

DEVELOPMENT
OF THE
ENGLISH COLONIES
1700 - 1775

THE NATIONAL SURVEY
OF HISTORIC SITES AND BUILDINGS



UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
NATIONAL PARK SERVICE

The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings

Theme IX

Development of the English Colonies, 1700-1775

1960

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

National Park Service
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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 66 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 38 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.

This study is the result of a joint effort by two historians of the National Park Service: Frank B. Sarles, Jr., 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. Sarles, 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 G. Leland, Director Emeritus of the American Council of Learned Societies; Dr. S. K. Stevens, Executive Director of the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission; Dr. Louis B. Wright, Director of the Folger Shakespearean Library; Mr. Earl H. Reed, Chairman Emeritus of the Committee on the Preservation of Historic Buildings, American Institute of Architects; Dr. Richard H. Howland, President of the National Trust for Historic Preservation; Mr. Eric Gugler, member of the Board of Directors of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society; Dr. J. O. Brew, Director of the Peabody Museum of Archeology and Ethnology, Harvard University; and Mr. Frederick Johnson, Curator of the Robert S. Peabody Foundation for Archeology, Phillips Academy.

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 Daniel B. Beard, Chief, Division of Interpretation, of the National Park Service.

Conrad L. Wirth
Director

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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 opinions 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 gratefully acknowledged:

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DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES, 1700-1775

An Interpretation of the Theme

EVOLUTION OF A NATION

In contrast to the 17th century, which had witnessed the precarious establishment of "an English world in America,"¹ the 18th saw that world become immensely stronger and progressively less English. Three-quarters of a century of physical, cultural, economic and political development, strongly influenced by the particular environment of the New World, led the American colonies farther and farther from the mother country. Long before 1775, the colonies had attained a political maturity and an independence of thought and action which left them only nominally dependent on England. In this sense, the conflict which began in 1775 has been called a war "not so much for independence, as for the recognition of a maturity and a de facto nationhood that already existed."²

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

Though firmly established by 1700, the colonies gave little indication of the phenomenal growth which lay ahead. Less than 300,000 colonists occupied the scattered settlements along the Atlantic coast. In the middle and southern colonies, where the coastal plain extended far inland, settlement was just beginning to spill beyond the fall line toward the foothills of the Appalachians. Seventy-five years later, two and a half million Americans blanketed the eastern seaboard and, at intervals,

¹ Charles M. Andrews, The Colonial Period of American History (4 vols., New Haven, 1934-1938), I, xiii.

² Max Savelle, The Foundations of American Civilization (New York, 1942), 644.

had pushed beyond the mountain barrier.³

A large part of this great increase in population resulted from a high birth rate, for strong sons and healthy daughters were the obvious answer to a sparse labor supply. But most of the population growth resulted from an unprecedented flood of immigration, part voluntary and part involuntary.⁴

This immigration, "one of the major factors in the history of the continental colonies in the eighteenth century,"⁵ began in the preceding period but reached its greatest volume after the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. Besides enormous numbers of Rhineland Germans and Scotch-Irish, and a smaller but culturally significant stream of French Huguenots, the tide included Swiss, Irish Catholics, Scots, and Spanish and Portugese Jews.

A comparatively high level of culture and wealth gave to the Huguenots an importance far out of proportion to their limited number.⁶ Essentially an urban group, they were attracted to the more thickly settled

³ Charles O. Paullin, Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States (Washington, 1932), 41; Edward Channing, A History of the United States (6 vols., New York, 1905-1929), III, 528, (map). The increase averaged 4,815 persons a year from 1660 to 1700; 18,650 a year from 1700 to 1750; and 54,304 a year from 1750 to 1775. The smallest increase was in Massachusetts, which had five times as many residents in 1775 as in 1700; the largest was in North Carolina, which had 50 times as many.

⁴ Channing estimated that one-third of the colonists in 1760 had been born outside of America. Ibid., II, 492. Other estimates place it as much as two-thirds. Franklin B. Dexter, Estimates of Population in the American Colonies (Worcester, Mass., 1887).

⁵ Savelle, op. cit., 401.

⁶ Savelle estimated that 15,000 Huguenots came to America before the Revolution. Ibid., 405.

PHYSICAL GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES



Settled Areas in 1700



Settled Areas in 1775



colonies. Almost every colonial city had its Huguenot contingent, but the real center of Huguenot settlement was Charleston, South Carolina. By the mid-18th century, the French influence was clearly evident in Charleston dress, manners and architecture.

Much more numerous than the French were the Germans, who settled generally in the middle and southern colonies.⁷ Although some attempt was made to guide groups of them into industry,⁸ the vast majority moved to the frontiers to become small farmers. In Pennsylvania, where the greater number settled, they provided a valuable buffer for the older counties. "It has been said that Quaker blood was never shed by the North American Indian; to this the historians of the German migration reply that the Indians sheathed their knives in the bodies of the German frontiersmen."⁹

By far the most aggressive frontiersmen were the Scotch-Irish. They, too, were to be found in the back country of the middle and southern colonies, principally in Pennsylvania. Renowned as Indian fighters, the Scotch-Irish were the "source at once of protection to the older colonies and much trouble to colonial governments because of their fiery and undisciplined ways of life."¹⁰

Of the other immigrant groups, the Swiss settled mainly in the Carolinas; the Irish Catholics, in Maryland and Pennsylvania; the Scots,

⁷ Savelle estimated their number at 100,000. Ibid., 409.

⁸ Among the more notable projects were a naval stores settlement at Newburgh, New York, in 1710, and an iron mine settlement at Germanna, Virginia, in 1714. Neither prospered.

⁹ Channing, op. cit., II, 411.

¹⁰ Savelle, op. cit., 412.

in Virginia, South Carolina and Massachusetts; and the Jews, in such metropolitan centers as Charleston, Philadelphia, New York and Newport, Rhode Island.¹¹

These groups had all come voluntarily, but the largest non-English element in the colonies -- totaling perhaps a fifth of the population by 1775¹² -- consisted of Negro slaves. The development of the plantation system in the southern colonies created a demand for slave labor, and by the end of the colonial period probably six out of seven slaves were south of the Mason and Dixon line.¹³ The slave population constituted 40 per cent of the total in Virginia and about 60 per cent in South Carolina.¹⁴

The tremendous boom in population was partially reflected in the rapid growth of cities and towns. Boston, the metropolis of the colonies in 1700, had but 7,000 inhabitants, and only Philadelphia besides had as many as 5,000. By 1775, Philadelphia's metropolitan population of 34,000 souls made her the largest, but 11 other cities had passed the 5,000 mark. The number of colonial towns increased by three and a half times in the same period.¹⁵

¹¹ One result of this tide of immigration was the passage of a Parliamentary law in 1740 providing for naturalization of foreign Protestants in the American colonies. This law, which required seven years' residence and certain oaths (or affirmations), formed the basis of the first naturalization act of the United States. Channing, *op. cit.*, II, 414-15.

¹² Evarts Boutell Greene, The Revolutionary Generation, 1763-1790 (Vol. IV, A History of American Life) (New York, 1946), 67.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Savelle, *op. cit.*, 489, 514.

¹⁵ Paullin, *op. cit.*, 42. The number of towns increased from 200 to 700 (both figures approximate).

Cities and towns could accommodate only a fraction of the mushrooming population. The greater part pushed rapidly beyond the 17th century boundaries of the colonies in a "haphazard, unplanned, and voluntary movement westward."¹⁶

In 1700, English settlement extended along the seaboard from Penobscot Bay, in the present state of Maine, southward to the Edisto River in South Carolina. The settlements were not continuous, and only in the valley of the Hudson River had they penetrated inland more than a hundred miles. By the eve of the American Revolution, settlement had pushed down the coast another 150 miles to the St. Mary's River and inland 200 miles and more to the crest of the Appalachian mountain system. At intervals the restless frontier had swept beyond the Appalachian crest: in the south, to the headwaters of the Clinch and the Holston; in the north, up the eastern shore of Lake Champlain and west along the Mohawk Valley, with a lonely outpost on Lake Ontario; in the center -- and most significantly -- past the former French post of Fort Duquesne and thence 150 miles down the Ohio River.¹⁷

This westward movement, though continuous during most of the period, did not flow evenly. Before 1754, it was hampered by the opposition of Indian tribes whose natural hostility was intensified by the machinations of the French and Spaniards. In western Pennsylvania, where the Indian pressure was not so great, settlement had pushed on beyond the crest

¹⁶ L. H. Gipson, The British Empire Before the American Revolution (11 vols., Caldwell, Ida., and New York, 1936-), V, 340.

¹⁷ Channing, op. cit., III, 528 (map).

of the mountains by the outbreak of the French and Indian War. During the next nine years the frontier line retreated to the east side of the Appalachians. In 1763, with the French power crushed, England sought to reserve the trans-Appalachian country to the Indians, but the colonists were not to be stopped. By the outbreak of the Revolution, they were firmly established in the upper Ohio Valley.

CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

No less amazing than the physical growth of the colonies in this period was the expansion of the colonial intellectual horizon. This cultural growth -- stimulated by the fluidity of society, the spread of educational facilities, the improvement of transportation and communication, and the ascendancy of secular interests -- by 1775 had brought the colonies to the brink of nationhood.

Though many of the early English colonists had brought with them the rigid class concepts of the mother country, the American climate was not congenial to the development of such a system. Strong caste barriers could hardly survive in a society in which the dissatisfied worker had only to move on in order to find other opportunities for work. Plentiful land and a scarce labor supply offered many opportunities to anyone willing to work. The result among the working classes was "a degree of personal freedom that was unknown in older countries."¹⁸

¹⁸ Ibid., II, 463.

Intellectual development was stimulated by an increase in opportunities for education. Elementary schooling at public expense was available in many parts of New England and, to some extent, in the middle colonies. In the plantation colonies of the south, most early schooling was necessarily by private tutor. In the field of higher education, the two collegiate institutions existing in the colonies in 1700 had increased to nine by 1775.¹⁹

Water transportation had been the most feasible form at the beginning of the century, when the colonies were separate settlements hugging the coastline. By 1760, however, the northern and middle colonies had an inter-colonial road system, which continued southward through the Valley of Virginia into the "Upper Regions" of the Carolinas. The seaboard areas of the southern colonies remained largely dependent on water transportation for inter-colonial traffic, though a fairly good network of local roads had been developed by 1775.

Two events during the first decade of the 18th century foretold the rapid breakdown of communications barriers. Colonial journalism got its start in 1704, when John Campbell began publication of the Boston News Letter.²⁰ Six years later, Parliament passed an act to establish a

¹⁹ They were Yale (1701); Princeton (originally the College of New Jersey, (1746); University of Pennsylvania (originally Franklin's Academy, 1751); Columbia University (originally King's College, 1754); Brown University (originally Rhode Island College, 1764); Rutgers (originally Queen's College, 1776); and Dartmouth (1769).

²⁰ Campbell, postmaster of Boston, issued his first printed News Letter on April 24, 1704. Channing, op. cit., II, 475.

