In the second war with Britain the Nation gave and received hard blows in a struggle which brought neither final victory nor defeat but won for the United States a grudging recognition of its place on the world stage.

Politically the Nation had moved from a loose confederation of sovereign states to a Federal union dominated by an increasingly strong central government. From the period of the Confederation when representation rested in the hands of a limited number of voters qualified by property to have a voice in the Nation's destiny, the trend had been toward the enfranchisement of the whole body of the people. The years which saw the triumph of nationalism saw also the rise of party factions and sectionalism, although in 1830 sectional rivalry was as yet only an ominous cloud, warning of the storm to come.
In summary, the years 1783 to 1830 were the years of transition when the United States, born of revolution, came of age. Political and military affairs tell only part of the great story, but out of these affairs emerged both the institutions and the physical growth which assured the success of the American democratic experiment. The foundation thus laid would be subjected to almost intolerable stress, but not even the calamity of sectional conflict could shatter the edifice built by law and justice and blood between 1783 and 1830.
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SURVEY OF SITES AND BUILDINGS

General Discussion

The theme of Military and Political Affairs, 1783-1830, is well represented by surviving sites and buildings. In the present report, primary attention has been given to sites and buildings east of the Mississippi River, leaving it to other thematic studies, already completed or in preparation, to cover events and significant developments west of the River. Most of these trans-Mississippi sites fall logically into the several subthemes which constitute Theme XV, Westward Expansion and Extension of the National Boundaries to the Pacific, 1830-1893. Theme XV studies include a few sites of military and political significance which antedate 1830, but which contributed directly to expansion beyond the Mississippi to the shores of the Pacific.

Those sites and buildings most significantly associated with political affairs prior to 1830 are already administered by the Federal government, through the National Park Service and other agencies. Without question, the most notable sites and buildings relating to political affairs are the Independence National Historical Park group in Philadelphia, and the several important public buildings in Washington, D. C., including the National Capitol and the White House, which figured in national affairs before 1830. Most of the remaining sites and buildings of major importance in political affairs of the period are in public ownership, at the state and municipal level. Most of the homes associated with outstanding figures of the period are in the hands of public and private preservation
organizations.

In Virginia is preserved a notable collection of homes once occupied by some of the most outstanding public figures of the period 1783 to 1830, including Washington, Jefferson, John Marshall, Madison and Monroe. Most of these are in rural or semi-rural areas and have been spared the destruction or extensive alteration which have overtaken dwellings in more populous, heavily-developed regions. These important houses are preserved through State and municipal agencies and through the efforts of private individuals and organizations, and some still serve as private dwellings. The Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities has taken a particularly active role in the preservation and maintenance of the State's fine houses.

Unfortunately, other states cannot show a similar concentration of important buildings of the period. Virginia, it is true, produced a high proportion of outstanding national figures, but in other states, especially in the northeast, the lack of significant private homes is attributable to the explosive spread of urbanization in the 19th and 20th centuries which in many areas swept away the relics of the past to make room for the developments of the present. The few top-ranking public buildings of the period which remain intact owe their survival in most instances to the fact that they have remained in active use, serving state and municipal governments continuously since their construction. Most notable examples of these are the Massachusetts and Maryland State Houses and New York City Hall. Connecticut's Old State House has survived
for much the same reason, although its function as a center of State
and city government ceased a number of years ago, by which time its
significance as a historic and architectural landmark was well-
recognized.

In the South, significant preservations of public build-
ings include Cahaba, the capital of Alabama from 1819 to 1826, now
being developed as a historic site by the State, and Fort Smith,
Arkansas, a major administrative and military outpost of the Old
Southwest in the early 19th century. This historic settlement is
being developed by the City of Fort Smith. The continued protec-
tion of the most important sites and buildings now preserved in the
eastern United States seems assured, thanks to sustained and grow-
ing interest on the part of public and private organizations de-
voted to saving the physical remains of the Nation's heritage.

The same degree of preservation is assured also for sites
and structures relating to military affairs of the period, as will
be noted in the individual site descriptions which follow. Virtually
every decisive military action undertaken by the United States,
against the Indians and in the second war with Great Britain, is
preserved at one or more sites. Even the undeclared naval war with
France and the conflict with the Barbary states can be interpreted
to some degree by the Frigate Constitution, although the role of
"Old Ironsides" in the French affair was not a distinguished one.

As might be expected from the nature of American political
and military developments between 1783 and 1830, most of the sites
and buildings dealing with political affairs are concentrated in
the east, with only a sprinkling of major sites in the region west of the Appalachians. Much of this western region was still frontier in character in 1830 and the arena of political decision was in the more populous east. Conversely, most of the outstanding military sites are in the trans-Appalachian west where American military effort was concentrated in the long years of struggle with the Indians and in the War of 1812 which finally won the Old Northwest for the United States. Other phases of the War of 1812 are also represented, however, as evidenced by surviving sites such as Fort McHenry in Baltimore, and Plattsburgh Bay and Sackets Harbor in New York. Preservation of Chalmette Battlefield at New Orleans rounds out the War of 1812 picture, interpreting the decisive repulse of the British effort to gain a foothold in the lower Mississippi Valley.

The states of Ohio, Indiana and Michigan administer several important sites and buildings which preserve the history of the military conquest of the Old Northwest. The sites of the decisive battles of Fallen Timbers, Ohio, and Tippecanoe, Indiana, are preserved in state ownership, as is the fine collection of well-preserved buildings which makes up Fort Mackinac, Mackinac Island, Michigan. Indiana also maintains the First Territorial Capitol of Indiana, Vincennes, and Ohio has preserved the sites of a number of frontier forts, the most notable of which are Fort Meigs and Fort Recovery. Ohio, through the agency of the Anthony Wayne Parkway Board, also has undertaken a comprehensive program to mark and interpret important sites and travel routes related to the
military campaigns which finally won the Old Northwest for the United States.

New York also has preserved a number of important military sites of the period 1783-1830. The fine restoration of Old Fort Niagara is owned by the State although the site is administered by a private association. Sackets Harbor Battlefield on Lake Ontario is a state park. The important site of Macdonough's naval victory at Plattsburg Bay on Lake Champlain is not developed as a historic site, although the State maintains a public campground on Cumberland Head overlooking the Bay.

A few military sites of some importance are preserved in the Old Southwest, notable in Alabama where several outposts and battlefields of the Creek War of 1813-14 are preserved. A conjectural reconstruction of Fort Lashley, site of Andrew Jackson's victory over the Indians in November 1813, has been started. The State owns but has not developed the site of Fort Mims, scene of the massacre of white settlers which led to Jackson's punitive expedition against the Creeks two months later. The site of Fort Strother, Jackson's headquarters on the Coosa River in November and December of 1813, is marked by minor earthworks and a monument. There are other scattered military sites in Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee and Mississippi but these, for the most part, are relatively minor in significance.

Most of the outstanding sites and buildings noted in the present theme are well preserved and maintained, although others of considerable potential importance have lost their identity entirely.
or have been so altered as to lose their integrity as authentic remains of the period. The Brig **Niagara**, Perry's second flagship at the Battle of Lake Erie, was recovered in ruinous condition from the waters of Lake Erie in 1913. The reconstructed vessel, minus masts and fittings, is displayed under State administration at Erie, Pennsylvania. Only the keel of the original warship is believed to survive in the replica. The present reconstruction of the **Niagara** was made under supervision of competent naval authorities, including Howard I. Chapelle, and the ship could be made a most interesting exhibit on the naval war fought on the Great Lakes. The vessel is in need of adequate protection if it is to be saved from further deterioration and loss of whatever remains of the original **Niagara**.

The site of the disastrous Battle of Bladensburg which lay Washington open to capture by the British in August 1814, has been obliterated by suburban growth spreading from the Washington capital district. The site of Fort Williams, on Alabama's Coosa River, from which Andrew Jackson began his advance toward Horseshoe Bend in March, 1814, has been inundated by dam construction. Its approximate location is indicated by a nearby military cemetery. "Friendship Hill," for more than 40 years the home of Albert Gallatin, Secretary of the Treasury under Presidents Jefferson and Madison, is in private hands and its future preservation is uncertain. The Hamilton Grange, home of Alexander Hamilton, is in good hands, but its present location, described in the following section of this report, is highly undesirable and may even endanger the proper protection and maintenance of the house.
Despite the loss of some sites and buildings, and threats to the preservation of others, the over-all picture is a bright one. In total number, importance and individual integrity of sites and buildings, the theme is well represented by sites and buildings which give a balanced, fully-dimensioned picture of the most significant political and military affairs of the period 1783 to 1830.
CRITERIA FOR CLASSIFICATION
OF SITES AND BUILDINGS

Listed below are the criteria by which each site considered in the Survey is evaluated. Sites and buildings under consideration must meet one or more of the criteria to be designated as possessing "exceptional value as commemorating or illustrating the history of the United States."

1. Structures or sites in which the broad cultural, political, economic, military, or social history of the Nation is best exemplified, and from which the visitor may grasp the larger patterns of our American heritage. Such sites are naturally the points or bases from which the broad aspects of prehistoric and historic American life can best be presented.

2. Structures or sites associated importantly with the lives of outstanding historic personages.

3. Structures or sites associated with important events which are symbolic of some great idea or ideal of the American people.

4. Structures which embody the distinguishing characteristics of an architectural type-specimen, exceptionally valuable for a study of a period style or method of construction; or a notable work of a master builder, designer, or architect whose individual genius reflected his age.

5. Archeological sites which have produced information of major scientific importance by revealing new cultures or by shedding light upon periods of occupation over large areas of the United States. Such sites are those which have produced or which may reasonably be expected to produce data which have affected theories, concepts, and ideas to a major degree.

6. All historical and archeological sites and structures, in order to meet the standards of exceptional importance, should have integrity; that is, there should not be doubts as to whether it is the original site or building, original material, or workmanship, and original location. Intangible elements of feeling and association, although difficult to describe, may also be factors in weighing the integrity of a site or structure.

7. Structures or sites of recent historical importance relating to events or persons within 50 years, will not, as a rule, be eligible for consideration.
Sites and Buildings Relating to
Political Affairs, 1783-1830

Recommended for Classification of Exceptional Value

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SITES OF EXCEPTIONAL VALUE
POLITICAL AFFAIRS
MARYLAND STATE HOUSE

Location: State Circle, Annapolis, Maryland

Ownership-Administration: State of Maryland

Significance: The Maryland State House is one of the most significant of American buildings. For nearly nine months in 1783-84 it was the seat of the National government. For six months the Continental Congress met in the room known today as the Old Senate Chamber, and on the adjournment of Congress a "Committee of the States" remained at the State House in charge of government affairs. During the Congressional session in the State House, the Treaty of Paris, formally ending the Revolutionary War, was ratified on January 14, 1784. A few weeks earlier, on December 23, 1783, General George Washington appeared before Congress at the State House to resign his commission as Commander in Chief of the American military establishment, affirming the concept of the precedence of civilian leadership over the military. In August 1784, the building was returned by the Congress to the State, but it was destined again to figure prominently in national affairs when in September 1786, it was the scene of the conference which successfully urged the calling by Congress of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. The Annapolis Convention was called for the purpose of discussing preparation of a commercial code to govern all of the states. Only five states responded to the invitation to attend and the immediate purpose of the meeting was not accomplished. The Convention then prevailed on Congress to call upon the states to send delegates to Philadelphia in May 1787, to debate the state of the Union and "to devise such further provision as shall appear to them necessary to render the constitution of the

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Federal Government adequate to the exigencies of the Union ... ."
Out of this resolution grew the Convention which drew up the Federal Constitution.

Construction of the Maryland State House was begun on March 23, 1772, with Maryland's last Royal governor officiating at the laying of the cornerstone. Many historians have credited Joseph Clark with the design of the building, but Clark did not appear on the scene until some years after construction began. As yet the architect has not been positively identified. The exact date of completion is not known, but it is believed that the building was in use for the General Assembly session which opened on March 23, 1780. Architecturally, the State House is a severe brick structure topped by a tall octagonal dome and cupola. "The main entrance, facing the east, is protected by a one-story pedimented Corinthian portico with marble floor, wooden columns, iron capitals, and cast-iron railing; it is obviously a later addition. The portal opens into a wide arcaded hall of similar classic order under the central dome, which has arched and oval windows and delicate plaster interior ornament in the Adam style, completed in 1793."*

Over the entrance to the Old Senate Chamber is a curved balustraded spectators' gallery, supported by fluted Ionic columns. Facing the entrance is the circular speaker's platform. "Typical of late Georgian Colonial design are the twenty-four-paned sash windows with deep paneled reveals, window seats and inner shutters, and the classically trimmed fireplace."**

**Ibid.
Opposite the Senate Chamber is the Old Hall of Delegates, next to which is the present Historic and Flag Room, used for exhibit purposes.

In the years following its nationally significant role in the first years of independence, the State House has continued to serve as the center of state government. In 1902-05, expansion of state governmental functions necessitated the addition of an annex slightly larger than the original building. Unfortunately, the annex has obscured the original plan and symmetry of the State House.

Features and Condition: The original State House now houses the offices of the Governor, the Secretary of State and Attorney General, and contains a room for the Department of Legislative Reference. Two rooms are reserved for exhibition purposes: the Historic and Flag Room which contains relics of Maryland's role in the Nation's wars, and the Old Senate Chamber, restored to its appearance at the time of the building's occupancy by the Continental Congress. Six original pieces of furniture are exhibited.

Built in 1772, Maryland’s Colonial State House is still in use. Here George Washington resigned his commission as Commander-in-Chief of the Continental forces and the Treaty of Paris was ratified by the Continental Congress.

Courtesy of Maryland Department of Information
OLD STATE HOUSE, CONNECTICUT

Location: Main Street at Central Row, Hartford, Connecticut

Ownership-Administration: City of Hartford

Significance: The Connecticut State House was the first of the great public buildings designed by Charles Bulfinch and is, today, one of the most authentically and carefully restored of any of the surviving civic structures of the Federal period. Although its excellent proportions and other outstanding features of design belong to Bulfinch, his association with the building was not as intimate as with some of his other structures. The State House in Hartford reflects, therefore, not only the genius of its designer, but the skill and creative talents of local artisans as well.

In May 1792, the Connecticut General Assembly passed a measure appointing a committee including, among others, the artist John Trumbull, to supervise the construction of a new State House. The Boston architect Charles Bulfinch was commissioned to prepare the design and by September 1792, had completed it. Work on the building started in the following spring. There were vexing delays due to difficulties in financing the building, but it was finally ready for occupancy in 1796.

The first floor of the building was constructed of Portland (Connecticut) freestone, three feet thick and the upper story, two feet thick, was of brick in Flemish bond. Dimensions of the State House were 120 by 50 feet, with porticos 40 feet wide on the east and west faces. The white-columned portico on the east
side is one of the building's major architectural features. The balustrade and cupola were added in 1815 and 1822 respectively, but both, most probably, were in the original Bulfinch design. Detailed letters of Trumbull have revealed much about the original plans and materials.

The east and west porticos formerly were open to the central corridor of the building, but the corridor has since been walled in, and doors and windows added. The staircase which rises from the central corridor has been restored to the original design. The staircase, with elaborately turned balusters, rises on either side of the central corridor, joins into one and turns back on itself. On the landing is the restored Secretary of State's office. On the first floor, the Superior Court chamber, now considerably altered, was on the north side of the corridor, while the executive offices were on the south side. The best evidence of the original design is found in the two large rooms on the second floor; the Senate Chamber at the south end, and the House of Representatives' Chamber on the north.

In 1879, when the new State Capitol was finished, the State House became the Hartford City Hall and remained the seat of city government until 1915. A major restoration of the old building, begun in 1918, was done with great care and skill. At this time, the foundations and outer walls were found in excellent condition. The preservation of the Old State House was assured by the installation of steel beams in place of wood, and the addition of steel trusses in the roof and cupola.

Features and Condition: Standing among modern office buildings in downtown Hartford, the Old State House is a dramatic and instructive tie between the early years of the American Republic and the present.
The building is maintained in excellent condition as a landmark and is open without charge to visitors.

The Old State House, Hartford, Connecticut, is a classic example of early Federal architecture.

April 10, 1959

National Park Service photograph
Massachusetts State House

Location: Beacon Hill, Boston, Massachusetts

Ownership-Administration: State of Massachusetts

Significance: The Massachusetts State House has been called the master work of the American architect Charles Bulfinch and it remains today a supreme example of the civic architecture in the early years of the Republic. Of the building, an English architect commented that it "forms an almost unique link in the architectural history of America and shows the development of the architecture of the English-speaking people... . Through it we can trace the aesthetic pedigree of Bulfinch to the great line of Gibbs, Wren, and Jones."* In his Autocrat of the Breakfast Table, Oliver Wendell Holmes made the classic evaluation of the place the House holds in the hearts of Bostonians when he observed that "Boston State House is the hub of the solar system. You couldn't pry that out of a Boston man, if you had the tire of all Creation straightened out for a crowbar." Although the State House has been the focus of Massachusetts government in the years since its completion, its significance in the period covered by the present report is primarily architectural.

In February 1795, the Governor of Massachusetts approved the Resolve of the State's General Court adopting Bulfinch's design for a new State House. The architect, then 31 years old, was appointed one of the agents in charge of the building's construction. Consequently,

* Charles A. Place, Charles Bulfinch: Architect and Citizen (Boston, 1925), 90, citing "a well-known English architect."
Bulfinch was intimately involved in every phase of the construction, not only advising on and interpreting his plan, but assuming much of the responsibility for purchasing materials and conducting business details.

On July 4, 1795, the cornerstone was hauled to its place on a wagon drawn by fifteen white horses, representing the states of the Union. The stone was laid by Governor Samuel Adams, assisted by Paul Revere, Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of Masons. For several years, work on the State House continued, during which time Bulfinch was plunged into bankruptcy in the failure of a business venture. In January 1798, the State House was occupied by the General Court although more than a year was required to complete the structure. Bulfinch marched in the procession that marked the removal of the seat of Massachusetts government from the Old State House in State street to the new building on historic Beacon Hill. Final accounting of building costs was rendered in March 1800, showing a total cost of approximately $153,000, including furnishings.

As designed and constructed by Bulfinch, the State House measured 172 by 65 feet, with its dome rising 155 feet. It was constructed of red brick in Flemish bond, with white marble lintels and keystones. The dome, previously unprotected, was covered with copper in 1802 by Paul Revere and Son. The dome was first gilded in 1861 and covered with gold-leaf in 1874. The present cupola or "lanthorn" is a reproduction of the original. The dome, 53 feet in diameter, was made fireproof by the addition of steel beams in the preservation effort of 1896-98.
Over the years a number of changes in the building and its setting have marred to some degree the original lines conceived by Bulfinch. Major modifications include the construction of a basement above the ground, and the extension of a piazza with low balustrade over the steps which originally ascended between the arches. The lines of the "Bulfinch Front" were further marred by the later erection of white marble wings on both sides and extending from the rear, to accommodate the growing functions of state government. Despite these intrusions, the major part of the original building remains to reflect the genius of its designer. Surviving interior features which reveal Bulfinch's plans include the Doric Hall, the old Senate Chamber, the old House Chamber and the Council Chamber.

Features and Condition: The State House today is not only the center of government for the State of Massachusetts, but is a memorial to the stirring history of the Bay State. In addition to the Executive Department and Senate Chamber, the Bulfinch wing contains memorial paintings, tablets and statuary and in its Memorial Hall are Massachusetts battle flags from the Civil War through World War II. Also exhibited is the Colonial Charter of 1628. The Bulfinch building is a showpiece in a city with a rich architectural heritage, and it is preserved and maintained in a manner suitable to its outstanding significance.

Gold-domed Massachusetts State House on Boston's Historic Beacon Hill rightfully deserves its name as one of the most famous architectural structures in America. The original "Bulfinch Front," built in 1795, is a monument to the genius of Charles Bulfinch as an expression of classicism in American design.

Courtesy of Massachusetts Department of Commerce
NET YORK CITY HALL

**Location:** City Hall Park, lower Manhattan Island, New York City, New York.

**Ownership-Administration:** City of New York

**Significance:** Since its completion in 1811, New York City Hall has been the heartbeat of the bustling seaport which became the capital of the Free World. The Hall has watched American armies passing in review, going to battle or coming home from the Nation's wars, from 1812 to Korea. For more than a century and a half it has greeted the great of this and other nations; Lafayette and Lindbergh, Garibaldi and Eisenhower; and it has welcomed to these shores the humble and unknown. Before it have passed generations of immigrants, trudging toward their new homes in the teeming city or in the cities, farms and plains which stretched westward to the Pacific. The Hall tells the colorful and significant story of civic administration in an American metropolis and preserves the deeds of good men and bad who shaped the American political tradition: De Witt Clinton, father of the Erie Canal; "Boss" Tweed, the evil genius of machine politics, and the able and flamboyant "Little Flower", Fiorello La Guardia, among scores of others no less memorable.

Apart from its historic role as one of the Nation's foremost public buildings, City Hall has equal significance as a gem of American civic architecture. A blending of French Renaissance and American Colonial influences, City Hall was described by Henry James as the "divine little structure" and praised for its "perfect taste and finish, the reduced yet ample scale, the harmony of parts, the just
proportions, the modest classic grace."

In 1803, ground was broken for a new city hall for busy, expanding New York. A year earlier, the Common Council had accepted the building plans submitted by Joseph F. Mangin and John McComb, Jr. Mangin receded from the scene, and the degree of credit due him for the original plan has been the subject of long-time controversy. The cornerstone was laid on May 26, 1803, and laid so well that not even a mine detector could locate the stone and its metal plaque when the Hall was rehabilitated in 1955.

During the course of the construction, there were aggravating delays as civic officials haggled over the plans and demanded changes in them, but somehow the work moved forward. At first brownstone was considered for the building material, but the common desire for a fine and beautiful building resulted in a compromise - front and sides of marble and rear of brownstone. Finally, on August 12, 1811, the city government moved into its new quarters, although the finishing details were not completed until the following year. Thereafter, the Hall was the "Hub of Municipal History", witnessing events and individuals that reflected the local, national and world scene. And the Hall had its share of troubles. On August 17, 1858, the successful laying of the Atlantic Cable was celebrated by fireworks and the illumination of City Hall. Next day, fire, probably caused by the fireworks, destroyed the cupola, much of the dome and roof and most of the second floor. The cupola already had been altered in 1830, and now was rebuilt in the altered design rather than on McComb's original plan. In 1917, during

the City's reception of the Allied War Commission the cupola burned again and this time the reconstruction was practically identical to the original McComb design. The building underwent complete restoration in 1954-56. A new veneer of stone was secured to the old wall, faulty brick work and rotten timbers were replaced, new columns placed on the portico and the interior renovated with fresh paint, new electrical wiring, cleaning of stone work and replacement of deteriorated wood.

Aside from its special functions, the Hall has been, year in and year out, the center for administration of New York City, its eight million people and 359 square miles.

Features and Condition: City Hall has been described as a living museum of New York History, blending architectural beauty and historical significance in a combination rare in American public buildings. In the Hall are the offices of the Mayor and the President of the City Council, and the meeting rooms of the City Council and Board of Estimate. Here, too, is the famous Room No. 9, reserved for use of the press. Leading figures of American history who have been associated directly or indirectly with New York City are honored by sculpture and paintings in the Governor's Room and throughout the Hall. The Governor's Room on the second floor, serves as a museum displaying, among other items, a mahogany writing table used by Washington in the first days of his presidency, and arm chairs used by members of the first United States Senate during its sessions in New York.

New York City Hall, completed in 1811, is a striking adaptation of French Renaissance and American Colonial influences. The building houses the office of the Mayor and other officials of the City of New York.

Courtesy of the New York Convention and Visitors Bureau
UNITED STATES CAPITOL

Location: Capitol Hill, Washington, D. C.

Ownership-Administration: United States Government

Significance: The United States Capitol, with but one brief interruption since 1800 has been the seat of the Congress of the United States for 159 years. Here, recurrently, the manifold political forces affecting the destinies of the land have clashed in dramatic conflict, to be resolved in scenes expressing the historic development of the Nation. Here the Federal Government has spent millions of dollars to create a center not only of historical and political importance but also of architectural and artistic interest. The impressive Capitol Building dominates all Washington. Whether by day or night, it constantly attracts the eye. Most tourists find it the high point of their experiences in the National Capital. Laws affecting the lives of millions of Americans originate within its walls, and to all Americans and most foreigners, as well, it is the physical symbol of the United States of America. The memories of the great statesmen and the events that have occurred within its rooms and corridors over the years, have left in the building an atmosphere of historic nostalgia unlike any other building in the world.

Features and Condition: Started in 1793 and completed in 1865, few changes have altered the original appearance of the exterior or interior of the structure. It stands supreme in its significance.

THE WHITE HOUSE

Location: 1500 Pennsylvania Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Ownership-Administration: United States Government
Washington, D. C.

Significance: Considered to be the most important residence in the United States, the White House has been the home of every president since the administration of John Adams in 1800. The cornerstone of the White House, the first public building to be erected in Washington, was laid on October 13, 1792. The design of the house is the work of architect James Hoban, whose classic design was inspired by the Leinster House in his native city of Dublin.

Features and Condition: With certain minor changes and additions, the exterior of the house remains basically the same as when it was completed in 1800. The interior, however, has been changed several times through the years, the latest occurring in 1949-1952 during the administration of President Harry S. Truman when a complete renovation took place. Nevertheless, the historic floor plan has always been retained. Constructed of light grey sandstone from Aquia Creek, Virginia, the house was painted white after the structure was burned by the British during the attack on Washington August 24, 1814. Today, the White House stands as the physical symbol of the honor and dignity that signifies the highest office in the land.

THE OCTAGON

Location: 1741 New York Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Ownership-Administration: American Institute of Architects
1735 New York Avenue, N. W.
Washington, D. C.

Significance: The Octagon House, built between 1798-1800, stands as a superb example of an 18th century type of colonial town house. It was designed for Colonel John Tayloe in 1798, by Dr. William Thornton, the architect of the U. S. Capitol, and completed by 1800. Colonel Tayloe, for whom the house was built, was reputed to be the richest Virginian of his time, and built the house in Washington at the suggestion of George Washington. In 1814, Colonel Tayloe offered the use of his home to President and Mrs. Madison for a temporary Executive Mansion after the destruction of the White House during the British occupation of Washington in 1814. The offer was accepted and for about a year it became the center for White House social and official functions. The signing of the proclamation giving the terms of the peace treaty ending the War of 1812 occurred in one of the upstairs rooms.

Features and Condition: The house, since 1898, has been the headquarters of the American Institute of Architects, and still maintains most of its original appearance and charm. Many legends and stories associated with the occupants have also added much to its significance and charm. Condition of The Octagon is excellent.

References: Eberlein and Hubbard, Historic Houses of Georgetown and Washington City (Richmond, 1958); Historic American Buildings Survey (2 sheets, 1936); Fremont Rider, Rider's Washington (New York, 1924).
OCTAGON HOUSE - South West Front


1936
THE DECATURE HOUSE

**Location:** 743 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington, D. C.

**Ownership-Administration:** National Trust for Historic Preservation

**Significance:** The Decatur House is perhaps one of the finest examples of a Georgian Town House still standing in Washington. It is also one of the very few original houses that has survived the changes of time around historic Lafayette Park. The house, which was built for the famous Commodore Stephen Decatur, was occupied by the family in 1819, and although Decatur lived in it for only a year before his tragic death as the result of a duel, a long line of occupants have continued to associate the house with outstanding personages and events of national note. The house also stands as an original example of the outstanding work of Benjamin Henry Latrobe, noted designer of the period. Among its occupants were Henry Clay, Martin Van Buren, and Judah P. Benjamin.

**Features and Condition:** The physical appearance of the house has been changed very little from the original, and its significance as an important landmark is borne out by the fact that the house became the property of the National Trust for Historic Preservation in 1956.

DECATUR HOUSE - North West Front

1945 National Capital Parks photograph
TUDOR PLACE

Location: 1644 31st Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Ownership-Administration: Mr. Armistead Peter, Jr.
1644 31st Street N. W.,
Washington, D. C.

Significance: Tudor Place, located in Georgetown, is considered by many to be the most important private dwelling still standing within the District of Columbia, due to its original architectural features and its close association with the families of Washington and Lee. The house, which was started in 1794, still stands as it was originally built. It was designed by Dr. William Thornton, architect of the U. S. Capitol, and was at first the home of a wealthy merchant, Francis Lowndes, who later sold the partially completed house to Thomas Peter, husband of Martha Parlse Custis, (granddaughter of Martha Washington). Peter completed the structure around 1815.

For many years, the house was the center of Georgetown society where great families of the neighborhood were entertained, and visiting guests from time to time included such personages as leaders in the Federalist Party, Lafayette, Mason, and Robert E. Lee.