"General Post-Office for all Her Majesties Dominions," replacing the functions and broadening the scope of the individual colonial post offices which had been founded late in the 17th century.²¹

Increasing secularism, a natural reaction to the "sternness of religious belief" which marked the 17th century, was a major trend of this period. It was due partly to the influence of Newtonian science, partly to the revulsion which followed the emotional excesses of the "Great Awakening" of the 1730's, and partly to the growing heterogeneity of the colonial society. The decreasing power of religion freed men's minds for the consideration of more worldly problems. "Philosophy, which up to the middle of the [18th] century had concerned itself mainly with religion, from this time has to do with politics. To this the ever widening opportunities of intellectual improvement powerfully contributed."²²

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

That expansiveness which marked all other phases of colonial development also characterized the 18th century colonial economy. An established production, with the added stimulus of a rapidly growing population, made for a generally healthy economic development. Of particular importance to the "debtor" colonies, an expanding frontier brought the opportunity for profitable speculation in western lands.

Unfortunately for the colonies, their economic development was retarded to a marked degree by the mercantilist concepts of the mother

²¹ Ibid., II, 474.

²² Ibid., II, 454.

country. As applied to the British empire, this economic doctrine assigned to the colonies the relatively passive roles of supplying raw materials and providing markets for manufactured products. The result was an active discouragement of large-scale industrial development in America.

The unfavorable balance of trade resulting from the colonies' economic dependence on England continually drained them of hard money. Colonial expedients, such as the formation of land banks and the circulation of paper money, were subject to punitive legislation by the British Parliament.²³ The need was largely met by a favorable balance of trade with the West Indies, which brought large amounts of Spanish money into the colonies. "Thus were the parts of the British empire bound together by the golden and silver threads of Spanish coin."²⁴

Considered as a whole, the mainstay of the colonial economy was agriculture. Besides supplying local needs, agricultural production was sufficient to provide an exportable surplus of foodstuffs, indigo and tobacco.

Commerce also was of major importance in the colonial economy. Shipping (both coastwise and overseas), the fur trade, and speculation

²³ When Parliament forced the closing of the Massachusetts land bank in 1740, one of the ruined stockholders was Samuel Adams, Sr., father of the man who was to cause Parliament much grief three decades later. Savelle, *op. cit.*, 451. So acute was the shortage of money in North Carolina in 1715 that 19 different commodities were acceptable as legal tender. *Ibid.*, 504.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, 393.

in western lands played an important part in the economic welfare of the colonies.

Industry, hampered though it was by the assigned role of the colonies in the imperial economy, yet showed gains in the 18th century. Among the more important industries were fishing, lumbering, manufacturing naval stores, shipbuilding, and the mining and partial manufacture of iron.

Economic differentiation among the colonies, already clearly marked by 1700, became much more pronounced during the 18th century. New England's booming prosperity was based almost exclusively on commerce; the middle colonies, also markedly prosperous, were aptly termed the "food colonies" because of their large exportable surplus of foodstuffs; while the southern colonies were dependent on large-scale production of a few staples.

New England made its living from the sea. Fishing had been of major importance from the beginning, but the shipping industry surpassed it in this period. By the middle of the 18th century, New England vessels literally "covered the globe." Most important was the "triangular trade" which developed between New England, Africa and the West Indies. Rum made in New England was carried to Africa and exchanged for slaves, who were taken to the West Indies and traded for molasses, which in turn was taken home for conversion into rum. New England ships also carried on a brisk trade in colonial agricultural products with the West Indies and southern Europe, as well as a coastwise commerce among the individual colonies. England tried vainly by legislation to channel all colonial trade

through her own ports -- both as a regulatory measure and as a source of added profit to British merchants -- but all through the 18th century the "normal economic evolution of the continental colonies seemed to be toward a freedom to trade in every market in the world that was open to them."²⁵

As might be expected, industry in New England was largely geared to the needs of the maritime interests. Among the more important were shipbuilding, lumbering, iron manufacture, and rum production.

New England agriculture was on a subsistence level. Poor soil, a short growing season and a preoccupation with commerce and industry prevented agriculture from occupying an important position in the New England economy.

The "food colonies" exported large amounts of grain and livestock and smaller quantities of other foodstuffs, furs, and miscellaneous products. As a result of this surplus production economy, the agricultural unit tended to be much larger in those colonies than in New England. The agricultural surplus was distributed among the other continental colonies, the West Indies, and southern Europe.

Maryland, though geographically associated with the plantation colonies to the south, became more and more diversified in this period by the settlement of small farmers in the "back country" west of Baltimore. By mid-century, Maryland's tobacco exportation had been supplemented by

²⁵ Ibid., 398.

small quantities of foodstuffs, though it still ranked economically with the southern "debtor" colonies.

Virginia was dependent on a single crop, and the 18th century saw the plight of the tobacco planter getting steadily worse. The tobacco plantation, though much larger than the agricultural unit in any of the other colonies, was not self-sufficient. The planter was dependent on exports for virtually all the necessities of life, and the declining tobacco market threw him ever deeper into debt. Had it not been for the presence of vast tracts of western land suitable for large-scale speculation, many tobacco planters would have been ruined.

Land speculation was a continuing phenomenon during the colonial period, but the fever reached its height in the last three decades before the Revolution. At that time attention was centered on the Ohio River valley, principally because of the pressure of surplus population in Pennsylvania and the Valley of Virginia. After the Peace of Paris in 1763, English capitalists became deeply interested in the financial possibilities. Their attempts to participate helped build up resentment in influential colonial circles.²⁶

North Carolina, though not strictly a one-crop economy, remained a notorious "debtor" colony throughout the colonial period. Besides naval

²⁶ The crowning scheme was the "Vandalia" project, which involved more than 2,500,000 acres. Though approved by the Privy Council over the strong protests of Virginia and Pennsylvania, the project was "lost in the clouds of approaching war." *Ibid.*, 609-12. For a more detailed study of early land speculation, see the Analytical Statement for Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830.

stores, which comprised their staple, the North Carolinians raised tobacco and, in the back country, some cattle and other foodstuffs.

South Carolina was a conspicuous exception to the general poverty of the southern colonies. Its prosperity, based at first on a lucrative fur trade, was bolstered by the cultivation of rice and indigo. Rice, by mid-century, had become the staple and a source of great wealth to a small group of planters. The typical rice plantation was considerably smaller than the Virginia tobacco plantation. Back-country Carolinians found cattle-raising the most profitable occupation, producing a surplus for export.

The fur trade, particularly important in South Carolina, Pennsylvania and New York, was an economic factor in almost every colony at one time or another. Nor was it significant merely in an economic sense. It was the fur traders who first brought back information of the Ohio Valley, and their interest, as well as that of the land speculators, had much to do with the outbreak of the French and Indian War.²⁷

In striking contrast to the economic situation of the continental colonies was that of the "sugar islands" of the British West Indies. Shackled by a one-crop economy, the planters were forced to import even the smallest necessities. With the collapse of their American and European markets in the face of French competition, they were drawn into an even closer dependence on the English home market. Thus the

²⁷ Savelle, op. cit., 496, 599.



THE MULBERRY, South Carolina - The north rice field, seen from high ground near the mansion. The Mulberry is typical of the river rice plantations which brought such wealth to the colony in the eighteenth century.

48589

March 20, 1958

National Park Service photograph

"economic development of the West Indies tended to increase the economic dependence of those colonies under the mother country," while that of the continental colonies appeared "of a nature eventually to make these colonies economically independent and resentful of British economic control."²⁸

While the continental colonies were diverging economically from the mother country and from their sister colonies in the Caribbean, they were undergoing a significant internal economic schism. The peculiar conditions of frontier life were creating an entirely new society, sharply differentiated from that of the seaboard. In the first place, it was a mixture of racial groups, with Scotch-Irish and Germans predominating. Most of them, too, were small farmers and hunters, and their standard of living was low compared to that of the "East." They formed a perpetual debtor class, deeply suspicious of the eastern merchants they owed, and increasingly bitter over their own political impotence. As a class, these men were either indifferent or actively hostile to Europe and things European, but in the colonial period those feelings ran a poor second in intensity to their feelings against their seaboard compatriots.

This sectional cleavage, common to all the colonies, was most pronounced in the Carolinas. In both colonies, resentful frontiersmen started "Regulator" movements in the 1760's which culminated in bloodshed. The dramatic climax to this colonial economic sectionalism was reached near the Alamance River in western North Carolina. There in a

²⁸ Ibid., 397.

pitched battle on May 16, 1771, the Regulators of that colony were defeated and dispersed. The Regulator movement, coinciding as it did with the first rumblings of the American Revolution, has been widely misinterpreted. It was "a phenomenon precipitated by the filling up of the 'old west' rather than an outgrowth of the colonial conflict with the mother country with which it happened to coincide."²⁹

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

The tremendous physical expansion of the colonies during this period brought them into deadly conflict with other peoples who had a stake in North America. The Indians, outraged by years of ruthless treatment at colonial hands, received ever stronger support from the French and Spaniards, who saw their own American empires endangered. Even after these European allies were finally crushed, the Indians strove to halt the irresistible westward movement.

The French in America never approached numerical equality with the English. Less than 17,000 at the beginning of the 18th century, they had increased to only 55,000 by the outbreak of the French and Indian War.³⁰ French settlement followed a pattern all its own, for instead of a concentration such as the English had along the coast, "islands of Frenchmen appeared here and there within the vast ocean of a continental wilderness."³¹

²⁹ Ibid., 521. The bitterness of this sectional feeling was shown clearly by the events of the Revolution, when the frontier elements in a number of the colonies aligned themselves with the cause opposite to that favored by the seaboard elements. Ray Allen Billington, Westward Expansion: A History of the American Frontier (New York, 1949), 102.

³⁰ Gipson, op. cit., V, 5.

³¹ Ibid., V, 344.

Despite this numerical inferiority, France was able to keep English settlement from the Ohio Valley until mid-century. Her advantage was that of an authoritarian over a representative government. Where the English colonies were mainly dependent on poorly trained militia, the French had disciplined regulars; where the colonial legislatures could haggle and refuse to grant needed funds or to supply needed men, the French could command money, men and supplies at will; where the colonies treated individually and, for the most part, tactlessly, with the Indians, the French had "a uniform Indian policy . . . implemented with skill"³²; and, where the colonies had few able military leaders, the French forces were led by some of the most highly skilled officers of France.

The earliest eruption of the Anglo-French rivalry in America in the 18th century was the outbreak of Queen Anne's War in 1702. This struggle, the New World counterpart of the War of the Spanish Succession, saw the French and Spanish allied against the English. It lasted 11 years. On the southern border, South Carolinians destroyed the town of St. Augustine in 1702 and the Spanish mission system in western Florida in 1704, and two years later repulsed a joint attack on Charleston. On the northern border, a series of barbarous attacks on New England settlements³⁴ led to

³² Gipson, op. cit., V, 346.

³³ Ibid., V, 345-46.

³⁴ The worst massacre occurred at Deerfield, Massachusetts, on February 29, 1704, when 53 colonists were slain and 111 were captured. Channing, op. cit., II, 539.

retaliatory expeditions against Port Royal, which was captured in 1710.

The war was ended by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

The "peace" which followed the Treaty of Utrecht was hardly worthy of the name. Though the treaty was dedicated to the principle of the balance of power, Frenchman and Spaniard alike soon saw that something more than a piece of paper would be needed to halt the English colonists.