Features and Condition: Still containing many relics of the Washington family, the house today is occupied by direct descendants of the original Peter family. The building is in excellent condition.

ST. JOHN'S EPISCOPAL CHURCH

Location: 16th and H Streets, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Ownership-Administration: St. John's Parish

Significance: St. John's Church is pre-eminently "the Church of the Presidents." As far back as 1816, records show that at this time a committee was formed to "wait on the President of the United States (James Madison) and offer him a pew in the church without his being obliged to purchase same." Madison chose pew 54, but insisted on paying the customary annual rental. The next five Presidents in succession - Monroe, Adams, Jackson, Van Buren, and Harrison -- occupied this pew during their terms of office, and since then, by tradition, pew 54 has been set aside for Presidents of the United States. Franklin D. Roosevelt paid homage to the tradition by spending a few minutes in prayer here on his two inauguration days. The church is connected with the Presidents in other ways. James Madison's wife, Dolly, was baptized and confirmed there. President Harrison and Taylor were buried from it.

Features and Condition: In the architecture of Washington, St. John's Church also holds a distinguished place. It was designed by an early American architect, Benjamin Latrobe, and in spite of changes remains today as a notable example of late Federal architecture. Along with the Blair House and the Decatur House, St. John's Church, which was completed in 1816, stands as one of the few remaining original structures that are left around Lafayette Park today. The Church is in excellent condition.

CITY HALL (DISTRICT COURT HOUSE)

Location: Judiciary Square, D and E, Fourth and Fifth Streets, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Ownership-Administration: United States Government

Significance: Opposite the end of John Marshall Place, facing on D Street, N. W., stands the gray stone early Federal structure that now houses the national headquarters of the Selective Service System. This principal building, the first to be entered on the square, served principally as the City Hall from its completion in 1820 until the expansion of court business compelled the municipal government to move elsewhere. George Hadfield, one of the architects of the Capitol, designed the building. It is one of the finest examples of Greek Revival architecture in Washington, and is one of the only three Federal Buildings still standing that were built as early as 1800. The central portion, with its south facade supporting a light pediment, was completed first and is the original section having been completed in 1820. The east wing of the building was finished in 1826 and the west wing in 1849. A north extension was added in 1881. It is not only the architectural merits of the building that enhance its significance. When used as a court, many important trials of national interest occurred there including the trial of John Suratt, one of the Lincoln conspirators.

Features and Condition: Since 1952, the building has been the national headquarters of the Selective Service System. Condition of the building is good.

OLD DISTRICT COURTHOUSE - South East Front

1937 National Capital Parks photograph
MOUNT VERNON

Location: Fairfax County, seven miles south of Alexandria on Potomac River.

Ownership-Administration: The Mount Vernon Ladies' Association of the Union, Mount Vernon, Virginia.

Significance: Undoubtedly the best-known house in the United States, Mount Vernon is a living reminder of the "Father of His Country." Over a million Americans, each year, visiting Mount Vernon, gain an inspiring insight into the life of Washington.

Mount Vernon came into Washington's possession after the death of his half-brother, Lawrence, in 1752. It remained his home for the rest of his life, though the press of official duties kept him away for long periods, principally during the French and Indian War, the Revolution, and his two terms as President. In 1759 he brought his bride to Mount Vernon, and there both breathed their last, Washington in 1799 and Martha three years later. Both are buried on the grounds.

The house, built by George's father or by Lawrence, was enlarged and the grounds were developed by Washington in accordance with plans he drew up before the Revolution, though the work was not finally completed until 1787. Development included the enlargement of the main house and the addition of semi-detached wings, construction of a complex of detached outbuildings, landscaping of the grounds and the laying out of flower and kitchen gardens.

Features and Condition: The original plantation, comprising some 8,000 acres, was divided into five farms. Four of them have been divided and subdivided since Washington's death, and only the 500-acre
Mansion House Farm remains as an entity. It is owned by The Mount Vernon Ladies' Association of the Union, which acquired title from Washington's great-grandnephew in 1858. The house and outbuildings have been restored, the grounds have been landscaped in accordance with Washington's original plan, and the house through the years has been gradually and painstakingly refurnished with a large number of the original Washington pieces. Both the house and the grounds are well maintained, and they are open to visitors every day of the year.

MONTICELLO

Location: Albemarle County, 2 miles south of Charlottesville on State Highway 53.

Ownership-Administration: Thomas Jefferson Memorial Foundation.

Significance: Thomas Jefferson's "Little Mountain" perfectly reflects the genius and the versatility of its master. Most of his long life was spent here, his grave is located on the grounds, and his spirit lives on in the architectural perfection of the house and the multitude of ingenious devices with which he equipped it.

Jefferson began leveling the hilltop for construction of his home in 1768, and work on the mansion began soon thereafter. One wing, the so-called "Honeymoon Cottage," was completed in time for occupancy by Jefferson and his bride in January 1772, but the mansion was not finally completed until 1809. Except for absences necessitated by his public service, Jefferson remained here until his death on July 4, 1826. All during this period, but especially after his retirement from public life, Monticello was a place of pilgrimage for the great and the humble who admired Jefferson's character and accomplishments.

A classic example of American architecture, Monticello contains 35 rooms, including 12 in the basement. The west facade, most familiar to Americans, looks out upon a large lawn bordered by a flower garden. The ten acres of lawn surrounding the house afford magnificent panoramic views in every direction. Besides the house and its immediate dependencies, the plantation included several buildings which could not conveniently be included in the mansion proper, among them a nail factory.
Features and Condition: Monticello is owned and administered by the Thomas Jefferson Memorial Foundation, Charlottesville, Virginia, which acquired title in 1923. Mansion and grounds have been carefully restored, and the house is furnished largely with Jefferson belongings, including such ingenious devices as a seven-day calendar-clock, a folding desk, a dumb waiter, and a folding quartet music stand, and one room contains the first parquet floor in America. A small museum in the basement contains a number of the personal effects of Jefferson and his family. Both house and grounds are well-maintained and present an attractive appearance to the large numbers of visitors who come each year.

Thomas Jefferson's Monticello, "Little Mountain," reflects its master's genius and versatility. The home, occupied by Jefferson and his bride in 1772, overlooks Charlottesville, Virginia.

August 3, 1959

National Park Service photograph
GUNSTON HALL

**Location:** Fairfax County, on State Highway 242 overlooking the Potomac River.

**Ownership-Administration:** Commonwealth of Virginia; National Society of Colonial Dames of America.

**Significance:** Gunston Hall, an architectural gem overlooking the Potomac River 15 miles south of Alexandria, is a fitting monument to George Mason, constitutionalist. Mason (1725-92) is most noted for the various constitutional papers he wrote during the Revolutionary and immediate post-Revolutionary periods, including the "Fairfax Resolves" of 1774, relating to the constitutional position of the colonies and the mother country; the "Virginia Declaration of Rights" in 1776, which furnished at least a part of the inspiration for the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Bill of Rights; and the "Objections to the Proposed Constitution" in 1788, setting forth the bases of his opposition to the adoption of the Federal Constitution. Though Mason's fight against ratification of the Constitution failed in Virginia, most of his objections finally proved valid. Almost as important as his public writings was his influence upon his younger colleagues, many of whom became leaders in Virginia and national politics.

Mason built Gunston Hall during the years 1755-58, employing William Buckland, a skilled craftsman from Oxfordshire, to do the interior wood carving. The house is comparatively small and plain, but with elaborate projecting porches on both the land and river sides. The interior, surprisingly spacious, is notable for the quality of its ornamentation. Outstanding are the Palladian drawing room, with a
great variety of intricately carved wood and brocade-covered walls, and the Chinese Chippendale room, almost as elaborately decorated. The grounds are featured by a boxwood allee, 12 feet high and 250 feet long, surrounded by formal gardens, all originally planted by Mason.

**Features and Condition:** Gunston Hall is owned by the Commonwealth of Virginia and is administered by a Board of Regents appointed from The National Society of Colonial Dames of America. It is furnished with period pieces, though few of them belonged to George Mason. The formal gardens have been restored and the building and grounds present an attractive and well-maintained appearance. The house is open to the public.

MONTPELIER (Montpellier)

Location: Orange County, 4 miles west of Orange on State Highway 20.

Ownership-Administration: Mrs. Marion duPont Scott, Montpelier Station, Virginia.

Significance: Although he was not born at Montpelier, James Madison spent 76 years of his life there and came to consider it as his home. Born in King George County in 1751, young James moved to Orange County with his parents in 1760, where his father built the central portion of the present house. Except during his periods of public service - notably as a member of the Continental Congress, 1780-83; as a member of the Congress of the Confederation, 1787; as a member of the Federal Congress, 1789-97; as Secretary of State, 1801-09; and as President, 1809-17 - Madison remained at Montpelier. After he retired to private life, he and his wife, the vivacious Dolly Madison, held court at Montpelier for an unending succession of visitors, including the great and near-great, the humble and the curious. After 19 years of this not-so-quiet life, Madison died in 1836 at an advanced age. Dolly Madison moved away from Montpelier, but after her death 13 years later she was brought to rest beside her husband.

During his lifetime at Montpelier, Madison carried out the landscaping of the grounds around the mansion, which was enlarged by the addition of a huge Doric portico and one-room wings on each side of the original portion. The usual complement of outbuildings were constructed on the 4,500-acre estate.

Features and Condition: Montpelier is privately owned and is not open to visitors, with the exception of the Madison family ceme-
tery. About 50 years ago the wings were enlarged and raised to the
level of the central portion of the house. The grounds are beautifully
landscaped and show signs of careful maintenance, as does the mansion.

References: Irving Brant, James Madison (3 vols., Indianapolis, 1941-50); William E. Carson, Historic Shrines of Virginia (Richmond, 1934); Adrienne Koch, Jefferson and Madison (New York, 1950).
James Madison spent 76 years of his life at Montpelier, Orange County, Virginia.

August 3, 1959

National Park Service Photograph
Location: Loudoun County, one mile north of Gilberts Corner on U. S. Highway 15.


Significance: Oak Hill is the grand monument to the memory of James Monroe. Built at the height of his fame, it served as his home during the few remaining years of his life. His most noteworthy achievement, the Monroe Doctrine, was issued during his last term in the White House, while Monroe was maintaining his home at Oak Hill.

Monroe inherited the Oak Hill property from his uncle, Joseph Jones, who dies in 1805. About 1814, financial hardship resulting from his public service caused Monroe to place both Oak Hill and his Albemarle County tract on the market, his intent being to dispose of the one for which he first found a buyer. [Hamilton, V, 287-88]. By 1818 he had built a residence at Oak Hill and was spending a part of his time there. [Ibid., VI, 53, 63, 102]. By 1821 he apparently began to spend most of his leisure time there, and with the final sale of his Albemarle County holdings in 1827, Oak Hill became Monroe's only home. He remained there until late in 1830, when he moved to New York to live with his daughter.

The original Oak Hill tract was approximately 1,100 acres.

The house, which may have been designed by James Hoban, architect of the White House, consisted of a two-story central portion with small, one-room wings. The south portico, two stories in height and supported by seven Doric pillars, constituted the most striking feature of the mansion,
but the house in its entirety showed the touch of a master designer.

**Features and Condition:** Oak Hill is privately owned and is not open to the public. The mansion was altered in 1923 by the enlargement of the wings and a few other minor changes. A number of the original outbuildings remain, including Monroe's law office, a smokehouse and a spring house. Both house and grounds are well maintained. A number of the original furnishings are in the house.

Oak Hill, Loudon County, Virginia, was built by President James Monroe in 1818.

August 4, 1959

National Park Service Photograph
ASH LAWN

**Location:** Albemarle County, 7 miles south of Charlottesville on County Highway 627.

**Ownership-Administration:** Mr. Jay W. Johns, Charlottesville, Virginia.

**Significance:** On a hilltop two miles from Jefferson's Monticello, James Monroe maintained his home from November 1799, until about the end of his first term in the White House. During his busy career he was often absent from "Highland", as he called it, but his heart was always there. When, in 1814, financial necessity made him place both his Albemarle and Loudoun County estates on the market, he wrote Jefferson that he would "not sell that in Albemarle unless the price shall be such, as to indemnify me for the sacrifice I shall make in relinquishing a residence of 26 years standing, as mine in Albemarle has been, and near old friends to whom I am greatly attached." [Hamilton, V, 287-88]. He made improvements at Oak Hill to make the land more attractive to prospective purchasers [ibid., VI, 119], but he finally had instead to sell his land in Albemarle, where -- as he wrote Jefferson in 1826 -- "I expected and wished to have passed the remainder of my days." [Ibid., VII, 68].

Work on Monroe's Albemarle County home began in 1796, during his absence as minister to France, with Jefferson supervising the work. Monroe occupied the house in November 1799. Built on a rather steep slope, the house was a modest, seven-room structure, one-story in front and two behind. The usual outbuildings completed the structures on Monroe's 3,500-acre estate, and the landscaping included a boxwood garden planted under the owner's direction.
Features and Condition: Monroe's original house has been altered by the erection of a two-story addition to one side, involving the destruction of about half of the original parlor. The newer section is built on a higher level than the original, necessitating a step down in passing through the house. No other alterations are evident, though one authority states that the house "has experienced so many vicissitudes that it is difficult to determine its original appearance." [I. T. Frary, Thomas Jefferson, Architect and Builder (Richmond, 1931), p. 95]. The house is privately owned but is open to the public as a historic house museum.

James Monroe lived at Ash Lawn, near Charlottesville, Virginia, from November 1799, until near the end of his first term as President.

August 3, 1959

National Park Service photograph
JOHN MARSHALL HOUSE

Location: Ninth and Marshall Streets, Richmond, Virginia

Ownership-Administration: City of Richmond; Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities.

Significance: For 45 years this was the home of the great Chief Justice, John Marshall. Built in 1790, just as Marshall was emerging as leader of the Federalist party in Virginia, the house served as his home until the end of his distinguished judicial career. Marshall remained in Washington much of the time during his brief career in Congress and in President John Adams' cabinet, but after he became Chief Justice in 1801 he was able to spend much time at home. Altogether his judicial duties, in Washington and on circuit in Richmond and Raleigh, consumed an average of less than six months a year, and most of his remaining time was spent in Richmond. Many of his important opinions undoubtedly were written at home, and on innumerable occasions he hosted distinguished leaders in all branches of American life. No other site is so closely associated with this giant among American jurists.

The house, a square brick building originally containing six rooms and basement, was altered in 1810 by the addition of a downstairs bedroom in the rear. Its only exterior ornamentation are a pedimented gable, modillioned cornice and two small formal porches. The interior is pleasingly but not lavishly decorated.

Features and Condition: The John Marshall House is owned by the City of Richmond, and is administered by the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities, which has its headquarters there. The John Marshall High School, built on that block after the City
acquired the property from Marshall heirs some 50 years ago, crowds closely upon the house. All of the original outbuildings were destroyed at that time, and the house itself was saved only by the last-minute intervention of interested citizens. The house is furnished with Marshall and period items, and a small museum upstairs contains memorabilia, including one of Marshall's judicial robes. The house is open to visitors.

For 45 years, Richmond, Virginia's John Marshall House was the home of the great Chief Justice.

August 12, 1959

National Park Service photograph
THE HERMITAGE

Location: Davidson County, 12 miles east of Nashville on U. S. Highway 70N.

Ownership-Administration: The Ladies' Hermitage Association, Nashville, Tenn.

Significance: For over 40 years, during which Andrew Jackson rose from a frontier militia commander to the Presidency, he made his home at The Hermitage. There, in 1845, he was laid to rest beside his beloved wife, Rachel, who had preceded him in death by 17 years.

When Jackson purchased the plantation on August 23, 1804, it contained only a group of log houses built in close proximity to one another. In 1806 he entertained Aaron Burr there, and as a result of Burr's visit he undertook a contract to build some boats for his guest. That same year, grievously wounded in a duel, Jackson retired to The Hermitage to convalesce. For some years he led the life of a country gentleman there, but was called back into active service by the outbreak of the Creek War in 1813. His conduct of operations in that war brought him a major general's commission in the United States Army.

After the Battle of New Orleans on January 8, 1815, Jackson returned to The Hermitage as a national hero. In 1818-19, Jackson built the brick central portion of the present mansion, entertaining President Monroe there in the latter year and Lafayette six years later during his triumphal tour of the country. From The Hermitage, Jackson left for Washington after his election to the Presidency in 1828. He returned to his plantation after completing his second term in the White House, and there he lived out his days as an elder statesman, entertaining
the great and near-great until his death.

During Jackson's Presidential term, wings were added to the mansion house. Fire destroyed much of the interior in 1834, but the mansion, rebuilt inside and with some exterior changes, was again ready for occupancy by May 1835. Besides the mansion house, the plantation contained the usual complement of outbuildings.

**Features and Condition:** The Ladies' Hermitage Association, chartered by the State of Tennessee in 1889, now owns and administers The Hermitage, which is open to visitors as a historic house museum. The house and grounds are in excellent condition, and the mansion is furnished with a large number of original Jackson possessions. Most of the original outbuildings still remain, and the grounds also contain a small museum and a log lodge constructed in 1940 for the use of Association members for social gatherings.

The Hermitage, begun in 1818, was Andrew Jackson's plantation home near Nashville, Tennessee. The mansion is furnished with a large number of original Jackson possessions.

October 13, 1958

National Park Service photograph
ASHLAND

Location: Ashland Park, Lexington

Ownership-Administration: Henry Clay Memorial Foundation, Lexington

Significance: In the heart of the Bluegrass region is Ashland, the home of Kentucky's greatest statesman during nearly the whole of his public life. From 1812, when he first gained national recognition as a leader of the "War Hawks" in Congress, until his death in 1852, Henry Clay lived here. At Ashland he entertained a host of distinguished visitors, and here he worked out the details of much of his most important legislation.

Clay acquired a part of his Ashland estate in 1811 and the next year built his mansion house, which had been designed by Benjamin H. Latrobe, architect of the Capitol in Washington. As often as his busy public career would permit, Clay returned to Ashland during the next 40 years. From here, after his last disappointing try for the Presidential nomination in 1848, Clay left for the Senate to do what he could to avert the growing danger of civil conflict. In the fall of 1851, near death, he bade goodbye to his home for the last time as he left to devote his failing strength to the political struggle.

The original mansion, even during Clay's lifetime, had developed structural weaknesses, and his son razed and completely rebuilt it soon after his father's death. Reconstructed on the original foundations, with only minor modifications from the Latrobe house, Ashland today presents virtually the appearance it had during the lifetime of its great master.
Features and Condition: Of Clay's original 600-acre farm, most is today covered by residential development. The mansion house and 20 acres are owned and maintained as a historic house museum by the Henry Clay Memorial Foundation. The house contains much original furniture and several portraits of Clay and members of his family. Several original outbuildings survive, including two cottages, two ice houses, and a smoke house. Both house and grounds are in excellent condition.

Henry Clay lived at Ashland, Lexington, Kentucky, during most of his public life. The present house was reconstructed on the original foundations and closely resembles the original dwelling designed by Benjamin Latrobe.

October 15, 1958

National Park Service photograph
FORT HILL

Location: Pickens County, on campus of Clemson Agricultural College

Ownership-Administration: State of South Carolina; John C. Calhoun Chapter, U. D. C.

Significance: Fort Hill, the home of John C. Calhoun during the last 25 years of his life, is a fitting memorial to the great South Carolinian. When he acquired the mansion, Calhoun was at the height of his fame, having gained national recognition as one of the "War Hawks" in the Twelfth Congress, as Secretary of War under President Monroe, and as Vice President under John Quincy Adams. Though his political career kept him away much of the time, Calhoun always returned to Fort Hill when the opportunity offered. During the Congressional recess of 1828, with a national crisis brewing in his native state, he returned home to write his famous "South Carolina Exposition," embodying the doctrine of nullification. When nullification became a fact four years later, Calhoun hurried to South Carolina to guide proceedings, subsequently giving up the vice-presidency to enter the Senate in support of his doctrine. During the first part of Polk's administration he retired to private life at Fort Hill, but was soon called back to the Senate by the Oregon and Texas controversies. His devotion to duty deprived him of the chance to spend his last days in his beloved home, as the rapid onset of a fatal disease caused his death in Washington in March, 1850.

The house, originally built in 1803 and called Clergy Hall, was acquired by Calhoun as a family home in 1825. He enlarged the
small house and renamed it in honor of the Revolutionary Fort Rutledge, which had stood nearby. The house was furnished largely by the Calhouns, with some additions by Thomas G. Clemson (1807-1888), who married Calhoun's daughter in 1838 and became master of the house after Calhoun's death. Upon his own death in 1888, Clemson willed the estate to the State of South Carolina for the establishment of the school which became Clemson Agricultural College.

Features and Condition: The house, located on the campus of Clemson Agricultural College, is owned by the State and is administered by the John C. Calhoun Chapter, United Daughters of the Confederacy. The house is completely furnished with Calhoun and Clemson family belongings and is open to the public. The original outbuildings have all disappeared, with the exception of Calhoun's private office, but the kitchen has been reconstructed on its original site. Included in one room of the house is a small museum of articles connected with Calhoun and Clemson. Both house and grounds are well maintained and present an attractive appearance.

References: Frederic Bancroft, Calhoun and the South Carolina Nullification Movement (1928); David F. Houston, A Critical Study of Nullification in South Carolina (New York, 1896); C. M. Wiltze, John C. Calhoun (3 vols., Indianapolis, 1944-51).
Fort Hill, Clemson, South Carolina, was the home of John C. Calhoun during the last 25 years of his life.

August 7, 1959

National Park Service photograph
GROUSELAND - HOME OF WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON

Location: Scott and Park Streets, Vincennes, Indiana

Ownership-Administration: Francis Vigo Chapter, Daughters of the American Revolution, Vincennes, Indiana

Significance: "Grouseland" was the home of William Henry Harrison from around 1804 until 1812, during which period Harrison was Territorial Governor of Indiana and a foremost defender of white settlement against the Indian tribes which attempted to block the tide of westward expansion.* At "Grouseland" were held a number of highly significant conferences with the tribes of the Old Northwest. Here the great Red leader Tecumseh warned that his people would take up the hatchet if white encroachment did not cease, and from "Grouseland" in September 1811, Harrison mounted the offensive which reached its climax at the bloody battle of Tippecanoe, when Tecumseh's followers were scattered and the Red Chief discredited in his efforts to unite the tribes against the advancing whites. From "Grouseland" Harrison went to assume command of American forces in the Northwest in the War of 1812. The ensuing campaign in Ohio threw back invading British and Indian forces into Canada and secured for the United States a position which assured American domination of the Northwest after years of diplomatic struggle and frontier warfare. Today, "Grouseland" preserves the memory of an American whose services brought peace to the Northwestern frontier and opened to white settlement a vast territory between the Ohio River and the Great Lakes.

The Indiana Territory was created out of the old Northwest

* "Grouseland" was noted in the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings under the theme, Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830 (February, 1959), but more detailed treatment was considered appropriate for the present report.
Territory in 1800. 28-year-old William Henry Harrison was named its first Governor and arrived at the territorial capital, Vincennes, in January 1801. In that same year Harrison purchased a farm of 300 acres just north of Vincennes and here in 1803-04 built his fine residence. The architect who designed "Grouseland" is not known, but the Georgian lines of the dwelling reflect a talent uncommon on the early western frontier. That the house's designer was aware of the potential threat of Indian attack is evidenced by the look-out in the attic, the heavily-barred basement windows, secret passages, powder magazine and well in the basement. The doorway, featuring reeded pilasters and fanlight, opens into a hallway. Through an arch is seen the self-supporting stairway whose cherry treads are set far back into the wall. Interior woodwork is of walnut in delicate detail, executed perhaps by artisans brought up from Kentucky. At the left of the hallway is the "Great Room" probably used by the Harrisons as a dining room, and by the Governor for conferences and other assemblies. The two-story house, consisting of two buildings joined by a covered passage, contains 26 rooms, basement and attic. An effort has been made to furnish the home in the period of its occupancy by the Harrisons.

The family remained at "Grouseland" until 1812 when Harrison was called to command American forces of the Northwest in the second war with Britain. In 1819, Harrison's oldest son, John, was named Receiver of the Land Office in Vincennes and the house was deeded to him in 1821. John Harrison occupied "Grouseland" for about ten years and after his departure the house fell into neglect. It finally left
possession of the Harrison family in 1850 and served thereafter as a storehouse for grain, a hotel, and again a residence, until 1909. The house was scheduled for razing when it was rescued by the Francis Vigo Chapter, D. A. R., and opened as an historic house museum in 1911.

Features and Condition: In the years since it assumed control of "Grouseland", the Francis Vigo Chapter, D. A. R., has had as its objective the restoration of the house as nearly as possible to the period when it was the home of General William Henry Harrison. A number of articles relating to the Harrisons or their contemporaries have been placed on display, and in 1949 a major program of restoration resulted in the removal of later additions to the house and repairs which assure the preservation of the structure. In addition to the furnished rooms, the house features a museum room containing articles relating specifically to the Harrisons and to Francis Vigo, fur trader and merchant of Vincennes, who proved a loyal friend to the American cause during the Revolution and after. The old Territorial Capitol building which originally stood elsewhere in Vincennes was moved around 1919 to a site opposite "Grouseland" and the two historic buildings constitute a remarkable survivor of the early 19th century frontier. "Grouseland" has been called Indiana's most valuable and significant historic landmark. In view of its intimate association with William Henry Harrison in the period of his most notable contribution to the United States, the house possesses great significance to the Nation as well.

References: Henry S. Cauthorn, History of the City of Vincennes, Indiana, from 1702 to 1901 (Terre Haute, 1901); Freeman Cleaves, Old Tippecanoe; William Henry Harrison (New York, 1939); Historic American Buildings Survey, 9 sheets (1934); 6 photos (1934); Thomas Pitkin,
"Grouseland," Vincennes, Indiana, was the frontier home of William Henry Harrison, first Governor of Indiana Territory and in 1840 President of the United States.

May 5, 1952

National Park Service photograph
HAMILTON GRANGE

Location: New York City, N. Y., adjoining St. Luke's Protestant Episcopal Church, near 140th Street.

Ownership-Administration: American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society.

Significance: Hamilton Grange, built in 1801, was the only home ever owned by Alexander Hamilton, a major draftsman and proponent of the Federal Constitution and foremost architect of American financial policy in the first critical years of the Federal Union. In the small company of towering figures whose minds, talent and energy laid the foundation of the Republic and erected upon it an enduring structure of National Government, none was more able nor more deserving of his country's recognition than Alexander Hamilton. Although he occupied the Grange only a few years before his tragic death, Hamilton's home remains today the most tangible link with the man, his great career and his times.

Hamilton purchased the land for his country home in 1800, on the pleasant wooded hills overlooking the Hudson, north of the growing town of New York. The tract, which finally amounted to 32 acres, ran up a hill from what is now St. Nicholas Avenue to Amsterdam Avenue, and extended northward from 141st Street to 145th Street. Hamilton had returned to private life and the practice of law in New York after resigning his office as Secretary of the Treasury in 1795, but he had continued to take an active role in national affairs.

Hamilton took great pleasure in planning and supervising the construction of the house which he called "The Grange" after the estate of his paternal grandfather, Alexander Hamilton, Laird of the Grange in
Ayrshire, Scotland. Architect for the house was John McComb, remembered today as the designer of New York's City Hall and other distinguished buildings. The architectural plans for the Grange have been lost, but McComb's specifications for the house reveal much about its original design and construction.

The Grange was completed in 1802 at a cost of £1,500, and the Hamilton family thereafter lived in the house the year 'round. Here they entertained in gracious fashion their friends and relatives, among the latter being Mrs. Hamilton's father, the venerable General Philip Schuyler. The night before his fatal duel with Aaron Burr on July 11, 1804, Hamilton spent in the study of The Grange, writing the famous and touching farewell letter to his beloved wife. After her husband's death, Mrs. Hamilton moved into downtown New York and in 1833 sold The Grange.

In 1889 the house was moved 500 feet from its original site and was used as a temporary chapel for St. Luke's Protestant Episcopal Church. It was turned sideways at this time, necessitating the removal of the small front and back porches, in addition to other minor alterations. In 1924, when the threat to the house's preservation became acute, the financiers George F. Baker, Sr., and J. P. Morgan intervened, and The Grange was conveyed to the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society. A trust fund of $50,000 was created for maintenance of the Grange as a memorial to Hamilton and a museum of his times.