The signs were unmistakable. In 1716, for example, Virginia's bold lieutenant-governor, Alexander Spotswood, dramatized the possibilities for westward expansion by leading the "Knights of the Golden Horseshoe" across the Blue Ridge. To the northward, 10 years later, New Yorkers ignored French claims to plant Fort Oswego on the shores of Lake Ontario. To the south, on lands claimed by Spain, a new English colony was established in 1733.³⁵

Varied motives lay behind the founding of Georgia. To Oglethorpe and his associates, it was a humanitarian project designed to provide new lives for English debtors. To the British government, it was a military outpost from which attacks could be launched on Spanish Florida.³⁶ To the

³⁵ The first proposal for such a military colony, to be called the Margaravate of Azilia, was made by Sir Robert Montgomery in 1717. In 1721, Fort King George was built at the mouth of the Altamaha, and it remained a diplomatic bone of contention until its abandonment in 1727.

³⁶ The humanitarian motive is evident in the settlement made by a group of persecuted Salzburg Lutherans at Ebenezer on the Savannah River in 1736; the military motive, by the settlement of Scottish highlanders at Darien on the Altamaha the same year. Savelle, op. cit., 529.



FORT KING GEORGE, Georgia - A view of the fort burying ground, containing the bodies of more than 140 48589 men who died defending the southern colonial frontier against the Spaniards, 1721-27.

March 16, 1958

National Park Service photograph

Carolínians, it was a welcome "buffer" against the Indian attacks which had periodically ravaged those colonies.³⁷ The price paid by the South Carolínians for this protection was the loss to Georgia of valuable western lands and a large part of their lucrative fur trade.³⁸

Oglethorpe was fairly successful in pacifying the neighboring Indians,³⁹ but he made little progress against the Spaniards. An expedition against St. Augustine in 1740, the last of a number which had been attempted, brought the Georgians within sight of their goal but failed to reach it. These expeditions, though forming "a dreary tale of misfortune and incapacity,"⁴⁰ must have exhausted the Spanish strength, for, after an unsuccessful attack on the Georgia post of Fort Frederica in 1742, Spain never made another serious attempt to dislodge the English.

By 1754, the European rivalry in North America was approaching a showdown. The French, by reason of their tenuous occupancy of the Mississippi Valley, claimed everything west of the Appalachians. The English,

³⁷ The worst were the Tuscarora War, which ravaged the North Carolina frontier between 1711 and 1713, and the Yamassee War of 1715, in which the Indian raiders came nearly to Charleston. The two colonists alternately supported one another with troops and supplies.

³⁸ Channing, op. cit., II, 365.

³⁹ One of his first acts was a treaty with the Creek chieftains in May, 1733, in which the Indians sold their claims to land between the Altamaha and Savannah Rivers and the whites agreed to regulate the Indian trade.

⁴⁰ Channing, op. cit., II, 364.

spurred on by the interest of fur traders and, more recently, of land speculators, had no intention of honoring the French claim.

The British Board of Trade in that year acknowledged colonial weakness in Indian relations and military preparedness by appointing two imperial Indian agents and an overall commander for British forces in America.⁴¹ To counteract the advantage of the French regular troops, the home government decided, British regulars must be sent to America.⁴² No time was lost in ordering them to the colonies.

Meanwhile, hostilities had begun. Early in 1754 the French seized and fortified the forks of the Ohio River. When Lieutenant-Colonel George Washington went out with a force of Virginia militia to protest, he was besieged in Fort Necessity and obliged to surrender. The following summer, Braddock's expedition against the French stronghold, Fort Duquesne, ended even more disastrously. So for three years the war dragged wearily on as the English tried, apparently in vain, to drive the French from North America.

The tide turned in 1757 with the rise to power in England of William Pitt. Determined to crush French resistance, he assigned young and vigorous men to the task. In rapid succession the French strongholds fell: Louisbourg, Fort Duquesne, Fort Frontenac, Fort Niagara, Fort

⁴¹ William Johnson was named northern Indian agent; Edmund Atkins (later replaced by John Stuart), southern Indian agent; and Maj. Gen. Edward Braddock, military commander.

⁴² Gipson, op. cit., V, 348.

Ticonderoga and Crown Point, Quebec, and, finally, Montreal. With the fall of the latter city on September 8, 1760, the French gave up their claims to Canada and all of its dependencies in North America.

The struggle flared again, briefly, in 1761, when Spain came to the aid of France. Her help proved valueless as the British effortlessly seized Cuba and other Spanish possessions. France and Spain sued for peace.

The Treaty of Paris, signed in 1763, was of the utmost significance to the English colonies. Besides losing Canada, France surrendered the eastern half of the Mississippi Valley to England. For the return of Cuba, Spain had to relinquish Florida. To compensate her ally, France gave western Louisiana and the city of New Orleans to Spain.

Now, at last freed from the age-long menace of foreign foes along their borders, these men /of the English colonies/ . . . were stirred with the vision of a great future. . . and of a high mission that must not be denied them They were determined to brook no interference . . . nor would they permit themselves to be held back even by a sense of common loyalties or by gratitude for the immeasurable⁴³ past benefits and favors received.

The northwestern Indians, though deprived of open French support, continued to resist colonial encroachment on their lands. In May of 1763, a sudden uprising led by an Ottawa chief, Pontiac, bathed the frontier in

⁴³ Ibid., VI, 18-19.

blood. All of the British posts north of the Ohio River fell to the Indians except Detroit and Fort Pitt (the former Fort Duquesne). After the initial surprise, however, the colonists rallied and inflicted a number of defeats on Pontiac's forces. In September of 1764 the Indians capitulated.

The Conspiracy of Pontiac had emphasized to the British government the necessity of regulating Indian affairs and white settlement in the transmontane area. The result was the Proclamation of 1763, issued in the fall of that year. By its terms, the land west of the Appalachians was reserved to the Indians. White settlers were excluded, and Indian traders were to be licensed.

The restriction on white settlement was only a temporary measure, and the British government soon began to negotiate with the Indians for parts of their reserve.⁴⁴ Nevertheless, the assertion of imperial control over western lands was unpalatable to the colonists at a time when opportunity lay glittering. The situation was to lead to "an economic and jurisdictional conflict . . . just as bitter and just as profound as the conflicts over commerce and colonial autonomy that were shaking the eastern seaboard."⁴⁵

Neither the Proclamation nor the subsequent Indian treaties had much effect on the frontiersmen, who continued to encroach upon the Indian

⁴⁴ By the simultaneous treaties of Fort Stanwix and Hard Labor, in October of 1768, and the supplementary Treaty of Lochaber, in 1770, the line was moved well beyond the crest of the mountains.

⁴⁵ Savelle, op. cit., 620.

lands at will. The long-standing resentment of the trans-Ohio Indians exploded in 1774 into the conflict known as Dunmore's War. The decisive defeat of the Indians at Point Pleasant, in the present West Virginia, on October 10, was an important factor in the Revolution, for it gave to the frontier a much-needed respite during the opening years of the larger struggle.

The first quarter of the 18th century witnessed the climax of another external threat which, though not so serious as the others, caused much concern in colonial minds and not a little pain in colonial pocketbooks. Piracy, a plague dating from early in the preceding century, reached a new peak between 1705 and 1725. Only a determined joint effort by colonial governors finally led to the capture of the worst offenders. Though piracy continued throughout the colonial period, it never again reached such a serious proportion.

The colonies during the 18th century experienced an internal struggle even more significant than the conflict with Indians, pirates or foreign enemies. For 1763, while marking a sharp decline in the latter, witnessed such an intensification of the former that an open break with England became inevitable.

In a narrow sense, there was a continuous trend toward Crown control of the colonies between 1700 and 1763. Of the 12 colonies existing in 1700, five had the royal form of government, in which the chief executive was appointed directly by and was answerable to the Crown.⁴⁶

⁴⁶ Royal colonies in 1700 included Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, and Virginia. Connecticut and Rhode Island were corporate colonies; while Delaware, New Jersey, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina were proprietary.

By 1763, eight of the 13 colonies were so governed.⁴⁷

Fundamentally, however, the period was one in which English control of the colonies became steadily less effective. The popularly elected colonial legislatures assumed more and more executive functions, mainly by the "good old English method of tightening the grip on the strings of the purse."⁴⁸

The provincial governor had a double function. He was at once the agent of the Crown (or, in the proprietary colonies, of the proprietors), and the executive head of the provincial government. His responsibility to the Crown was supposed to take precedence over everything else, but the provincial assemblies used the control of internal finances freely to bend the governors to their will. They were aided in their designs by the nearly continuous need of the governors for defense money during the period, which made them much more tractable.⁴⁹

By 1763, the internal struggle appeared to be almost over. The majority of the colonial assemblies had extended their powers to include freedom of debate, the right to judge the qualifications of their own members, the exclusion of Crown-appointed officers from their deliberations, regularly scheduled meetings, and the right to decide on their own

⁴⁷ They were Georgia, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North and South Carolina, and Virginia.

⁴⁸ Channing, *op. cit.*, II, 282. In Virginia, the governor was independent of the House of Burgesses insofar as salary was concerned, since a special fund was earmarked for that purpose.

⁴⁹ Ibid.

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adjournment. Some of them had further gained the right to appoint provincial treasurers, customs and tax collectors, Indian commissioners, provincial military officers, and agents to represent them in London, and the right to authorize military expeditions and the construction of
51
forts.

Despite this legislative ascendancy in the colonies, however, the fundamental question involved in the internal political struggle remained unsolved in 1763. That question was the relationship of the colonial constitutions to that of the empire.

Colonial political thought, strongly influenced by the ideas of John Locke, had evolved two ideas foreign to the British political system: a growing belief in written constitutions, and a belief in direct representation on a territorial basis. The colonial legislators refused to accept the Crown contention that the instructions issued to royal governors became a part of the colonial constitutions. Rejecting
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even more strongly the theory of "virtual representation," they steadfastly maintained that none but themselves could legislate for the internal
53
affairs of the colonies.

As a by-product of the struggle for control of internal colonial affairs, a milestone in the field of civil liberties was reached in

⁵⁰ Savelle, op. cit., 357.

⁵¹ Ibid., 358.

⁵² That is, the theory that all members of Parliament represented all subjects of the British Crown, not merely the constituencies which had elected them.

⁵³ Savelle, op. cit., 367, 446.

the trial of John Peter Zenger in New York in 1735. Two important precedents were set by the Zenger case: first, that in the case of a jury trial for libel, the jury rather than the judge must decide on libelous matter; and, second, that a true statement cannot be libelous.⁵⁴

Even in Virginia, where the royal governor had an independent income, the struggle of legislature vs. executive went on. The conflict in that colony was intensified after 1749 when the Crown -- using a favorite device for controlling colonial affairs -- disallowed 10 laws passed by the House of Burgesses simply because they omitted the usual provision that the laws were not to go into effect until approved by the Crown. In the famous "Parsons' Cause" of 1763, Patrick Henry challenged the right of the Crown to disallow any Virginia law approved by the governor, on the grounds that such disallowance was a violation of the British constitution and the fundamental rights of British subjects.