**Features and Condition:** The design of The Grange is simple but dignified, and the structure is one of the few Federal houses still
standing in New York. It is a two-story frame building, with brick-filled walls and partitions. Despite minor modifications the basic structure is intact. The original hand-split lath and ornamental plaster mouldings of the interior are preserved. The original siding is visible on the exterior, as are the original hand-hewn beams of the frame in the attic. A thorough inspection of the house has revealed that all materials are sound. Unfortunately, encroachments on the present location have obscured the house and its once beautiful setting and view. It is planned to move The Grange to a more appropriate location where its original appearance will be restored and where the house can be made available to the public as a suitable memorial to Hamilton. Proposed site of the relocation is on the campus of the College of the City of New York at West 130th Street and St. Nicholas Terrace, overlooking St. Nicholas Park.

Hamilton Grange has now on exhibition many original objects relating to the Hamiltons which have been donated to the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society or are on loan. Other objects, including paintings, furniture and personal mementoes have been promised by family descendants for use at The Grange.

The other New York houses occupied by Hamilton have been torn down, and the site of his law office, across from Federal Hall National Memorial is covered by the House of Morgan. There appears to be no site comparable to The Grange for preserving and interpreting the significance of Alexander Hamilton in the history of the United States.
Hamilton Grange in New York City was the home of Alexander Hamilton from 1802 until his death in 1804.
Perspective view of Hamilton Grange in its proposed new location on St. Nicholas Terrace at West 130th Street, New York.
SPRINGFIELD ARMORY

**Location:** Armory Square - Federal Square, Springfield, Massachusetts.

**Ownership-Administration:** United States Government, Department of Defense, U.S. Army Ordnance Corps.

**Significance:** The Springfield Armory, dating from 1794, is the United States Government's oldest manufacturing arsenal. Since the date of its establishment the Armory's ordnance products have figured in every American war, and its name has become synonymous with some of the finest of the world's military arms. The Armory is significant also as the site of the defeat of the most dangerous threat posed by the Shays uprising in 1786-87, when the rebellious farmers of Massachusetts were thwarted in their attempt to seize the arms and supplies stored at the Springfield depot.

The availability of skilled gunsmiths, blacksmiths and other artisans had made Springfield a firearms manufacturing center prior to the Revolution, and for this reason General Henry Knox was prompted in 1777 to propose the town as a "laboratory", a manufacturing and repair depot for military arms in the war with Britain. In 1789, the newly-elected President George Washington inspected the Springfield site and subsequently recommended it as the location of a National Armory. In 1794 the Third Congress passed the law providing for the establishment of armories at Springfield and Harpers Ferry, Virginia. The Harpers Ferry works did not go into production until a few years later.

Actual production of military arms at Springfield began in 1795 when 20 muskets per month were produced by some 40 workmen. The
first government arm made at the arsenal was the U. S. Flintlock Musket, Model 1795, an adaptation of the French Charleville Musket, Model 1763, a weapon widely used by American troops in the War for Independence. Other epochal types of shoulder weapons developed and produced at Springfield include the U. S. Percussion Musket, Model 1842, the breech-loading U. S. Rifle Model 1866, the Magazine Rifle Model 1893 (Krag-Jorgensen), the famous U. S. Magazine Rifle Model 1903, the U. S. Rifle Caliber 30, M1, 1936 (Garand), and the new Rifle, 7.62mm, M14, 1957.

In the historical period covered by the present report the Springfield Armory had added significance as the site of the abortive attack by Captain Daniel Shays and his followers in the Massachusetts uprising of 1786-87. For several months prior to the attack, debt-ridden and disgruntled farmers had roamed Massachusetts, preventing the county courts from sitting and rendering judgment for debt. At the end of 1786, Shays and his followers were gathering for an attack on the supply depot at Springfield where a quantity of arms, ammunition and supplies were stored. In the hands of the unruly mob this rich store would be an incalculable danger to law and order in Massachusetts, and to the whole structure of national government. Fortunately, the officer charged with defending the arsenal was not cowed. When, on January 25, 1787, Shays and his mob advanced on the depot, the defending garrison opened fire and the crowd broke and fled. The revolt continued for a few weeks more, but the farmers never again made so dangerous a threat. Lacking supplies and arms - and determination - the Shaysites were dispersed by the prompt and efficient action of state authorities. The
successful defense of the Springfield depot shattered the hopes of Shays and his followers to dominate the state and saved the shaky government of the Confederation from what might have been a fatal blow on the very eve of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia.

Features and Condition: Springfield Armory today is the United States Army's principal research and development center and pilot manufactory for small arms. It is the only manufacturing arsenal which can call itself an "Armory." The Springfield Armory was so designated from its beginning and, because of long historical association, the term has remained unchanged. The first permanent building in Armory Square was a brick structure known as the West Arsenal. It was built in 1807 and, today, houses the Officers' Club and conference halls. The Middle Arsenal, also on the State Street side of Armory Square, was built in 1830 and is now occupied by an engineering group. The present Main Arsenal is located on the west side of the Armory quadrangle.

Among the features of interest to visitors is the Springfield Armory Museum which displays a prize collection of American and foreign shoulder weapons. The museum exhibits tell not only the history of the Armory, but interpret in vivid fashion the story of America's military growth and power. A boulder adjacent to the Armory grounds on State Street marks the site of Shays' attack in January 1787.

References: Arcadi Gluckman, United States Martial Pistols and Revolvers (Buffalo, 1939); Arcadi Gluckman, United States Muskets, Rifles and Carbines (Buffalo, 1948); Army Ordnance (Springfield Armory Number), IX, No. 49 (July - August, 1928); Springfield Armory, Springfield, Massachusetts: The Nation's Oldest Manufacturing Arsenal, Established 1794 (Ordnance Corps, U. S. Army, n.p., n.d.); Robert J. Taylor, Western Massachusetts in the Revolution (Providence, 1954); Marion L. Starkey, A Little Rebellion (New York, 1955).
This stone marks the site of the abortive attack on the Springfield Armory during Shay's Rebellion, January 25, 1787. In the background is a portion of the present-day Armory.

April 10, 1959

National Park Service photograph
UNITED STATES MILITARY ACADEMY

Location: West Point, New York

Ownership-Administration: United States Government, Department of Defense, Department of the Army.

Significance: The United States Military Academy was established by Act of Congress on March 16, 1802, and was formally opened on the following July Fourth. In existence continuously since that date, the Academy has trained the officers who in peace and war have developed and commanded the Regular Army establishment of the United States. Troops have been stationed at West Point since January 1778, making it the oldest permanently occupied military post in the country.

The military history of West Point began with General George Washington's recognition of the strategic importance of the site as the key to navigation of the Hudson River, an American lifeline in the War for Independence. At Washington's urging a regular garrison was posted to West Point in January 1778. In the following March, Thaddeus Kosciuszko, at Washington's direction, took charge of the construction of fortifications at the site, which work continued until the end of the war. For four months in 1779 Washington made his headquarters at the Point. In 1780, Benedict Arnold, in command of the post, attempted to betray it to the British and fled to the enemy when his plot was discovered. Despite its strategic importance, the Point was not directly attacked during the Revolutionary War. In 1781 a corps of veterans was assigned to the post to instruct candidates for Army commissions. In return for their services the veterans were to receive their clothing and keep. The plan in actual operation contribu-
ted little to the American cause.

The end of hostilities in 1783, and Congress' fear of a standing army, reduced the American military establishment to the vanishing point, and for some years West Point's only garrison was a small detail charged with protecting the military stores there.

As early as 1776, General Henry Knox had proposed the establishment of a school of instruction for Army officers, and Washington and Alexander Hamilton lent their support to the program. When Congress, in 1783, asked Washington for his views on the organization and maintenance of the Nation's peacetime forces, the former Commander in Chief sought the advice of the officers who had served under him in the late war. Among these was the able drillmaster Baron von Steuben, who recommended the establishment of an academy where cadets would receive a liberal education, supplemented by specialized instruction for artillerists and engineers. Taking note of the views of von Steuben and others, Washington recommended among other things a small standing army and one or more academies for military instruction. The weak central government under the Confederation could do little to implement any of Washington's suggestions, and rejected the academy proposal as not worth the expense.

In 1790 the land on which the West Point forts stood was purchased from its private owner to save the annual rental of $437, and in the early period of Washington's administration the question of a military academy at West Point was considered by the President and his cabinet. Secretary of State Jefferson doubted the constitutionality of
a government military school and when the question was taken to Congress, the matter was allowed to die.

As the foreign situation grew more menacing there was an increasing demand for adequate seacoast defense, and for trained native artillerists and engineers. At last, in 1794, a regiment for this purpose was organized and a school to train its personnel was established at West Point. The school, as finally organized, furnished rudimentary training in artillery practice and engineering, with von Steuben's Regulations as the principal manual of instruction. Officers and cadets at first were required to attend daily training class sessions, but these were discontinued when the "instruction room" burned, a few weeks after the daily lessons were initiated. That was the end of West Point's first attempt at "formal" education, although the regiment of engineers and artillerists continued to garrison the post.

Despite this and subsequent failures to develop a school of instruction to train Army officers, the need for a military academy was widely recognized. The proposal now found a staunch supporter in the newly-elected President Thomas Jefferson, who earlier had opposed it. Jefferson recognized the need for adequate defense and directed his Secretary of War to establish a school of instruction at West Point. Late in 1801 cadets began to arrive, but there were few qualifications for attendance and the first class was a strangely-assorted group, running from mere boys to married men. By the Act of March 16, 1802, Congress formally recognized the United States Military Academy. The Act created a Corps of Engineers separate from the artillery, ordering that
the Corps' personnel would be stationed at West Point for the purpose of forming a "military academy."

Equipment and good instructors were difficult to obtain and were of a low order in the Academy's early days. Then, in 1817, Major Sylvanus Thayer, a graduate of the West Point class of 1808, was named Superintendent and a new era opened for the Academy. Thayer had been sent to Europe to observe military schools and his reorganization of the Academy was so effective that the pattern of instruction and discipline then established has prevailed down to the present.

A roll call of Academy graduates would include the names of most of America's foremost military leaders of the 19th and 20th centuries. Although its establishment and formative years belong to the period of the present report, 1783-1830, the story of West Point is woven into the whole panorama of national growth from the struggle for independence through the emergence of the United States as the shield of the free world.

**Features and Condition:** The Military Academy reservation is open to visitors throughout the year, although many buildings and areas are closed to the public. An information center is located at the South (Thayer) Gate, and the West Point museum is open all year. At Trophy Point is the West Point Battle Monument, around which are displayed numerous relics, mostly artillery, of America's wars. Among the major monuments and memorials on the reservation are the Air Cadet Memorial, the Dade Monument, the Sedgwick Monument, the Battle Monument.
with names of the 2,240 officers and men of the Regular Army who died in the Civil War, the Washington Monument, the Kosciuszko Monument, the Patton Monument and the Thayer Monument. The Cadet Chapel, erected in 1910, is famed as a faithful representation of Gothic architecture in the United States. The U. S. Hotel Thayer, just inside the South Gate, provides guest accommodations for overnight visitors. In addition to the buildings and grounds of the Academy, the sites of the Revolutionary War Forts Putnam and Clinton may be visited, as well as the site of Fort Constitution on Constitution Island in the Hudson River opposite West Point.

West Point's oldest buildings still in active use are the Superintendent's Quarters, background, built in 1820, and the Commandant's Quarters, erected in 1821.

April 8, 1959
Frigate Constitution (Old Ironsides)

Location: Entrance to Boston Navy Yard, Boston Massachusetts.

Ownership-Administration: United States Government, Department of Defense, Navy Department.

Significance: The frigate Constitution is a stirring symbol of American valor in the great age of fighting sail. Although the vessel has undergone such extensive restoration as to be in fact a reconstruction it nonetheless has retained its lines and characteristics and has never lost its identity as a commissioned ship of the United States Navy. The original vessel's spirit if not her oaken timbers is preserved by the frigate Constitution and the symbol has a validity of its own which entitles the craft to a Nation's recognition. H. I. Chapelle, a foremost authority on American sailing ships points out that the Constitution has been reconstructed as nearly as possible to its original appearance, and in describing the Constitution and the famous British ship H. M. S. Victory writes, "The sentimental question of whether or not they have portions of the original ship in them is of small moment; the important thing is that, in rebuilding and reconstruction they have retained their form, rate, and dimensions and thus their identity.* The Constitution participated in the undeclared naval war with France, saw action against the Barbary pirates, and in the War of 1812 won imperishable fame in spectacular ship-to-ship duels with the Royal Navy of Great Britain. In America's wars, no ship achieved greater fame. "Old Ironsides" remains both a tribute to naval skill and bravery and a symbol of American determination to win and maintain a place on the sea.

The Constitution was designed by Philadelphian Joshua Humphreys and her keel was laid at Hartt's shipyard in Boston in 1794. Construction was delayed for a time by the illusion of peace on the seas, but with the advent of French privateers into American waters the vessel was pushed to completion and launched on October 21, 1797. The frigate was 175 feet long, with a 43 1/2 foot beam and had a displacement of 1,576 tons. Although rated as a 44-gunner she was designed to mount more than 50 guns. Her timbers were of live oak, red cedar and hard pine and her lower hull was sheeted with copper by Paul Revere.

The Constitution took part in the undeclared but nonetheless bitter naval war with France, 1798-1800, although her role was not a distinguished one. In the war against the Barbary Pirates, 1801-1805, the Constitution showed her mettle when, as flagship of Commodore Edward Preble, she took a leading part in bringing the Corsairs to terms. The treaty of peace was signed aboard the Constitution.

The frigate Constitution had proved her worth in these early actions of the infant United States Navy, but it was in the second war with Britain that she won her greatest glory and earned an undying place in the Nation's history. A few weeks after war was declared in June 1812, the Constitution, enroute to New York, narrowly escaped a pursuing British squadron in a demonstration of brilliant seamanship on the part of Captain Isaac Hull of Connecticut. On returning from a successful raiding cruise into Canadian waters, the Constitution encountered the British frigate Guerriere, a vessel whose gun power and crew were somewhat inferior to the American. In a hard-fought, close-
range duel Hull took quick advantage of every opportunity, handling his ship boldly and intelligently and using his superior gun-power to maximum effect. After a half-hour fight the Britisher's masts were shot away and she was forced to strike. The victory sent a thrill of exultation through the Nation which had heard only bad news from the war on land. Tradition has it that on seeing the enemy's shots rebounding from the stout walls of the Constitution her crew dubbed their vessel "Old Ironsides."

In the following December, Constitution, now under command of William Bainbridge met the British frigate Java off the coast of Brazil. In the ensuing combat the two vessels momentarily jammed together and the crew of "Old Ironsides" beat off a British boarding party. The ships parted and when Java's mainmast crashed down she was forced to surrender. Her captain was numbered among the enemy dead.

The increasingly strong and vigilant British blockade penned up Constitution for long periods for the remainder of the war, but she was destined to make one last successful foray against the enemy. In December 1814, she escaped to sea and on February 20, 1815, two months after peace had been negotiated, made contact with two British warships off Spain. The British ships, frigate Cyane and war sloop Levant had a combined gun power superior to the Constitution, but the American had the advantage of concentrated fire power. In little more than an hour Cyane struck her colors and a few hours later Levant was brought to bay and forced to surrender. This was "Old Ironsides" last battle. Her bag of three enemy frigates and a war-sloop made her an all time U. S.
Features and Condition: The present vessel exhibited at the Boston Navy Yard is a reconstruction of the original Constitution. In the course of several rebuildings the original rotted timbers were removed. In 1828 the frigate was condemned as unseaworthy and it was recommended that she be broken up. Public sentiment, aroused in part by the poem "Old Ironsides" by Oliver Wendell Holmes, saved the ship from destruction. She was rebuilt in 1833, and during the Civil War served as a Naval Academy training ship. She was partially rebuilt in the period 1871-77 and again in 1906. She was extensively restored in 1927-30. Although experts have found minor errors in the reconstruction, the ship in general bears her original lines. Preservation and maintenance is very good and fittings, furnishings and armaments present to the visitor a vivid picture of naval warfare in the age of sail.

Towering masts stretching upward far above her deck, the U. S. Frigate Constitution (Old Ironsides) floats at her dock at the entrance to the Boston Navy Yard. In the left background is Breed's Hill and the Bunker Hill monument.

Courtesy of Massachusetts Department of Commerce
PLATTSBURGH (CUMBERLAND) BAY

**Location:** Lake Champlain, at Plattsburgh, New York

**Ownership-Administration:** State of New York.

**Significance:** The naval battle of Plattsburgh, September 11, 1814, halted a major British thrust into the United States along the traditional invasion route of Lake Champlain and the Hudson River. The American victory resulted in the destruction of the British fleet on Lake Champlain and compelled a strong invading army of veteran troops to withdraw to Canada. The battle gave American forces complete control of strategic Lake Champlain and denied to the British the strong foothold on American soil on the basis of which His Majesty's ministers hoped to negotiate the cession of United States territory along the Canadian frontier. The naval historian Alfred T. Mahan described the Battle of Plattsburgh as one which "more nearly than any other incident of the War of 1812, merits the epithet 'decisive'."*

In the summer of 1814 the war had reached its lowest ebb for the Americans. Two years of war had failed to bring about the conquest of Canada promised by the Congressional War Hawks, and American maritime rights had not been secured by warfare on the seas. On the contrary, the poorly-trained and ill-equipped United States forces had been hard put to defend their own frontier against a numerically inferior force of the enemy, and American warships and commerce had been driven from the ocean. The British blockade grew ever tighter and New England's commerce lay in ruins, with the eastern seaboard at the mercy of enemy raiders. In August of that dark summer, the most humil-

iating blow of all had fallen when the British captured and burned much of the Nation's capital.

Now, in September 1814, another deadly threat was developing in the north where, in the previous year, naval superiority on Lake Champlain had passed from American to British hands. Making the most of their newly-won superiority on the Lake, the British raided at will along its shores, including a strike on the village of Plattsburgh on July 30, 1813, which destroyed the public buildings there. Following this successful blow the British commenced the building of a strong war fleet on Champlain, while the American commander on the Lake, Captain Thomas Macdonough, countered by beginning construction of a flotilla capable of challenging the enemy's hold. By the end of May 1818, Macdonough had ready for action the corvette Saratoga, schooner Ticonderoga, sloop Preble and 10 small gunboats.

The British plan of operations called for a full-scale invasion down the western shore of Lake Champlain by a force of regulars numbering more than 11,000 men, the strongest army put into the field thus far in the war. These veterans were to descend on Plattsburgh under command of Canadian Governor General Prevost, while the fleet covered the left flank of the advance as it moved up the Lake toward the American position. Defending the base at Plattsburgh was a small force of perhaps 1,500 Americans, backed up by Macdonough's hastily-built fleet.

The British advance by land steadily drove the Americans back on Plattsburgh, until they retreated through the village and took posi-
tion on the south bank of the Saranac River. Here they stood off probing attacks by the enemy, while the British commander posted his vastly superior forces and brought up provisions. It was Prevost's intention to stake the outcome of the battle on a joint attack by his army and the supporting fleet. The brig Eagle having joined him, Macdonough had four ships and 10 gunboats to oppose the British squadron of four ships and 12 gunboats. Despite the British advantage in long-range guns, the two fleets were so evenly matched that neither side could claim any appreciable advantage beyond the margin which skill and leadership - and luck - might provide. The only potential advantage possessed by the British was in the Confiance (Confidence), the largest vessel on the Lake. This advantage was minimized by the fact that to utilize her superior strength the Confiance needed sea room to maneuver and Macdonough's anchorage in Plattsburgh Bay did not afford such room. Macdonough had chosen his position well, in the confined waters of the bay between the peninsula known as Cumberland Head and the mainland on which lay the village of Plattsburgh. On the morning of September 11, 1814, the British fleet drove in toward the waiting Americans.

Curiously, both fleets lay at anchor throughout much of the ensuing action, trading deadly blows at point-blank range. Macdonough wisely had chosen to fight a defensive battle and by keeping his vessels at anchor in the calm waters of the Bay he could put every man to the guns. At close quarters the anchored fleets thundered at each other, a ship on one side or the other occasionally falling out of action to drift helplessly, or to shift position to bring additional guns into play.
CUMBERLAND BAY

BATTLE OF PLATTSBURGH

SEPTEMBER 11, 1814
For almost two and one half hours the fight continued without slackening. The British commander was killed by a gun which was hurled from its carriage, and Macdonough was twice knocked unconscious by flying splinters and concussion of the guns. Finally, by maneuvering his flagship Saratoga to bring into action her previously unengaged side, Macdonough forced the battered Confiance to strike. The last of the British ships surrendered a few minutes later, although the gunboats managed to escape. The Americans were in no condition to pursue these remnants of British naval strength on Lake Champlain.

When the naval battle opened, the British ground forces had resumed their attack on the American lines along the Saranac River, but with the virtual annihilation of his supporting fleet Prevost quickly withdrew to Canada, leaving behind a vast store of supplies for the elated Americans. With the ignominious failure of the Champlain invasion, the British hope of securing the northern lakes and winning a cession of American territory fronting on Canada had disappeared.

**Features and Condition:** Plattsburgh (Cumberland) Bay is formed by the peninsula of Cumberland Head on the north and east and by the mainland on the west, where is situated the town of Plattsburgh. The Bay's open end, facing south, is about one and one half miles wide. Near the mainland or Plattsburgh side of the Bay is Crab Island. Much of the beach area on Cumberland head is open and affords a good view of the scene of the naval action. A good all-weather road encircles Cumberland Head peninsula, at the tip of which is a dock for the ferry which links the New York and Vermont shores of Lake Champlain. 

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land Head is a residential area, although much of it is relatively underdeveloped. On Cumberland Head, the State of New York maintains a camping and beach area, fronting on Plattsburgh Bay. The town of Plattsburgh, opposite Cumberland Head, has grown over most of the scenes of the indecisive land fighting. On the bayfront overlooking the scene of the naval action is the Macdonough Memorial, an obelisk of Indiana limestone 135 feet high. The Memorial is decorated with reliefs of symbolic naval scenes and lists the names of the American ships which won the decisive battle of Plattsburgh.

Cumberland Bay in the background was the scene of the American fleet's victory in the Battle of Lake Champlain, September 11, 1814.

April 12, 1959

National Park Service photograph
Overlooking Plattsburg Bay and the mouth of the Saranac River is the memorial to Thomas Macdonough and his fleet, victors over a British squadron on September 11, 1814.

April 12, 1959

National Park Service Photograph
INDEPENDENCE NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK

Pennsylvania

"The United States was created in Philadelphia on July 4, 1776, when the Continental Congress voted the final form of the Declaration of Independence. The United States was perpetuated on September 17, 1787, when the Federal Convention completed its work on the Constitution and referred it, through Congress, to the individual states for ratification. Both these great decisions were made in the same chamber in what is now called Independence Hall, but was then the Pennsylvania State House. It would still be merely the old State House if independence had not been achieved and if the Constitution had not been ratified and put into effect. The noble building, so venerable to later ages, might not even have survived, but might have been swept away in the surging growth of a modern city. In that case, a few students of history would sometimes remember the site as the stage of those lost causes. Instead, Pennsylvania's State House has become Independence Hall for the entire United States. Nor is that all. On account of the Declaration of Independence, it is a shrine honored wherever the rights of men are honored. On account of the Constitution, it is a shrine cherished wherever the principles of self-government on a federal scale are cherished." -- Carl Van Doren.

Later History

With Philadelphia no longer the capital either of the United States or of Pennsylvania, the Supreme Court Building again
became Philadelphia's City Hall. Congress Hall was again used as the County Court House.

In 1802, Independence Hall entered into a new phase of its history. Charles Willson Peale, the eminent artist, was granted permission to use most of the building for a museum. This famous museum remained there until Peale's death in 1825. His paintings, purchased by the city of Philadelphia, form the basis of the present collection of portraits of Revolutionary heroes still in Independence Hall.

In 1818, the City of Philadelphia purchased Independence Hall from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. This was a financial and spiritual investment unequalled in the history of American cities. A later proposal to sell the Square fortunately came to nothing, and the city still holds the formal deed executed in 1816. Since then, Philadelphia has protected it, performing an inestimable service in preserving the Independence Hall group for posterity. Recently, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has undertaken a notable project to acquire lands to the north of the Square. When completed, it will greatly enhance the entire setting of this area.

The Park

Independence National Historical Park was authorized by act of Congress in 1948 upon the recommendation of the Philadelphia National Shrines Park Commission. The purpose of this act was to provide for the Federal Government's part in the preservation and commemoration of Independence Hall, Carpenters' Hall, Christ Church,
and surrounding historic sites and buildings in Philadelphia. This activity includes cooperative agreements with three groups, which own major structures, and the acquisition and interpretation of additional significant sites and buildings east of Independence Square. The entire undertaking is guided by an Advisory Commission of distinguished citizens.
In the old City Hall on this site occurred some of the most momentous events in American history. The trial and acquittal of John Peter Zenger, marking the first important victory in the continuing struggle for freedom of speech in America, took place here. The Stamp Act Congress, angrily protesting British "taxation without representation" met here. At this site the Second Continental Congress adopted resolutions calling the Federal Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia, adopted the Northwest Ordinance and transmitted the completed Federal Constitution to the colonial legislatures for ratification. In this building, altered and renamed Federal Hall, was convened the First Congress under the Constitution. On its balcony General Washington was inaugurated first President of the United States of America. Here the Departments of State, War, and Treasury were created; the Supreme Court came into existence; and the Congress adopted the Bill of Rights.

In 1842, the present structure, one of the most outstanding examples of Greek Revival architecture in the United States, was completed on the site of old 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 removed. 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 republican form of government. The building was designated a national historic site on May 26, 1935, and became a national memorial on August 11, 1955.
Unlike most historic shrines which memorialize a single event or a great individual, Adams National Historic Site stands as a living memorial to four generations of one family; a family which played a foremost part in shaping the destiny of America. Distinguished in public life and in our national literature, men of each of these generations left their stamp on the history of the United States.

The house, first named by John Adams, "Peacefield," but to become known in the family as the "Old House," was very dear and very close to them. Shortly after his father's death, John Quincy wrote: "My attachment to it, and the whole region round, is stronger than I have ever felt before;" Charles Francis, the younger, in his autobiography, wrote of how fond he was of the "Old House" and what pleasant recollections clustered about it; and Henry, in his Education, has left his memories of the place.

The oldest portion of the house was built in 1731 by Major Leonard Vassall, wealthy West Indian sugar planter, who had come to Massachusetts some 8 years before. John Adams, while still Minister to Great Britain, bought the house in September 1787 from the major's grandson, Leonard Vassall Borland, and on his return in 1788 took possession of the property.

After his retirement from the Presidency in 1801, John Adams lived in the house the year round until his death in 1826. John Quincy Adams and Charles Francis Adams made it their summer home, and
many summers were spent there by both Henry and Brooks Adams. Much of the furniture within the house reflects the diplomatic background of John, John Quincy, and Charles Francis Adams, as each came back with prized possessions from their various European missions.

The continuity of life in the house is best shown by the furnishings, as the various objects are of successive periods -- each generation contributed something of itself and each generation is remembered by what it left. The house is not a "period piece" but a house which, from 1788 to 1927, clearly shows the ever-changing style and taste of its occupants.

Adams Mansion was designated a national historic site on December 9, 1946. This was made possible by the gift of the property to the Federal Government for that purpose by the Adams Memorial Society. In 1927, all the living descendants of Charles Francis Adams, Minister to Great Britain, organized the Adams Memorial Society, its purpose being to preserve and maintain as a memorial the "Old House" and library just as Brooks Adams had left it. The society carried out its purpose until 1946 when the title was vested in the United States.

On November 26, 1952, the name was changed to Adams National Historic Site. It contains 4.77 acres and includes the house, library, garden, and stables.
This fort is an outstanding example of an early 19th century coastal defense. It was designed to withstand attack by wooden naval vessels armed with smooth-bore artillery. Its high masonry walls, gun positions, dry moat, and drawbridge illustrate some of the principles of military science and architecture used during our Nation's early life. Fort Washington also occupies the site of the earliest fortification erected for the defense of the National Capital. It was begun in 1814 for the immediate replacement of the first fort, which was destroyed on August 27, 1814, when our young Nation was at war with England.

The first fort stood only 5 years. It was destroyed in August 1814 when the British successfully attacked the new Capital. The British offensive began on August 19 when their troops landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent River, and marched toward the Capital, bypassing Fort Washington. On August 24, 1814, the British defeated the Americans in the Battle of Bladensburg, and captured Washington. There, they burned the Capitol and the White House, and most of the other public buildings. British war vessels, moving up the Potomac to cooperate with their land forces, reached Fort Washington on August 27. Captain S. T. Dyson, who commanded the position, destroyed and abandoned the fort without offering resistance. The British fleet then sailed up the Potomac to Alexandria. It remained there until
August 31 loading tobacco, flour, and other produce before sailing back to Chesapeake Bay.