The constitutional struggle was not the only one within the colonies. The same period which saw the rise of "court" vs. "colony" parties also saw the deeper socio-economic-political cleavage into "gentlemen's" vs. "country" parties. The conservative "gentlemen's" party, zealously guarding its political power, stood for such things as a stabilized currency and political encouragement to land speculation.

⁵⁴ Savelle, op. cit., 465-66; Channing, op. cit., 483-88; Milton W. Hamilton, "Zenger Trial," Dictionary of American History, Vol. V, 513.

The liberal "country" party, on the other hand, stood for unlimited paper money, free land, and adequate defense of the frontiers. This division "was to make the war for American independence a revolution as well as an imperial civil war."⁵⁵

Another important development of the period between 1700 and 1763 was a growing awareness that there were certain inter-colonial problems which could be handled properly only by concerted colonial action. Among them were relations with the Indians, control of the fur trade, and the need for a common defense against external foes. When war threatened in 1754, representatives of seven colonies⁵⁶ met at Albany and devised a plan for union. Though rejected by the colonial assemblies, it was significant as the "first really important recognition of the need for a union of all the colonies on the continent."⁵⁷ It was a portent of things to come.

Immediately after the Treaty of Paris in 1763, the British government found itself with the dual problems of recouping its strained finances and effectively governing its vastly expanded North American empire. Since much of the cash outlay had been for the defense of the colonies, imperial administrators considered it simple justice for the colonies to make up a share of the deficit. But the particular methods adopted to collect the money, coming at a time when the colonies had achieved

⁵⁵ Ibid., 367.

⁵⁶ Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island.

⁵⁷ Savelle, op. cit., 428.

political and economic maturity and when their major foreign foe had been destroyed, had an effect completely unanticipated by the home government.

Colonial fury was first aroused by a series of measures enacted by Parliament during the two years after the Treaty of Paris. Led off by the Proclamation of 1763, which tried to halt the westward movement, the series was climaxed by the Stamp Act of 1765, which sought to tax every business transaction in the colonies.

Patrick Henry rose to castigate Parliament, and his "Virginia Resolves" -- characterized by the governor of Massachusetts as the "alarm Bell to the disaffected"⁵⁸ -- were echoed throughout the colonies. Nine colonies sent representatives to New York in October, 1765, where they placed themselves on record in opposition to the theory of "virtual representation." The Stamp Act, a dead letter from the start, was shortly repealed.

Scarcely had the furor died down when it was revived by the Townshend Acts of 1767, aimed at tightening the system of collecting import duties in the colonies. Popular opposition broke out with a renewed vigor. British troops were sent to Boston, and the Massachusetts assembly was dissolved by circulating a letter inviting the other colonies to resist. Virginia again led the way in condemnatory resolutions with George Mason's "Virginia Resolves of 1769," but the most outspoken opponent of the Townshend Acts was John Dickinson of Pennsylvania. His

⁵⁸ Quoted in Channing, op. cit., III, 55.

Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer, upholding the view that Parliament had no right to tax imperial commerce, were widely read in the colonies. Most effective of all, however, were the non-importation agreements made by colonial merchants.

Though the Townshend duties were repealed in 1770, the fundamental issues remained unsolved. The breakdown of non-importation which followed repeal of the duties brought three years of relative prosperity, but it marked the beginning of an even wider cleavage between "moderates" and "radicals." The first group was dismayed by the violent excesses of the other, while the latter was infuriated by the "desertion" of the merchants.⁵⁹ Only the greatest necessity could drive them into alliance again.

The necessity came with passage of the Tea Act of 1773. This act, giving the East India Company a virtual monopoly of the colonial tea market, probably would have aroused little opposition had the company not chosen as its agents those unpopular merchants who had previously opposed the non-importation agreements. The moderates again called the radicals to their support.

Opposition was widespread, but the climax came with the "Boston Tea Party" on December 16, 1773. The "Intolerable Acts" which followed fanned colonial resentment into flames. The calling of the Continental Congress in September, 1774, was the logical result, and open warfare was imminent.

⁵⁹ Among the more noteworthy radical acts were the stoning of British sentries which led to the so-called "Boston Massacre" on March 5, 1770, and the burning of the revenue cutter Gaspee near Providence on June 9, 1772.

ARCHITECTURE

Almost coincidental with the opening of the 18th century, Renaissance architecture finally reached the American colonies. This "severely formal" adaptation of the classic Roman orders and design, born in Italy in the 15th century, first appeared in England around 1570 and reached its mature phase there 50 years later. The time lag of 130 years before it spread to the colonies was indicative of the economic and social gap between the mother country and her offspring.

Colonial Renaissance architecture, influenced directly by that of the late Stuart period in England, became known as Georgian after the advent of the Hanoverian dynasty. Its general features included a balanced design; the use of classic orders to embellish doorways and entrance facades; predominantly brick construction, laid in Flemish bond (though the wood-building tradition was so strong in New England that many of the finer Georgian mansions there were clapboarded); low-pitched, frequently hipped roofs; sheathed and highly finished interiors; and such treatment of the entrance hall as to make it a room of major importance. After mid-century, the Late Georgian style evolved, with such features as projecting central pavilion, giant pilasters at the corners, small entrance portico, larger window panes, progressively lower-pitched roofs, balustraded roof decks, and dado interior decoration with wallpaper above paneling.

Although adapted from English antecedents, "Georgian architecture in America was singularly free from either the practice or the doctrine of exact imitation."⁶⁰ American architects, professional and amateur, and the humbler carpenter-builders who augmented the work of the few architects, all felt free to disregard their handbooks on occasion, "in accordance with necessity, invention, or taste."⁶¹

Only a score of professional and amateur American architects are known by name for their work during this period. Among the professionals were James Porteus of Philadelphia; John James of Boston; Peter Harrison of Rhode Island; John Hawks of North Carolina; Thomas McBean of New York; William Buckland of Virginia and Maryland; also John Ariss who appears to have confined himself entirely to Virginia. Notable in the category of architect-builders (in which Buckland may be placed), was James Wren, another Virginian practitioner. In recent years, the name of Joseph Horatio Anderson has emerged as a designer with his own corps of craftsmen. He is believed to have been a Philadelphian, though his known work is located in Annapolis and vicinity. The roster of Philadelphia amateur architects is an imposing one: Drs. John Kearsley and William Shippen, Andrew Hamilton, Samuel Rhoads, Samuel Blodget and Robert Smith. Noted amateur architects elsewhere were Richard Munday of Newport, Rhode Island; Joseph Brown and Caleb Ormsbee of Providence; Henry Caner of New Haven, Connecticut; Governor Francis Bernard of Massachusetts; Richard Taliaferro of Williamsburg, Virginia; and the painters, John Smibert and John Trumbull. To George Washington and Thomas Jefferson,

⁶⁰ Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952), 291.

⁶¹ Ibid.

architecture was an avocation and a gentlemanly pursuit. Both "Mount Vernon" and "Monticello" evolved under the watchful eyes of their masters following a number of remodelings and continuing refinements.⁶²

In Charleston, South Carolina, the typical 18th century dwelling was "Georgian with a special southern flavor."⁶³ A disastrous fire in 1740 caused the Assembly to specify non-flammable future construction. The result was a city of brick houses, faced with tinted stucco and covered with red tile roofs, unlike any other colonial metropolis. Many were "double houses" of typical Georgian design; others, of that peculiarly Charleston type called the "single house," standing "with its shoulder to the street," only one room in width and having a long piazza on one side.

Not all of eighteenth century American architecture was Georgian, by any means. The cultural lag which existed between England and the colonies also was present within the colonies. A progression from the seaboard to the frontier, or from top to bottom of the economic scale, would bring to view more humble dwellings -- less durable, smaller, and of more antique design. Of these, the best known was the log cabin, apparently introduced in New Sweden in the mid-17th century, but reaching its present familiar role of a frontier home a century later through its popularity among the Scotch-Irish frontiersmen.

⁶² Contributed by Mr. Worth Bailey.

⁶³ Morrison, op. cit., 415.

CONCLUSION

By 1775, the American colonies bore as little resemblance to the mother country as to their own appearance at the beginning of the century. Indeed, so thoroughly had their basic English stock been infused with other hardy and self-reliant European elements that the filial connection was rather vague. Even the cultural, economic and political heritage from England had been conditioned -- and in some parts radically altered -- by the peculiar environment of a new continent. The rise of a wealthy and cultured leadership within the colonies was a final mark of incipient nationhood. The failure of England to recognize this transformation meant that that nationhood would be achieved outside the British Empire.

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SURVEY OF SITES AND BUILDINGS

General Discussion

Eighteenth century English colonial sites and buildings are relatively abundant in the United States. They are particularly plentiful in New England and the Middle Atlantic states, but even in the South -- where war and economic distress have wreaked havoc -- a surprisingly large number have survived.

Under these circumstances, the major problem in this thematic study has been one of selection rather than location. So far as regards the quality of the sites selected, the advantage of such a situation is obvious. On the debit side of the ledger is the fact that even a rigid application of criteria barely served to cut the field to manageable proportions.

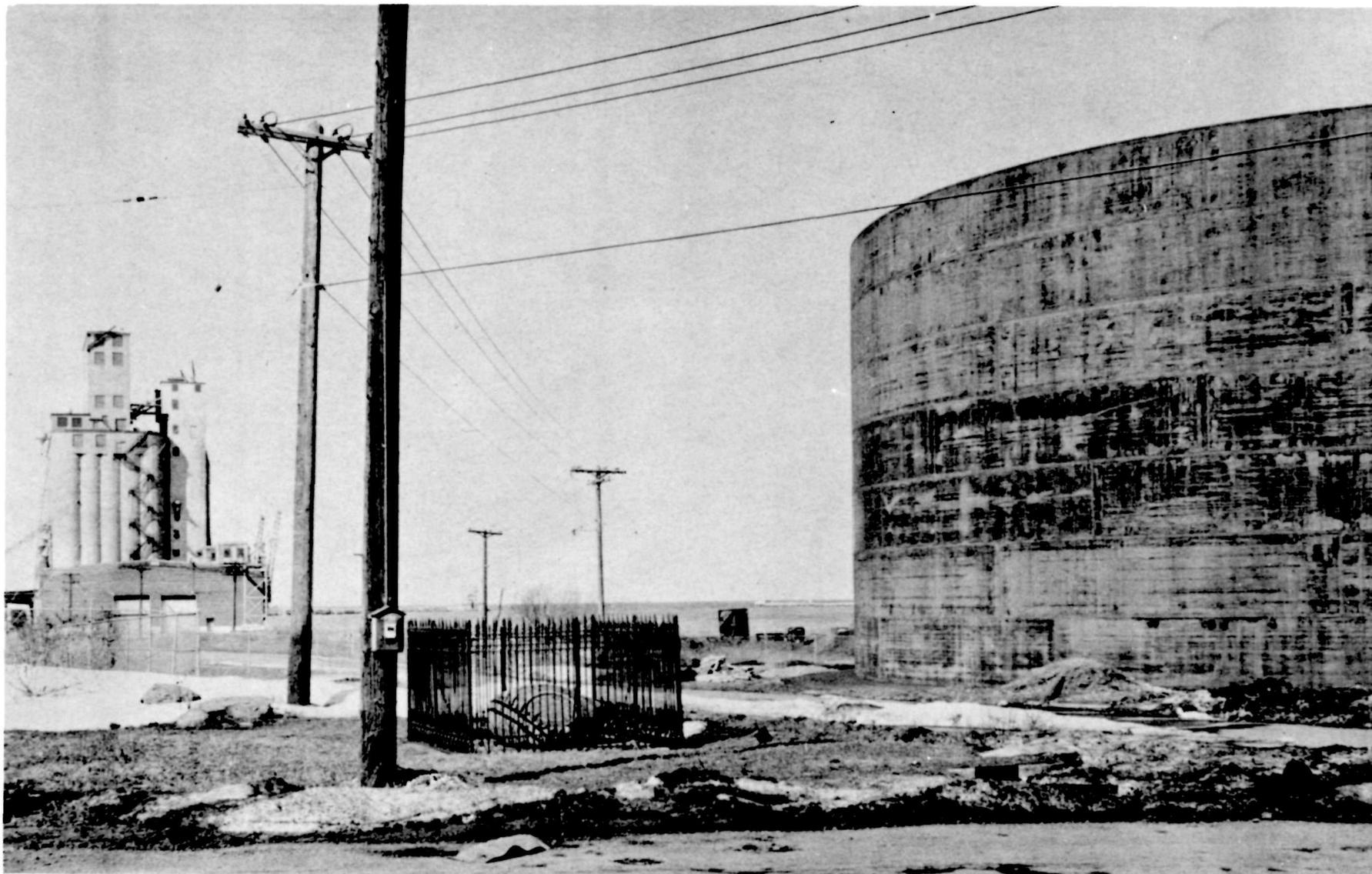
During the Theme IX study, approximately 650 sites and buildings were noted and initially evaluated in documentary sources. Some 65 of these were personally visited by the Survey historians involved and 37 of those, plus four historic districts, appear to meet the criteria of "exceptional value."