On September 3, 1814, only 12 days after the destruction of the first Fort Washington, Acting Secretary of War James Monroe requested the French engineer, Major Pierre L'Enfant, to reconstruct the destroyed fortification. Upon the continued refusal of L'Enfant to comply with the requests of the War Department, work on Fort Washington was suspended on July 8, 1815. On September 6, 1815, L'Enfant was dismissed and Lieutenant Colonel Walker K. Armistead took over the work. On October 2, 1824, the fort was almost completed "in exact accordance with the plans." It had cost more than $426,000.

The fort has been little altered since it was completed in 1824. It is an enclosed masonry fortification, entered by a drawbridge across the dry moat at the sally port. Approximately 60 feet below the main fort is the outer V-shaped water battery begun by L'Enfant. The entire ditch on the southwest face and most of that on the northeast face were also constructed by this noted French engineer. They are still in an excellent state of preservation.

Perhaps the most interesting features of Fort Washington are the two half bastions overlooking and commanding the river above and below the position. Below the ramparts of these two structures are the casemate, or bombproof, gun positions. From three levels (water battery, casemate positions, and ramparts) guns could deliver a devastating fire against an enemy fleet moving along the extended reaches of the Potomac which the fort covers. The front of the structure is
built of solid stone and brick masonry about 7 feet thick. On the parade ground, almost touching the rear wall of the fort, are the officers' quarters and the soldiers' barracks. Flanking each of these structures is a magazine. A guardroom, containing two narrow cells, and the office of the commanding officer are in the sally port.

Fort Washington was abandoned in 1872, and in 1885 the obsolete muzzle-loading guns were removed. From 1896 to 1921, the reservation was the headquarters of the Defenses of the Potomac. During this period, eight concrete batteries were constructed near the old fort structure. Some of these batteries mounted 10-inch disappearing guns. These concrete batteries may still be seen, although the guns have been removed.

Many buildings were erected on the reservation after 1896 as quarters for officers and enlisted men, but these have now been removed. The fort's function as a coast defense ended in 1921 and it became the headquarters of the 12th Infantry.

Fort Washington was transferred from the War Department to the Department of the Interior in 1939. Shortly after Pearl Harbor it reverted to the War Department; later it was transferred to the Veterans' Administration. Finally, in 1946, it was returned to the Department of the Interior for park purposes.
Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry at the Battle of Lake Erie, near Put-in-Bay, won a decisive victory on September 10, 1813, over the British naval squadron commanded by Commodore Robert H. Barclay. That action had far-reaching results on the War of 1812 and the future of the United States. It gained control of Lake Erie for the American forces. This resulted in an invasion of Canada, with its subsequent victories, by General William Henry Harrison, commander in chief of the American Army. These events made it possible for the United States to hold the great Northwest upon the conclusion of peace by the Treaty of Ghent in 1814. A few years later, in 1817, the Rush-Bagot Agreement led to the permanent disarmament of the 3,000-mile boundary between the United States and Canada.

This area and its great memorial thus do not commemorate solely America's great naval victory, about which Perry made his famous report: "We have met the enemy and they are ours." Here also is memorialized the principle of international peace by arbitration and disarmament and the lasting peace of nations.

Establishment of Perry's Victory and International Peace Memorial National Monument was authorized by act of Congress, approved June 2, 1936. It consists of 14.25 acres situated at Put-in-Bay on South Bass Island in Lake Erie and includes the magnificent Doric memorial column.
The movement for the Perry's Victory Memorial was initiated in 1903 in Ohio when the State legislature authorized the appointment of a commission to study the project. During the next two years the States of Pennsylvania, Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, New York, Rhode Island, Kentucky, and Massachusetts joined and assisted in the enterprise. The Federal Government gave its assistance in 1911.

The memorial was constructed under the direction of the Perry's Victory Centennial Commission, between October 1912 and June 1915, at a cost of approximately $1,000,000 divided about evenly between the nine participating States and the Federal Government.
At Fort McHenry the flag attains special significance for Americans. For it was a glimpse of the flag above these embattled ramparts that inspired Francis Scott Key to compose the immortal lines of our national anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner."

At this hallowed shrine, where the flag flies day and night by Presidential proclamation, the visitor can sense and appreciate that surge of inspiration, born amidst bombs "bursting in air," which impelled the creation of this classic expression of American ideals and patriotism.

Early History

The strategic position of the peninsula, on the tip of which is located Fort McHenry, was recognized as early as the Revolutionary War. In 1776, an 18-gun fort was constructed there for the protection of Baltimore's harbor. Fort Whetstone, as it was called, never came under enemy fire.

In the 1790's when it appeared likely that the young Nation might become involved in a war with either England or France, it was decided that Baltimore was sufficiently important to merit a permanent harbor defense. Funds were contributed by both the Federal Government and the citizens of Baltimore. Major J. J. Ulrich Rivardi designed the fort and supervised its construction on a site to the rear of old Fort Whetstone. It was named Fort McHenry in honor of James McHenry of Maryland, secretary to George Washington during the Revolution and Secretary of War from 1796 to 1800. The period of
construction of the fort was from 1794 to 1805.

Fort McHenry
Defends Baltimore
in the War of 1812

On September 13, 1814, at dawn, 16 British warships dropped anchor beyond the range of Fort McHenry's guns and for 25 hours subjected the fort to a barrage of 1,500 to 1,800 bombs, rockets, and shells. Major George Armistead and his garrison of 1,000 men could do little but hope for the enemy to move within range. The critical hour came shortly after midnight on the 14th, when 1,200 British sailors penetrated the Ferry Branch in an effort to land at the rear of the fort. They were detected, however, and driven off. Admiral Alexander Cochrane notified the army that he could not enter the North West Branch without suffering excessive losses. Deprived of naval support, Colonel Arthur Brooke, who had succeeded General Ross, did not attempt to storm the city, but led his troops back to their transports. Thus, by frustrating the British plan, the successful defense of the fort prevented the capture of Baltimore. One month later, the British left the Chesapeake -- ahead lay New Orleans, and the end of the war.

The casualty list at the fort was small -- 4 men killed, 24 injured. Two of the buildings were damaged.

"The Star-Spangled Banner"

"The Star-Spangled Banner" is actually an account of the emotions experienced by Francis Scott Key as he witnessed the attack on Fort McHenry. With John Skinner, Federal agent for the exchange
Key was detained on a British warship during the entire 25-hour attack. In the daytime he was assured by the sight of the flag waving defiantly over the ramparts. At night he could no longer see the flag, but as long as the British continued to fire, he knew that the fort resisted. Shortly after midnight the firing ceased, leaving Key puzzled and alarmed. He was unaware that the bombardment was halted to enable the landing force to approach the fort. For Key it was a period of suspense and anxiety. Finally, at dawn, he again saw the flag. The inspired moment had arrived. He stated later that the question came to him "Does not such a country and such defenders of their country deserve a song?" He said that "With it came an inspiration not to be resisted; and even though it had been a hanging matter to make a song, I must have written it." On the back of a letter he began his immortal lines.

Soon the poem was sung to the music of a popular English song, "To Anacreon in Heaven." With the passage of time the song increased in popularity, and in 1931 an act of Congress made "The Star-Spangled Banner" our official national anthem.

Although the strategic importance of Fort McHenry decreased after 1814, it continued to play a part in each of the Nation's emergencies. During the Mexican War, the Maryland Volunteer Artillery was mobilized at Fort McHenry. It also served as a prisoner-of-war camp in the Civil War. Many prominent residents of Baltimore sus-
pected of being Southern sympathizers were detained there.

Fort McHenry National Monument and Historic Shrine includes the 5-pointed brick fort and a surrounding area of 43 acres. First established in 1925 as a national park, the area was redesignated, by act of Congress in 1939, as a national monument and historic shrine.
At dawn on January 8, 1815, the last major battle of the War of 1812 was fought on the fields of Chalmette plantation. Here, 5,400 British and 4,000 American troops struggled for possession of the nearby city of New Orleans. This rich commercial port was so situated geographically that the force which held it would also control the mouth of the Mississippi River.

This mighty river in 1815 was the major route into the back parts of the American west of that day. Control of the river by a foreign power would have seriously threatened the economic well-being of the whole Mississippi Valley and would have made westward expansion of the new Nation difficult, if not impossible.

Pitted against the crack troops of the British army was a motley group of Tennesseans, Kentuckians, Mississippian, Creoles, Indians, Negroes, sailors, pirates, and a handful of regular soldiers. Seldom, if ever, has a British force of recognized valor, proven ability, and numerical superiority met such an overwhelming defeat at the hands of a force of irregulars.

The victory at New Orleans had profound effects upon American history. It saved New Orleans from conquest and made the Mississippi an American river, thus opening the way for westward expansion. It increased the new Nation's prestige in world affairs. It gave Americans confidence in their military prowess and encouraged the growth of national feeling and unity in the United States. It made
a popular hero of Andrew Jackson and did much to stamp the effects of frontier democracy upon the American social and political order.

In 1855, to commemorate the battle, the State of Louisiana began the erection of a 100-foot monument on a 13-acre tract that included an important part of the American line. In 1907 the State transferred the monument and grounds to the Federal Government, which completed the shaft the next year. Later the State donated to the park 36 additional acres, including the Rodriguez Canal.

One-half mile east is the Chalmette National Cemetery, another unit of the park. Over 15,000 veterans of all our major wars are buried in this cemetery.

Chalmette was established as a National Historical Park on August 10, 1939. Only part of the ground on which the Battle of New Orleans was fought is included in the two park plots which total about 70 acres.
Sites Recommended for Classification of Exceptional Value in Other Themes

A number of sites and buildings which fall within the subject matter and period covered by Theme XII, Political and Military Affairs, 1733-1830, have been recommended previously for classification of exceptional value in Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830. It is believed that the primary importance of these sites as illustrating the frontier advance justifies their detailed description in Theme XI, rather than in the more general theme devoted to political and military affairs. Following is the list of sites and buildings which are noteworthy in the present study, but which have been described fully and recommended for classification of exceptional value in the Theme XI report, The Advance of the Frontier:

1. Straits of Mackinac, Michigan
2. Fallen Timbers, Ohio
3. Tippecanoe, Indiana
4. Fort Smith, Arkansas
5. Natchez Trace Parkway, Tennessee-Alabama-Mississippi*
6. Horseshoe Bend National Military Park, Alabama*

* Areas already under National Park Service administration are included in order to show extent to which theme is represented by sites and buildings regardless of ownership or administration.
APPENDIX

OTHER SITES AND BUILDINGS NOTED IN THE SURVEY

Among the many sites and buildings noted in the survey of Political and Military Affairs, 1783-1830, a number were considered to have more than ordinary interest although, in terms of the present theme, they are not of the first rank. In some instances, sites and buildings having only secondary value in the military and political affairs theme may have considerably more significance in other historical themes of the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings. These sites will be given more detailed treatment in the appropriate thematic study.

The list which follows, grouped alphabetically by states, includes those sites which were evaluated but failed to meet any of the established criteria for classification of exceptional value in terms of the present study. In cases where a site or building has its greatest significance in a theme other than military and political affairs, notation to that effect has been made.

Alabama

Cahaba: Site of the capital of Alabama from 1819 to 1826, Cahaba remained an important river town until the Civil War. Now a ghost town, it is being developed as a historic site by the State of Alabama.

Fort Lashley: Site of a battle in the Creek War, November 8, 1813, in which Jackson's army defeated a Creek force. A conjectural reconstruction of the fort has been started at its traditional site. Site noted also under Theme XI, Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

Fort Mims: Site of the massacre of white settlers by a Creek war party on August 30, 1813, which led to Jackson's punitive expedition two months later. The site is owned by the State but is not developed. Site noted also under Theme XI, Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.
Fort Strother: Jackson's headquarters on the Coosa River in November and December, 1813, during the Creek War. A monument and minor earthwork remains mark the site. Site noted also under Theme XI, Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

Fort Williams: Jackson's outpost on the Coosa from which, on March 24, 1814, his army began advancing toward Horseshoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River. Site now inundated by dam construction, but the approximate location is indicated by a nearby military cemetery.

Delaware

Old State House, Dover: Built in the period 1787-1792, and claimed to be the second oldest State House in active use in America.

Old Town Hall, Wilmington: Built in 1798 on a Georgian Colonial design by Peter Banduy, an early French settler in Wilmington. The Hall figured in ceremonies honoring early military and political figures of the republic, and today houses the museum of the Delaware Historical Society.

Illinois

Pierre Menard House, Kaskaskia: This fine home built in 1802, was the property of Pierre Menard, first lieutenant governor of Illinois. Kaskaskia was the first capital of the Territory and State of Illinois, and the Menard house is all that remains of that period. The house is a fine example of French Cottage architecture, showing the persistence of the French heritage in the Mississippi Valley. The house was noted also under Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

Indiana

First Territorial Capitol, Vincennes: A two-story frame structure built around 1800. The structure has been moved twice and now stands near "Grouseland," the William Henry Harrison Mansion. The capitol building was the center of administration for the Indiana Territory from 1800 until the outbreak of the War of 1812. The building was noted also under Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

Fort Knox, three miles from Vincennes: Site of an army fort established on the Wabash River in 1788 and discontinued in 1813, when the government property and stores were removed to Fort Harrison, near Terre Haute.

Fort Harrison, North Terre Haute: Site of an outpost erected by General William Henry Harrison in 1811 during his campaign against Tecumseh's Indian confederacy. The fort was attacked by a large Indian war party in September 1812. The 50 defenders under Captain
Zachary Taylor held the fort and at dawn the Indians gave up the attempt to overwhelm the post. The site has been obliterated by subsequent development.

**Old State Capitol, Corydon:** Corydon was the capital of the Indiana Territory from 1813 to 1824. The old Capitol was built in 1811-12, serving originally as a Courthouse. The building is administered as a State Memorial. The Old State Treasury in Corydon, a one-story brick building, was originally built in 1817 as a private residence, and is once again a private home.

**Maryland**

**Caleb Bentley House, Brookeville:** Served as temporary White House after the burning of Washington in August 1814.

**Flag House, Baltimore:** Where the "Star Spangled Banner" was made by Mary Pickersgill. The appearance of the flag over Fort McHenry on September 14, 1814, inspired Francis Scott Key to write what became the National Anthem.

**Rodgers Bastion, Patterson Park, Baltimore:** Remains of earthworks manned by volunteers during the unsuccessful British attack on Baltimore, September 1814.

**Washington Monument, Baltimore:** First public monument to Washington, begun in 1815.

**Washington Monument, South Mountain, near Boonsboro:** Erected to the memory of Washington by the citizens of Boonsboro in 1827. Preserved in Washington Monument State Park.

**Massachusetts**

**Harrison Gray Otis House, Boston:** Fine home built in 1795, and attributed to Bulfinch. Otis was a leading Massachusetts Federalist but not a figure of major national significance. The house should be considered further in the architectural sub-theme of Theme XX, Arts and Sciences.

**Michigan**

**Fort Mackinac, Mackinac Island:** This important military post of the 18th and 19th centuries is preserved in Mackinac Island State Park. The fort was listed in Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830, as one of several sites of exceptional value in the Straits of Mackinac.

**Mississippi**

**Elicott's Hill, Natchez:** Site of the raising of the American flag in the Yazoo Strip by Andrew Ellicott on February 27, 1797; Ellicott's
act was symbolic of the strong American feeling which forced Spain to evacuate the territory north of the 31st parallel.

**Fort Adams**: Southwestern outpost of the United States, 1798-1803. Site noted also under Theme XI, Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

**Washington**: Capital of the territory and state of Mississippi, Washington was one of the important towns of the Old Southwest. Now virtually a suburb of Natchez, Washington contains a number of sites and buildings of historic interest.

**New Hampshire**

**Governor John Langdon Memorial, Portsmouth**: A fine early Federal house, dating from 1784; to be noted further under architectural section of Theme XX, Arts and Sciences.

**New Jersey**

**Captain James Lawrence House, Burlington**: Birthplace of the naval hero, mortally wounded in the duel between the U.S. Frigate Chesapeake and the British Frigate Shannon, June 1, 1813. Lawrence's last words were, traditionally, "Don't give up the ship."

**New York**

**Jacob Brown House, Brownville**: Built c. 1815, this was the home of General Jacob Brown, one of the few successful American Army commanders in the War of 1812. Brown later became commander in chief of the American Army. His home is presently a town library and civic center.

**John Jay House, Bedford**: The home of the first Chief Justice; has recently been acquired by the State of New York.

**Old Hudson Court House, Claverack**: Here, in 1804, Alexander Hamilton appeared in defense of a local publisher convicted of libeling President Thomas Jefferson. Hamilton, in arguing for a retrial, enunciated the principle that "publishing truth with good motives and for justifiable ends" was not libel. Points stressed by Hamilton were later enacted into law by the State Legislature.

**Sackets Harbor Battlefield, Sackets Harbor**: Scene of the repulse of a British landing force by American forces, May 28-29, 1813. Part of the battlefield, including traces of earthworks, is preserved in Sackets Harbor State Park.

"Uncle Sam" Wilson House and Grave, Troy: Samuel Wilson, a merchant and Army contractor in the War of 1812, has been popularly identified as the progenitor of the long-time American symbol, "Uncle Sam." The identification is based on the tradition that on seeing the initials "U. S.," for United States, stamped on barrels of beef furnished the
At Sackets Harbor, New York, Major General Jacob Brown's American Army repulsed a British landing force on May 28, 1813.

April 13, 1959

National Park Service photograph
Home of Major General Jacob Brown, Brownville, New York. General Brown commanded the Niagara Frontier during the War of 1812, and was Commanding General of the United States Army from 1821 until his death in 1828.

April 13, 1959

National Park Service photograph
army by Samuel Wilson, American soldiers jokingly referred to their source of supply as "Uncle Sam." Unfortunately, the sites associated with Wilson's operations in Troy have been obliterated, save for the house in which he died and his grave in Troy's Oakwood Cemetery. Local persons interested in preserving the Wilson story plan to remove the house from its present location in downtown Troy and re-erect it in a city park to serve as a museum to "Uncle Sam." The sites of Wilson's business operations in the War of 1812 have been destroyed by later urban and industrial developments. Although the identity of Wilson as the original "Uncle Sam" has been accepted by many persons, the identification still rests on tradition and historians have advanced other origins for the term, which appear to have equal validity.

Old Fort Niagara, Youngstown: Important in the War of 1812, but previously recommended for classification of exceptional value in Theme V, French Exploration and Settlement.

Watervliet Arsenal, Watervliet: Established in 1813, this Arsenal remains a major manufacturing center for Army Ordnance, notably heavy guns.

Ohio

"Adena," Chillicothe: This fine home, designed by Benjamin Latrobe, was erected between 1805 and 1807, by Thomas Worthington, pioneer leader of Ohio. The significance of the house is primarily architectural and it should be noted further under the architectural section of Theme XX, Arts and Sciences. "Adena" is a State Memorial, administered by the Ohio Historical Society. The house has been noted also in Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

Fort Meigs, Perrysburg: Under command of William Henry Harrison, Fort Meigs turned back a major invasion of United States territory by the British and Indians in 1813. A monument and well-preserved earthworks are within Fort Meigs State Park.

Fort Stephenson, Fremont: Scene of the repulse of a British and Indian attack by American forces in August 1813. Site is a city park today.

St. Clair's Headquarters, Chillicothe: Building erected in 1798 was the home of Arthur St. Clair, governor of the Northwest Territory.

Rufus Putnam House - Ohio Land Company Office - Campus Martius Museum, Marietta: Marietta was the first permanent settlement in the Northwest Territory. The Campus Martius Museum preserves the Putnam House and Land Office, both of which have been moved from their original sites. Marietta was treated in some detail in Theme XI, the Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.
Fort Meigs on the Lower Maumee River, near Toledo, Ohio, was besieged by the British and Indians in the spring of 1813. The successful American defense turned back the British invasion of Ohio. Shown above are remains of the original earthworks and, in the background, the Fort Meigs monument.

May 5, 1959
A "lost site". A short distance beyond the marker in the foreground, overlooking Presque Isle Bay, Erie, Pennsylvania, Oliver H. Perry built the brigs Lawrence and Niagara in the spring and summer of 1813. These vessels were to play a decisive role in the Battle of Lake Erie, September 10, 1813.

April 7, 1959

National Park Service photograph
The keel is the only original timber in this reconstruction of the Niagara, Perry's second flagship in the Battle of Lake Erie on September 10, 1813. The original vessel was built at Erie, Pennsylvania, where the reconstruction is exhibited.

April 7, 1959

National Park Service photograph
The Wayne Memorial, on the site of the American Fort Presque Isle, overlooks Erie, Presque Isle Bay, Pennsylvania. This reproduction of the blockhouse in which General "Mad Anthony" Wayne died in 1796 is a tribute to the great soldier whose victory over the Indians at Fallen Timbers in 1794 opened much of the Ohio Country to peaceful settlement.

April 14, 1959

National Park Service photograph

Greenville Treaty Site, Greenville: Site of Fort Greenville where, in 1795, Anthony Wayne negotiated the treaty which cost the Indians much of Ohio and Indiana. The treaty was a result of the Indians' defeat by Wayne at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in August 1794. The Greenville site was noted also in Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830, and Fallen Timbers was recommended for classification of exceptional value in that theme.

Pennsylvania

Anthony Wayne Memorial, Erie: Replica of blockhouse in which Wayne died in 1796. The Memorial stands on the site of the American Fort Presque Isle, of which the original blockhouse was a part.

David Bradford House, Washington: Home of the most outstanding leader of the Whiskey Insurrection in 1794. The property has been acquired by the state and will be fully restored.

American Fort LeBoeuf, Waterford: Built by Pennsylvania troops in 1794 to open the area to settlement. Events here raised the constitutional question as to whether a state had the right to undertake military action which could involve the United States in war. The French Fort LeBoeuf has been approved for exceptional value in Theme V, French Exploration and Settlement. The two forts are in close proximity.

Azilum, near Rummerfield: Site of a colony established in 1793 for refugees from the terror of the French Revolution. Most of the exiled aristocrats returned to France under the amnesty granted by Napoleon.

Perry's Flagship Niagara, Erie: The keel is believed to be the only surviving timber of the original vessel in this reconstruction. The site of the shipyard in Erie where Perry's fleet was constructed in 1813 has been obliterated by later waterfront development.

Tennessee

William Cobb House, Elizabethton: House in which William Blount, governor of the Southwest Territory, made his official residence from 1791 until 1793. Privately owned and occupied by tenants.

Fort Southwest Point: Important military post on the Cherokee frontier, 1791-1817.
Tipton-Haynes House, Johnson City: Scene of the "battle" in 1788 between forces of John Sevier and John Tipton, which marked the downfall of the State of Franklin; the log house, later weatherboarded, became the home of Landon Carter Haynes, Confederate States Senator from Tennessee.

Vermont

Otter Creek, Vergennes: Site of shipyard where Macdonough built the little American fleet which decisively defeated a British squadron at Plattsburgh Bay, September 11, 1814.

West Virginia

Blennerhassett Island: Site of the wilderness mansion of Harman Blennerhassett in the Ohio River, seized by Virginia militia as a result of the Burr conspiracy of 1806.

Washington, D. C.

Blair House: Although built between 1824 and 1827, this house has its greatest historical significance during the later years of the 19th century. It should be considered further under Theme XIII, Political and Military Affairs, 1830-1860.


D. C. Boundary Stones: Considered to be of extreme historical significance are the sites and remains of the 40 original boundary stones marking the outline of the Federal City as laid out by George Washington and Major L'Enfant in 1791. Located at 10 mile intervals the remains of 39 stones are still standing. Stones are under the jurisdiction of the National Park Service.

Dolly Madison House - Southeast corner, H and Madison Place, N. W.: This house (known also as the Cutts House), was built around 1820 by Richard Cutts, Mrs. Madison's brother-in-law. Although greatly changed in appearance, it's legends and associations continue to enhance its significance and charm.

Dumbarton House - Located at 2715 Q Street, N. W.: This house, built around 1780-1795, is now the headquarters of the National Society of Colonial Dames. The house is a fine architectural example of the Georgian and Federal periods. It has been associ-
DUMBARTON OAKS - View South East Front

1959

Photograph: Courtesy of Dumbarton Oaks
ated with many noted American families.

**Dumbarton Oaks:** This house should be noted for its architectural significance in Theme XX, The Arts and Sciences, and in Theme XXI, Growth of the United States to a World Power.

**Evermay:** Built in Georgetown in 1792 by Samuel Davidson, a successful Washington land speculator, this fine example of a large Georgian Mansion has remained unchanged. Efforts to raze the house have been resisted by Georgetown citizens.

**The Francis Scott Key House** - located (site only) at 3518 M Street: Built about 1802, the house that stood on the site was the home of Francis Scott Key at the time of the writing of the Star Spangled Banner. The remains of the house have been preserved.

**Navy Yard Gate and Commandant's House** - Still standing at the main entrance to the Naval Weapons Factory (formerly Naval Gun Factory) is the original main gate designed by B. H. Latrobe, one of the architects of the Capitol. The gate, dating back to 1800, is one of the best preserved examples of Latrobe's work. The Commandant's residence, also designed by Latrobe, remains intact and unchanged.

**Sewell Place** - 144 B Street N. E. This building, now known as Belmont House, is the headquarters of The National Women's Party. Only shot fired against the British in 1814 came from this house.

**Wheat Row:** Built in 1793, Wheat Row is the first range of connected dwellings built in the Federal City. Located on 4 1/2 Street, S. E., the houses are still standing. They were built by a syndicate consisting of Robert Morris "Financier of the American Revolution," John Nicholson, Comptroller of Pennsylvania and James Greenleaf, one-time American Consul at Amsterdam

**Wisconsin**

**Fort Howard,** Green Bay: The Surgeon's Quarters and Hospital are survivors of the Army post garrisoned from 1816 to 1841, and for a few years after the Mexican War.

In addition to the sites and buildings described briefly above, a number of others were evaluated in the Survey. In terms of the present theme these appeared to have minor significance. Some of the sites and buildings listed alphabetically below may have significance in other historical themes and their inclusion here does
not preclude consideration of them in future thematic studies.

Marie Antoinette House, North Edgecomb, Maine
Camp Blount, Tennessee

Bedford County Courthouse, Bedford, Pennsylvania
Camp Recovery, Georgia

Elicott's Store, Alabama
W. H. Crawford Home Site, Georgia

Fort Adams, Mississippi
William Maclay House, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

Fort Claiborne, Alabama
McGillivray's Plantation, Alabama

Fort Claiborne, Louisiana
Pass Christian, Mississippi

Fort Crawford, Alabama
Point Remove, Arkansas

Fort Deposit, Alabama
John Randolph Home, Farmville, Virginia

Fort Edgecomb, North Edgecomb, Maine
John Ross House, Rossville, Georgia

Fort Hughes, Georgia
St. Ann's Church Grounds (Grave of Gouverneur Morris, "Literary Stylist" of the Constitution), East Bronx, New York City, N. Y.*

Fort Mitchell, Alabama

Fort Saginaw, Saginaw, Michigan

Fort Stoddert, Alabama

Fort Wayne, Fort Wayne, Indiana
Ship Island, Mississippi

Governor Galusha House, Shaftsbury, Vermont
Surgeon's Quarters, Fort Winnebago, Portage, Wisconsin

Thomas Macdonough Monument, Vergennes, Vermont
Windham County Courthouse, Newfane, Vermont

*St. Ann's Church was built in 1841. Despite its charm, the building is not notable for its architecture. It's chief claim to public attention is the churchyard burial vault of Gouverneur Morris, a figure of ranking importance in the Federal period. Inclusion of St. Ann's churchyard in the general listing above does not imply any question of Morris' significant role in American history, but does indicate the relatively minor importance of the site itself as illustrating the life, character or contributions of the man whose remains are entombed there. The site has been the subject of investigation by the National Park Service over the past several years.
APPENDIX

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADDITIONAL STUDY

In surveying the theme of Political and Military Affairs, 1783-1830, several buildings were noted which appeared to possess considerable value although present information is not sufficient for full evaluation in terms of the Survey criteria. We recommend that a qualified public or private agency undertake further study of Friendship Hill, the home of Albert Gallatin near New Geneva, Pennsylvania and the birthplace houses of John and John Quincy Adams in Quincy, Massachusetts. The Gallatin Home is in private ownership and the town of Quincy owns the Adams birthplaces. Additional study should provide necessary information on the integrity of the houses to determine to what degree their original character has been preserved, and to what extent they figured in the lives of their most notable occupants.

Pending further study, it appears that there is no threat to the preservation of the Adams houses. The status of Friendship Hill is uncertain. For many years the house was maintained by a local association which apparently lost control of the property. Buildings and grounds are reportedly in fair condition, but some of the original furnishings have been removed.