All of the sites are located in the states which border the Atlantic Ocean. By far the larger number are to be found in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia and South Carolina.

Many important sites have been "lost" in one way or another. The exact location of some -- such as Fort Moore, an important South Carolina fur-trading post; and the site of the major Indian treaty of

Hard Labor -- are unknown in the light of present knowledge. Others, by undesirable encroachments or the destruction of original features, have lost their integrity. Among these should be listed the Carlyle House, the magnificent Georgian mansion built by one of the founders of Alexandria, Virginia, and used as headquarters by Major General Edward Braddock just before his abortive campaign against Fort Duquesne; the Lucas Plantation, where the remarkable 16-year-old Eliza Lucas demonstrated that indigo could become a major export crop in South Carolina; and the Bethesda Orphanage, founded near Savannah, Georgia, by the fiery Rev. George Whitefield in 1740. The majority of the "lost" sites have been obliterated by the continuation of that phenomenal growth which first manifested itself in the colonial period. This list includes New Post, headquarters of the General Post Office for America for 23 years, destroyed by a sand and gravel operation; the Albany Congress Site, covered by the streets and buildings of downtown Albany, New York; the site of the Boston Tea Party, occupied now by a commercial building; Braddock's Field, scene of the British defeat in 1755, covered by steel mills, stores and private homes; the site of Fort Oswego, marked by a small boulder amid petroleum storage tanks; and the site of the Indian treaty of Fort Stanwix, covered by downtown Rome, New York.

Most of the important 18th century sites and buildings which survive appear to be adequately protected against destruction. A number of them are in state or municipal ownership, while others -- such as Boston's Old South Meeting House, and Stratford Hall in Virginia -- are well maintained by private organizations. Some notable restorations have been



48589A "LOST" SITE - A small stone monument marks the location of Fort Oswego, a post of major importance on the colonial frontier of New York. The site's interpretive value is destroyed by unsightly transmission lines, storage tanks, and other industrial development.

March 23, 1958

National Park Service photograph

accomplished within the past generation; the most famous, of course is Colonial Williamsburg, while the most recent is Tryon Palace in New Bern, North Carolina.

The toll among less significant sites and buildings continues. The "boom" period since World War II, with its accompanying acceleration of industrial, housing and highway development, has greatly increased the threat; but this has been offset to some extent by an increasing awareness of preservation needs on the part of historical societies and the public at large. One potential threat, the extent of which is not yet known, is the interstate highway program.

The groups and individuals active in historical preservation are too numerous to mention individually here. They range from the National Trust for Historic Preservation, through such regional organizations as the Society for the Preservation of New England Antiquities, state groups such as the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities, to groups such as the Historic Charleston Foundation, Inc., the Deerfield Heritage Foundation, and the Elfreth's Alley Association of Philadelphia. The work done by these groups, and many others like them, is invaluable in the preservation of our historical heritage. Posterity will be deeply in their debt.

The condition of most of the sites and buildings of major importance in Theme IX ranges from "good" to "excellent." Exceptions to this generally high standard of preservation are to be found among some of the

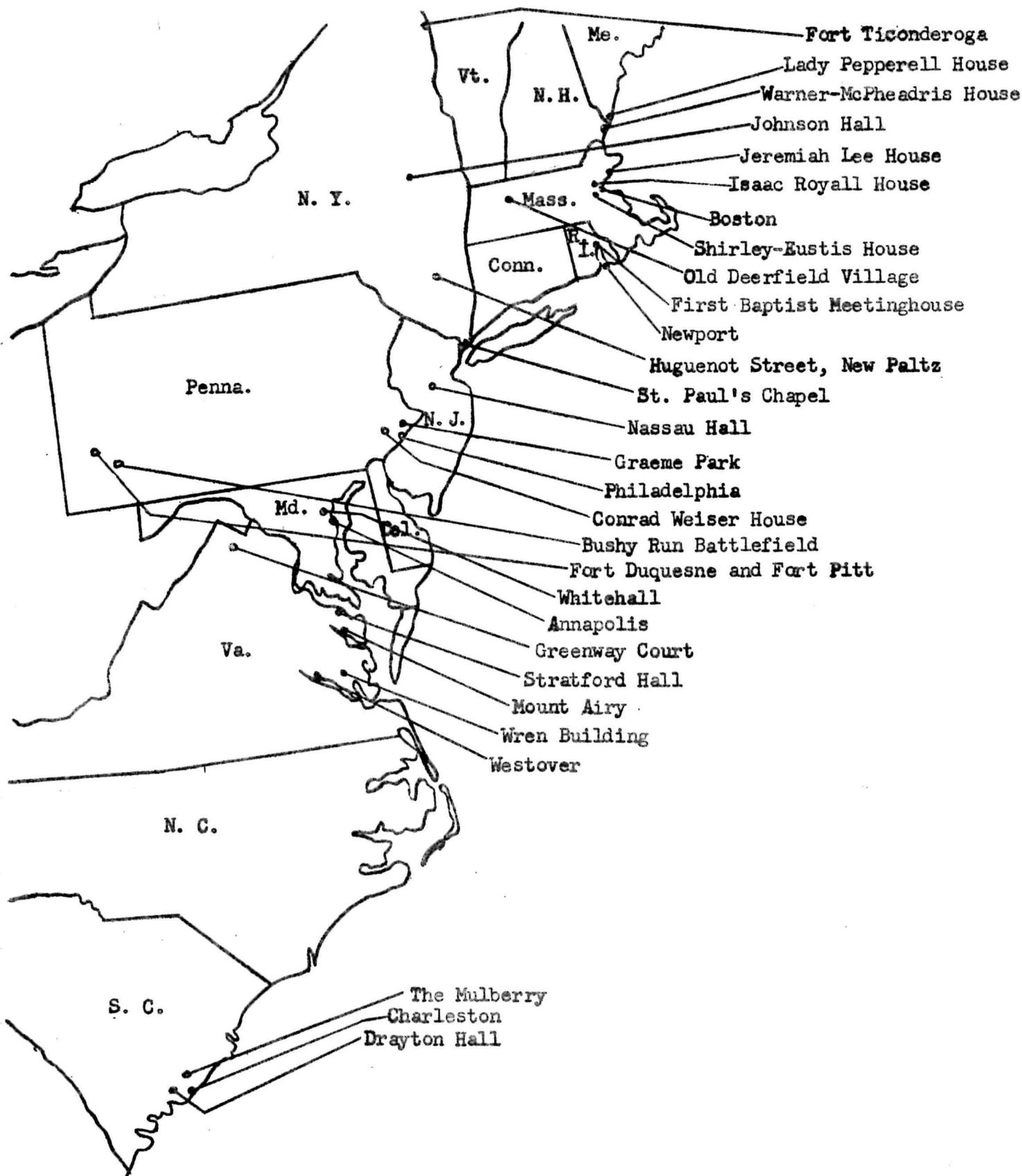
important colonial buildings of Boston and in the South. Some anxiety is felt for the future of two magnificent examples of colonial architecture, Drayton Hall and the Miles Brewton House; while a number of others -- such as Fort King George, Greenway Court, and The Exchange, in Charleston -- stand in need of restoration or development.

Criteria for Classification

In order to be designated as possessing "exceptional value as commemorating or illustrating the history of the United States," a site or building must meet at least one of the following criteria:

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 pre-historic 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 OF EXCEPTIONAL VALUE



Sites of Exceptional Value

MAINE

Lady Pepperell House

Location: Route 103, Kittery Point.

Ownership-Administration: Society for the Preservation of New England Antiquities, 141 Cambridge Street, Boston 14, Massachusetts.

Significance: A house of great architectural distinction is the fine home built at Kittery Point by the widow of Sir William Pepperell, the hero of Louisburg. Mary Pepperell was the daughter of Grove Hirst, a wealthy Boston merchant, and a granddaughter of Judge Samuel Sewall of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Her distinguished husband, the only American baronet, had commanded American land forces at the siege and capture of Louisburg, off Nova Scotia in 1745. For his valuable services in this major victory over the forces of New France, Pepperell was commissioned colonel with authority to raise and command a regiment of regulars in the British line and was given the title of baronet. By his successful business ventures he amassed a fortune estimated at a quarter of a million pounds and was known as one of the wealthiest men in the colonies. Sir William died in 1759 and around 1760 his widow built the great Georgian house in which she lived for 30 years and which today bears her name.

The house is a two-story frame structure with hip roof and two pairs of end chimneys, its whole appearance being one of handsome simplicity. Walls are clapboard and the plain facade is distinguished only by

the projecting pavilion of smooth white boards which give a masonry effect. Ionic pilasters, two stories high, frame the door. To provide space for inside shutters, the window trips, caps and sills project well forward of the wall line. The piazzas at either end are later additions.

The spacious center hall provides access to handsomely furnished rooms distinguished by great fireplaces and fine woodwork. On the first floor is the living room on the left of the hall and the drawing room on the right. Behind the living room is the dining room from which a kitchen ell extends. A large chamber is situated in the rear of the drawing room. On the second floor are five chambers, the smallest of which is located over the kitchen.

The house's furnishings are exceptionally fine and point up the dignity of the interior design and construction. Chippendale, Hepplewhite, Sheraton and Duncan Phyfe furniture, fine glass, china, handsome mirrors and paintings do much to preserve the stately atmosphere which surrounded Mary Pepperell, who weathered the storms of revolution, and, to the day of her death, demanded the deference due her former title.

Bibliography: John Meade Howells, The Architectural Heritage of the Piscataqua (New York, 1937); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952).

MARYLAND

Hammond-Harwood House

Location: Maryland Avenue and King George Street,
Annapolis.

Ownership-Administration: Hammond-Harwood House
Association.

Significance: Annapolis is a town containing many distinguished 18th century houses, of which three, the Brice, the Chase-Lloyd and the Hammond-Harwood Houses are the most notable. While all three are of the first rank architecturally, the last-named is perhaps the most valuable in terms of the present theme. Not only is it a superior example of the Georgian dwelling, but, of the three named here, each attributed to William Buckland, the Hammond-Harwood House appears to have the soundest claim to that distinction. One authority has said of Buckland's design, "Here at last, it seems, he merits the appellation of 'architect' rather than 'decorator'."¹ The writer further notes that the house marks the period of Buckland's architectural maturity achieved in the years just preceding his untimely death at the age of forty.

The house, probably completed in 1774, the year of Buckland's death, is a symmetrical building typical of Georgian houses in the area. Its five-bay center section, constructed of brick laid up in Flemish bond, is flanked by two-story wings with polygonal bays. One wing served the house's builder, Matthias Hammond, as a law office and the other housed kitchen and service rooms.

¹ Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952), p. 400.

The low-pitched hip roof and center pavilion are typical of the late Georgian period. The arched fanlight doorway is exceptionally fine and the handsome first floor dining room and second floor ballroom are notable for their wealth of carved woodwork.

As an outstanding example of period architecture and a reflection of the genius of William Buckland, the Hammond-Harwood House is a remarkable survivor of the flowering of American architecture at the end of the Colonial period. The House is well maintained as a historic house museum and is open to the public.

Bibliography: Deering Davis, Annapolis Houses, 1700-1775 (n.p., 1947); Historic American Buildings Survey (7 photos, 1936-37); Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952).

Whitehall

Location: Outskirts of Annapolis, off St. Margaret's Road, Anne Arundel County.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Superlatives become "Whitehall," not alone for its distinction of being the first colonial dwelling with temple-type portico, nor exemplar of 18th century country life in America, but as the embodiment of so many composite factors that contribute luster to a building and site. Built by Maryland's bachelor-governor, Horatio Sharpe, at the close of the French and Indian War as retreat and entertainment pavilion, it was shortly afterwards enlarged and became his residence from the time of his enforced retirement in 1769 until his return to England in 1773. Whitehall was designed and built under Sharpe's direct supervision

as was surrounding landscape development of gardens, parks, and entrance court in the shape of semi-octagon. The latter feature, capable of being fortified, undoubtedly reflected his military interests and concerns for defense. As commander of colonial forces for the protection of Virginia and adjoining colonies until superseded by Major-General Braddock, he had first-hand experience with Indian warfare and depredations on then not-distant frontiers. Sharpe was a capable civil and military administrator, but his Whitehall plantation recalls other roles, those of gentleman-farmer, fancier of fine horses, hospitable host and friend to George Mason and George Washington.

Whitehall is a five-part brick house of Palladian character and of unusual length (about two hundred feet). The central block is one-room deep, placed above a basement which is exposed on the north facade only. The great portico to the south opens into a salon or great hall that extends through two floors. Arcaded hyphens connect with end wings covered by pyramidal roofs and projecting northward to give the effect of two-story units. Extant plans and specifications reveal that the building was designed as a seven-part composition with a half-underground kitchen extension containing a well and at the other end an unique water closet development just off the bedroom wing. Archeological studies indicate that the kitchen addition was built as planned, though the corresponding section was apparently never carried out. However, an unusual cistern (fed by rain water from the roofs) was incorporated into the foundation of the original unit and extended under the portico and across the

entire central block, apparently anticipating some such development. Archeological researches established another remarkable detail in the carved, sanded, and painted presentment of the great seal of Maryland placed in the pediment of the river front. Archeological activity likewise uncovered the ruins of the Whitehall brick kiln at the river landing.

Whitehall is an outstanding achievement in colonial design and elaboration of detail. All the more remarkable is documentation concerning the architect and a few of the craftsmen associated with its construction. This mansion is key to the career of Joseph Horatio Anderson: Anderson's plans in the possession of the owner have been characterized by Fiske Kimball the most professional he knew from the hands of a 18th century American designer (Jefferson's early drawings for "Monticello" excepted). A notable sketch in the same group, concerning design and placement of carved ornaments in the Great Hall, is attributed to William Buckland. Buckland is credited with supplying the delicate Corinthian caps, the rich entablature and the exuberant and refined woodwork of the interior. John Rawlins, newly-settled in Annapolis from London, executed the elaborate plaster cornices, enriched with color and gilt.

The exterior appearance of Whitehall was restored in 1957 following painstaking studies. Original acreage is nearly intact.

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; Waterman, Dwellings of Colonial America; Historic American Buildings Survey, 6 photographs, 1936.

MASSACHUSETTS

Christ Church

Location: Garden Street, opposite George Washington Memorial Gateway, Cambridge.

Ownership-Administration: Church property.

Significance: This superb church, at once warm and dignified, is a memorable evocation of 18th century America in the last years of British rule. Designer of the building was the great Peter Harrison, approaching the peak of his powers when the church was constructed in 1759-61. The exterior is dominated by a simple squat wooden tower, topped by a commonplace cruciform belfry with some lunette windows on the front and sides. The side walls of rusticated planking are low as the church has no interior galleries. A row of seven arched windows of plain glass, topped by a Roman Doric cornice, relieve the plainness of each side.

The simple exterior is in sharp contrast to the great charm and beauty of the interior. Six Ionic columns along each side support the ceiling over the aisles. The recessed ceiling over the nave curves up to a flat panel from which are suspended five crystal chandeliers given in memory of the daughter of Woodrow Wilson. The windows have heavy two-piece slatted shutters on the inside which, when folded back, partly cover the pilasters between the windows. The interior originally was almost square until the nave was lengthened by the addition of two bays in 1857.

The finest surviving original feature is the organ loft although

tradition has it that the original lead organ pipes were melted into bullets during the Revolution. Early in the Revolution most of the loyal Anglican congregation departed with the Royal army when Boston was evacuated by the British. After Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga in October 1777, his captive army was held for a time in Cambridge. A young British officer was killed and his funeral held in Christ Church. During the service a mob attacked and heavily damaged the church and not until 1790 were services resumed in the building. Modern restoration has been most conscientious and later interior features are in keeping with the period of the church's original construction.

Bibliography: Historic American Buildings Survey (8 sheets, 1934; 4 photos, 1934); George F. Marlowe, Churches of Old New England (New York, 1947); Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Edward F. Rines, Old Historic Churches of America (New York, 1936).

Faneuil Hall

Location: Dock Square, Boston.

Ownership-Administration: City of Boston, Real Property Department, City Hall Annex, Boston.

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

American freedom. The original Hall was given to Boston by Peter Faneuil, a wealthy merchant of the city, to serve as a public market. Perhaps to allay opposition to the market, Faneuil arranged for a room above the market place to serve for town meetings and municipal purposes. The building was designed by John Smibert, a noted painter turned amateur architect. Originally two stories high, 40 feet by 100 feet, the Hall was Georgian in style with open arcades to the public market on the ground floor. The large center cupola on the roof was topped by the famous weather vane, a huge grasshopper with green glass eyes and long antennae. The Hall was destroyed by fire on January 17, 1761, with only its brick walls remaining. It was rebuilt a short time later and became the scene of many of the mass meetings which were the prelude to revolution. The building was tripled in size by Charles Bullfinch in 1805-06 and a third story was added. The cupola also was moved to the east end of the building and a series of barrel shaped dormers were added. The whole was reconstructed according to the Bullfinch plan in 1898-99.

Bibliography: Historic American Buildings Survey, 3 sheets and 6 photographs, 1935, 1937; Edwin W. Small, Boston Shrines Sites Survey card, March 5, 1956; Rogers W. Young, "Preliminary Survey of Historic Sites in Boston," Ms. National Park Service report, July 17, 1951; Morrison, op. cit.

Isaac Royall House

Location: 15 George Street, Medford.

Ownership-Administration: Royall House Association,
15 George Street, Medford.

Significance: "Few houses in Colonial history possess the interest of this one and the Royall House stands unique and distinctive among the many Colonial houses of the period."² This evaluation of almost a half century ago, although perhaps overly enthusiastic, is nevertheless clear evidence of the high place long accorded this outstanding house of the 18th century. The building actually had its origins in the middle of the 17th century when, in its original form, it was two and a half stories high and one room in depth. The house was purchased by Isaac Royall, a wealthy merchant of Antigua, in 1732 and extensively remodeled in 1732-33. At this time the original structure became, in effect, a house within a house when a full third floor was added and the original brick work encased in clapboard distinguished by profuse architectural detail. Out-buildings, including a brick slaves' quarters, were erected at the same time.

Royall's son came into possession of the house in 1739 and between 1747 and 1750 greatly enlarged it. The depth of the house was more than doubled, the end walls extended correspondingly, and great twin chimneys constructed at either end of the house. Outstanding feature of the present facade is the tall windows which strikingly emphasize the vertical lines of the house. Other notable exterior features are the rusticated wood siding and immense pilasters on the west facade. The interior of the house is marked by rich full-height paneling, pilasters and fine tile work. In all its rich detail, the house reflects the wealth and position of its owner.

² M. H. Northend, Historic Homes of New England (Boston, 1914), p. 229.

The younger Royall, a Loyalist, fled the country at the outbreak of the Revolution and his estate was confiscated, serving at various times as headquarters for American officers, among them General John Stark. The house was returned to the Royall heirs in 1790, and they in turn sold it to a syndicate. Since 1905 the house has been maintained as a historic house museum by the Royall House Association and is open to the public on a seasonal schedule.

Bibliography; Fiske Kimball, Domestic Architecture of the American Colonies and of the Early Republic (New York, 1922); Historic American Buildings Survey (5 photo copies); Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Northend, Historic Homes of New England (Boston, 1914).

Jeremiah Lee House

Location: Washington Street, opposite Mason Street, Marblehead.

Ownership-Administration: Marblehead Historical Society, Marblehead.

Significance: One of the finest surviving examples of Colonial architecture, this mansion exemplifies the wealth and position of the New England merchant princes whose ships plied the world's oceans and seas in the 18th century.

Colonel Jeremiah Lee came to America in the early part of the 18th century. By 1760 he had become one of Marblehead's most prominent citizens and his handsome home was the center of the town's social life. Originally a Loyalist, Lee early took up the Colonial cause and played a leading role in Massachusetts' preparation for war with the Mother Country, although he died shortly after the outbreak of hostilities.

Lee's fine three story house was constructed in 1768 of pine timbers and brick, over which were placed rusticated clapboards which gave to the building's exterior the appearance of masonry. The line of the facade is somewhat plain, broken only by a simple portico of two fluted Ionic columns. Surmounting the hip roof are two massive chimneys and a cupola from which Colonel Lee could watch for incoming ships. The interior contains a wealth of intricate wood carving in its fifteen rooms. Some of the original wallpaper remains and careful restoration has preserved to a remarkable extent the magnificent features of construction and decoration which characterized the house when it was home to a wealthy merchant and civic leader of 18th century New England.

Bibliography: Fiske Kimball, Domestic Architecture of the American Colonies and of the Early Republic (New York, 1922); Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Mary H. Northend, Historic Homes of New England (Boston, 1914).

King's Chapel

Location: Tremont and School Street, Boston.

Ownership-Administration: King's Chapel Unitarian Church.

Significance: Designed by Peter Harrison and built 1749-54, King's Chapel is called by Morrison the "masterpiece" of the noted colonial architect. The interior, according to Morrison, "is without question the finest of Georgian church architecture in the colonies."³ A unique feature is the use of giant Corinthian columns in pairs, projecting in

³ Morrison, op. cit., p. 452.

front of the gallery fronts; every other major Georgian church in the colonies used single columns uniformly spaced. The projected church spire was never built, and so the exterior lacks the sophisticated charm of the interior.

Bibliography: Edwin W. Small, Boston Shrines Preliminary Survey card, March 7, 1956; Young, "Preliminary Survey"; Morrison, op. cit.; Carl Bridenbaugh, Peter Harrison, First American Architect (Chapel Hill, 1949).

Massachusetts Hall

Location: Harvard University, Cambridge.

Ownership-Administration: Harvard University.

Significance: Massachusetts Hall, erected in 1718-1720, is the oldest surviving building of the first Colonial institution for higher learning. As such, it possesses great significance, not only in the history of American education but in the story of the developing English colonies of the 18th century.

Harvard College was established in 1636 although it did not receive its name and begin its active existence until two years later. While the founding and early years of the college belong to the 17th century, Massachusetts Hall, built in the early years of the 18th century, notably exemplifies the striving for intellectual development and the first groping toward educational liberalism in the century which saw the colonies become the United States of America. The college was to supply clergymen for the colonies but its graduates entered all walks of colonial life. Its liberal arts course was patterned on that of Oxford and Cambridge and both of those institutions recognized Harvard degrees. The college was

the site of the first laboratory for experimental physics prior to the Revolution and it developed a strong curriculum in mathematics and physical sciences. While most of its students in the 18th century were from New England, the college rolls show a scattering of young men from the other colonies, Bermuda and the West Indies.

Massachusetts Hall was designed by Harvard President John Leverett and Benjamin Wadsworth. Originally it was a dormitory containing 32 chambers and a small private study for the 64 students which it was designed to house. During the siege of Boston 640 British soldiers were quartered in the Hall until the evacuation of Boston. Much of the building's interior woodwork and hardware, including brass door knobs, disappeared at this time. The building is three stories high with a fourth story under the broad gambrel roof. "The walls are plainly treated, marked only by brick belt courses between stories; the brick masonry is laid in English bond below the water table and in Flemish bond above, except at the ends where there is a mixture of English and common bonds. The simple mass and heavy woodwork of the windows give a very satisfactory effect of solidity, and it is this effect -- an early Georgian simplicity and weight -- which has been sought (not always successfully) in the recent buildings of Harvard."⁴

Bibliography: Edwin W. Small, Sites Survey card, Aug. 17, 1956; Morrison, op. cit.; Samuel E. Morison, Three Centuries of Harvard, 1638-1936 (Cambridge, 1936).

⁴ Morrison, op. cit., p. 463.

Old Deerfield Village
(Historic District)

Location: Deerfield, off U. S. Route 5 and State Route 10, Franklin County.

Ownership-Administration: Private homes and houses owned and administered by the Deerfield Heritage Foundation and the Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association, Deerfield.

Significance: At the opening of the 18th century, Deerfield was the outpost of New England's northwestern frontier, having been laid out in 1666 and settled a few years later. Savage French and Indian raids in 1675 and 1704 laid waste to the town but each time it was rebuilt. The massacre of 1704, the most tragically memorable event in the town's history, was a major American episode in Queen Anne's War, 1702-1713 -- one of the series of struggles between France and England which were finally to determine British supremacy in North America. Deerfield today is perhaps the outstanding historical survivor of the savage warfare that characterized the early struggle of the colonies to extend their frontiers westward. In 1703, to prevent a possible peace treaty between the Abenaki Indians and the English, French Governor de Vaudreuil, in Canada, offered to support the Indians in an attack on an English frontier town. The Indians accepted the alliance and in the dead of winter, the war party of 200 French regulars and 142 Indians set out for Deerfield, the northernmost colonial outpost on the Connecticut River. At day-break on February 29, 1704, the party swooped down on Deerfield, surprising the sentries and throwing open the stockade which guarded the village. The struggle continued for five hours and the surviving villagers were



⁴⁸⁵⁸⁹ OLD DEERFIELD VILLAGE, Massachusetts - The scene of a terrible massacre in 1704, during Queen Anne's War. A part of the Frary House, shown here, is believed to have been standing at the time.

March 19, 1958

National Park Service photograph

saved only by timely reinforcements from towns to the south. The French and Indian forces retired toward Canada taking with them 112 prisoners, men, women and children, many of whom were later returned. Almost half the town's houses had been looted and burned and over half its inhabitants killed or made prisoner. In 1706 a number of the former inhabitants returned and Deerfield was reborn. Many buildings of the 18th century remain and today virtually the entire village has been restored to its colonial appearance. One entire street, a mile long, contains none but old houses, most of which date from the period of Deerfield's rebuilding after the 1704 raid. The town is one of the most effective community restorations in America and its authentic preservation and interpretation of New England frontier life make it a site of major significance in the nation's historical heritage. Among the surviving dwellings is the Frary House, part of which is believed to have survived the massacre of 1704. A museum tells the story of early Deerfield and preserves many of the relics relating to its colorful history.

Bibliography: Samuel Chamberlain and Henry Flynt, Frontier of Freedom: the Soul and Substance of America, Portrayed in One Extraordinary Village, Old Deerfield, Massachusetts (New York, 1952). Brief History of Deerfield, guide pamphlet, n. p., n. d.; Francis Parkman, A Half-Century of Conflict (2 vols., Boston, 1892).

Old South Meeting House

Location: Milk and Washington Streets, Boston.

Ownership-Administration: Old South Association, Milk and Washington Streets, Boston.

Significance: Old South Meeting House was the scene of many notable protest meetings prior to the Revolution, including the meeting which led to the Boston Tea Party the night of December 16, 1773. It stands today as a revered symbol of the spirit of Colonial resistance which reached its culmination in the War for Independence.

The following description is quoted from Edwin W. Small, Boston Shrines Preliminary Survey Card, dated March 5, 1956: "Designed by Robert Twelves and erected 1729-30 by Joshua Blanchard, the master mason who later built the Thomas Hancock House on Beacon Hill and the original Faneuil Hall. Brick masonry laid in Flemish bond. Much influenced externally by the Old North Church with two tiers of arched windows and projecting tower in front. Spire, however, stems from an octagonal rather than square base. Inside retained 17th century meeting house plan of side-entrance and pulpit with sounding board on middle opposite long side. Gallery around other three sides. Interior torn out and used as riding school by British troops during siege of Boston. Restored 1783, with a second gallery subsequently added for Negro slaves. Used by South Church (Third) congregation until partly damaged in the great fire of 1872. Saving the structure from demolition by raising over \$500,000 through public subscription, 1876-77, a notable achievement in the cause of historical

preservation in America. Building and land were bought by women of the state and the Old South Association, a specially chartered corporation to preserve it, was founded. Loan collection of important historical objects on display."

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; John C. Miller, Origins of the American Revolution (New York, 1943); Edwin W. Small, Boston Shrines Sites Survey Card, March 5, 1956; Young, "Preliminary Survey."

Old State House (Second Town House)

Location: Washington and State Streets, Boston.

Ownership-Administration: City of Boston, Real Property Department, City Hall Annex, Boston.

Significance: This structure is one of the oldest American public buildings of foremost historical significance, and almost without question the earliest of the Georgian period other than those reconstructed at Colonial Williamsburg.

The building was erected in 1712-13 on the site of the first Boston Town House and was almost completely destroyed by fire on December 9, 1747. Only its brick walls remain standing. The structure was rebuilt in 1748 in "full-blown Georgian style. Freestanding in the middle of King Street." The State House was the seat of the royal government of the province of Massachusetts and the meeting place for Colonial courts as well as for civic and military affairs. Here in February 1761, James Otis aroused the spirit of liberty in his impassioned argument against the legality of the writs of assistance. Said John Adams, "American independence was then and there born; the seeds of patriots and heroes were then and there sown. . . ." With the outbreak of the Revolution the

building became the State House, serving as such from 1776 to 1797. It was thereafter used for public purposes except for the decade from 1830 to 1840 when it served as Boston's City Hall.

Restoration of the building in 1882 has been the subject of much criticism from architectural historians. The restoration employed architectural features of post-Revolutionary style and the building is today an inaccurate reflection of the period of its greatest historical significance, 1748-1775.

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; Charles F. Read, "The Old State House and Its Predecessor, The First Town House," Proceedings of the Bostonian Society (Boston, 1908); Edwin W. Small, Boston Shrines Sites Survey card, Feb. 29, 1956.

Shirley-Eustis House

Location: 31-37 Shirley Street, Roxbury.

Ownership-Administration: Shirley-Eustis House Association, c/o Director, Society for the Preservation of New England Antiquities, 141 Cambridge Street, Boston.

This house has been called "one of the most formal and imposing houses of the eighteenth century,"⁵ and in addition to its importance as the home of a leader of Colonial America, the structure has considerable value as an architectural legacy.

William Shirley was a foremost leader in the Colonies in the generation preceding the Revolution. He was Governor of Massachusetts from 1741 to 1756 and his imposing home was built around 1747, becoming

⁵ Morrison, op. cit., 484.

a colonial showplace comparable to the later Mount Vernon. While Governor, Shirley personally organized the expedition which captured the French fortress of Louisburg in 1745 and after the death of British General Braddock in 1755, was named Commander of British forces in North America. In 1761, he was appointed Governor of the Bahamas and returned to Massachusetts in 1767. He died at his home on March 24, 1771.

The house was confiscated during the Revolution and used by the patriots as a barrack and hospital during the military siege of Boston. It was purchased by Dr. William Eustis in 1819 and altered by him. Eustis had been a surgeon in the Revolutionary war and was twice elected Governor of Massachusetts.

The building, originally Georgian in design, is a four-story square frame structure, with dormer windows and cupola. Facades are adorned by giant pilasters, the first in New England except for the Hutchinson House in Boston. The salon, two stories high, was used for state banquets and receptions, and the high stone basement contained kitchens and offices. The house was sold around 1867 and moved 30 feet in order to lay out Shirley Street. Before it was rescued by the Shirley House Association, the house had been cut up into tenements. In recent years, the house has been kept in a state of temporary repair pending definite plans for restoration. The possibility of its use as the Massachusetts Governor's Mansion has been mentioned.

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; W. W. Cordingley, "Shirley Place, Roxbury, Massachusetts, and Governor William Shirley, "Old Time New England, XII (October, 1921); Edwin W. Small, Boston Shrines Sites Survey card, March 15, 1956.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Warner-McPheadris House

Location: Corner of Chapel and Daniel Streets,
Portsmouth.

Ownership-Administration: The Warner House Association,
Portsmouth.

Significance: Called by one authority "the most typical of the better kind of early Georgian residences in New England."⁶ This house was built in 1718-23 by Captain Archibald McPheadris, wealthy Scottish fur trader and iron manufacturer.

The mansion is three stories high with brick walls 18 inches thick. The brick work is exposed except on the south end wall which is clapboarded. The exterior is plain but dignified, with the fine 12-panel door being the most distinctive feature. Beneath the present roof, topped by balustrades and cupola, have been discovered two parallel gabled roofs which originally covered the house. The deep cleft between these parallel roofs was later covered by a low-pitched roof to make the present gambrel treatment.

The interior arrangement is on the center hall plan. On the ground floor the kitchen and dining room are on one side of the hall and the parlor and small chamber on the other. A small scullery extends

⁶ Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952), 478.

from the rear of the kitchen.

The house is commonly known in Portsmouth as the Warner House for the Hon. Jonathan Warner who married Captain Mcpheadris' daughter. The house remained in the Warner family for many years and is now maintained by the Warner House Association.

Bibliography: John Meade Howells, Architectural Heritage of the Piscataqua (New York, 1937); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); M. H. Northend, Historic Homes of New England (Boston, 1914).

NEW JERSEY

Nassau Hall

Location: Princeton University, Princeton.

Ownership-Administration: Princeton University.

Significance: Nassau Hall was the first important college building of the middle Atlantic colonies and was the first permanent building of Princeton University, founded in 1746 as the College of New Jersey.

Although established by Presbyterian churchmen, the college was not intended solely for the education of clergymen, and the founders emphasized that freedom of religious sentiment was a principle to be observed at the new institution. In 1752 the college was established at Princeton and two years later ground was broken for the college building. In the fall of 1756, seventy undergraduates moved into Nassau Hall, named to honor the memory of King William III of the House of Nassau.

For almost a half-century thereafter, Nassau Hall was the college -- providing dormitory, dining room, chapel and classroom facilities.

During the Revolution, Nassau Hall was a barracks and hospital for both American and British troops. The Hall was the scene of the last stand by the British in the battle of Princeton. From June to November, 1783, the Continental Congress convened in Nassau Hall, receiving there the news of the signing of the treaty ending the Revolutionary War. Here also was received the first Minister accredited to the new nation. In the course of its history, the Hall has been visited by scores of distinguished public figures including Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Lafayette, the Adamses and virtually every President of the United States.

The building was designed by Robert Smith and Dr. William Shippen of the Carpenters Company of Philadelphia. "The facade, 170 feet in length, was broken by a central pavilion topped by a pediment, and three doors led to corridors separating the various classrooms and offices. Walls were built of brownstone dug from a nearby quarry and were left unadorned except for the quoined and corniced entrances and the keyed flared arch lintels of the windows on the first two stories. A low-pitched hipped roof, crowned by a cupola and many chimneys, covered the dominantly horizontal mass. Simple, solid, and reposeful, it was an impressive building and seems to have set the pattern for later college buildings such as Harvard's Hollis Hall (1762-3), University Hall at Brown (1770-71),

and Dartmouth Hall (1784-91). Nassau Hall suffered some damage during the Battle of Princeton, and again in fires of 1802 and 1855. After the latter, the building was remodeled and its fine horizontal lines destroyed by an excessively lofty cupola."⁷

As an outstanding example of the growth of educational facilities in the colonies and as the principal edifice of an institution which has played a major role in the cultural growth of the nation, Nassau Hall is a notable historical resource.

Bibliography: Historic American Buildings Survey, 2 photographs, 1936; Morrison, op. cit.; Princeton University Department of Public Information, "Facts About Princeton," 1957-58.

NEW YORK

Fort Ticonderoga

Location: Ticonderoga, off State Routes 8 and 9N, Essex County.

Ownership-Administration: Fort Ticonderoga Association, Ticonderoga.

Significance: Fort Ticonderoga, at the junction of Lake Champlain and Lake George, was in the 18th century the key to both Canada and the Hudson Valley.

The first military post on the site was Fort Vaudreuil, later Carillon, built by the French, 1755-1757. On July 8, 1758, an army of British regulars and Colonial troops attacked the fort and was repulsed

⁷ Morrison, op. cit., 555-56.

with heavy loss. A year later British General Amherst captured the fort and renamed it Ticonderoga. Loss of Ticonderoga by the French, coupled with the relentless pressure of British forces elsewhere on the long frontier between New France and the American colonies, was a grievous blow to French defensive plans. The capture of Ticonderoga gave the British undisputed claim to the strategically important Hudson Valley.

In the years between the defeat of France in the New World and the outbreak of the Revolution, a small garrison was posted at the rebuilt fort. On May 10, 1775, a small force of Green Mountain Boys, under Ethan Allen, surprised the few British defenders of the fort, and its cannon were hauled overland to serve in the siege of Boston. The fort changed hands again when it fell to Burgoyne's British army in the summer of 1777. With Burgoyne's defeat at Saratoga, the fort again passed into American hands, was reoccupied briefly by the British in 1780 and then evacuated, never again to be garrisoned by a military force.

Ticonderoga probably saw more of the savage struggle of North America than did any other military post and its story is one of the most dramatic and colorful in American military annals. The fort has been largely restored on the basis of careful research and it constitutes today a notable achievement in historic restoration and interpretation. Among the restored remains are the great stone passages, the barracks and gun positions. A museum devoted to items of colonial life and military relics is open to visitors.

Bibliography: S. H. P. Pell, ed., Fort Ticonderoga, A Short History (1951). Hoffman Nickerson, The Turning Point of the Revolution (Boston, 1928); Francis Parkman, Montcalm and Wolfe (2 vols., Boston, 1893), Chapter XXXII, "Ticonderoga."

Huguenot Street
(Historic District)

Abraham Hasbrouck House, Louis Bevier House, Daniel du Bois House, Hugo Freer House, Jean Hasbrouck House (Memorial House).

Location: Huguenot Street, New Paltz, Ulster County.

Ownership-Administration: Jean Hasbrouck House (Memorial House) owned by Huguenot Patriotic Historical and Monumental Society, New Paltz. Other houses privately owned.

Significance: The five stone houses named above, clustered along New Paltz' Huguenot Street, constitute a remarkable picture of an early 18th century community. Huguenot settlement, Walloon and French, was a significant facet of American development in the 17th and 18th centuries and nowhere is that settlement more effectively preserved by physical remains than at New Paltz. Although the original Huguenot settlement of New Paltz dates from the latter part of the 17th century, the five houses which survive are of the early 18th century, incorporating portions of the earlier wooden houses which they replaced.

Located on the Walkill River in the Hudson Valley Dutch country, the houses have a pronounced Dutch Colonial aspect. The Jean Hasbrouck house, built around 1712 by one of the twelve original patentees of the settlement, has been preserved in original form to an unusual degree.

Its rough stone walls, topped by high, steep-pitched roof, gives it an appearance almost medieval in character. The interior is of the center hall plan, with two rooms on each side. Over the entrance door is an early shed-stoop. This house is now owned by the Huguenot Patriotic, Historical and Monumental Society and is open to the public as a historic house museum. The Abraham Hasbrouck House, built around 1717, also is relatively unaltered. Its rough-faced stone walls, gabled roof with sloping shed dormers and three chimneys, strongly reflects Dutch Colonial design.

The Daniel du Bois House was built around 1775 on the site of an earlier stone fortress, the walls of which may have been incorporated in the later dwelling. The house was enlarged and its interior altered in the 19th century. The center portion of the Bevier House, home of an original New Paltz patentee, dates from the end of the 17th century, although the house was substantially enlarged around 1735. In addition to the thick stone walls and steep pitched roof, the Freer House, built early in the 18th century, has clapboard gable windows, solid shutters, and divided door with overhang hood, common in Dutch Colonial architecture. In addition to the above houses, the Deyo house may also be mentioned, although portions of the walls of the present house are all that remain of the original structure built by Pierre Deyo, another of the New Paltz patentees. The house was extensively remodeled in the 19th century and little of its original construction was spared.

Although surrounded by the Dutch and on friendly terms with them, the Huguenot settlers of New Paltz did not intermarry with their

neighbors, and thus for many years preserved the Huguenot way of life. For fifty years all records were kept in French, then Dutch as the community integrated more closely with its neighbors, and finally English. The New Paltz settlers clung to their own customs and more remarkably their own system of land tenure and civil administration. "They were, to all intents and purposes, an independent self-governing body . . . recognized and respected so long as the Colonies remained under the British crown and permitted for some years after the Revolutionary War until, in 1785, the town was incorporated in the State government and, by special act of Legislature, the grants and petitions of the ancient local government were confirmed."⁸ The original system of government for New Paltz consisted of a council of the twelve heads of families. Later descendants of the original twelve continued to govern, exercising judicial power, allocation of land, etc. One writer has noted that, "This curious little patriarchal oligarchy has no parallel in the history of America."⁹ The plain folk who settled New Paltz may not have had the widespread influence on American social and cultural development which can be claimed for the more sophisticated Huguenot communities in Charleston and elsewhere, but nowhere is Huguenot settlement better preserved in terms of extent and integrity of physical remains than on

⁸ Harold D. Eberlein and Cortlandt van Dyke Hubbard, Historic Houses of the Hudson Valley (New York, 1942), 184.

⁹ Ibid.

Huguenot Street. Even without its Huguenot associations, the existence of five early 18th century buildings on one continuously inhabited street would justify recognition of the New Paltz community as an outstanding survivor of Colonial America. When is added the deeper significance of Huguenot Street as a haven found by European refugees, the New Paltz community may well be unique in terms of its period and historical significance.

Bibliography: Harold D. Eberlein and Cortlandt van Dyke Hubbard, Historic Houses of the Hudson Valley (New York, 1942); Historic American Buildings Survey: Bevier - Etting Houses (11 sheets, 1934); 3 photos, 1910, 1937, 1940); Freer House (8 sheets, 1934; 4 photos, 1934, 1940); Jean Hasbrouck House (15 sheets, 1940; 20 photos, 1937, 1940); Abraham Hasbrouck House (2 photos, 1940); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952).

Johnson Hall

Location: Johnstown, on Hall Street, one-quarter mile north of intersection with State Route 29, Fulton County.

Ownership-Administration: State of New York, Department of Education, Albany.

Significance: Johnson Hall, built in 1763, was for the last eleven years of his life the home of Sir William Johnson, superintendent of Indian affairs for the northern colonies and the foremost frontier leader of pre-Revolutionary New York. Johnson's powerful influence on the Indians of the Six Nations was of major significance in the defeat of French power in North America and in the westward advance of the English colonies. Johnson Hall was the center of British rule on the New York frontier and was one of the most elaborate estates in the northern colonies. Here were made many of the most important Indian treaties of the



JOHNSON HALL, New York - The last and most imposing home of Sir William Johnson, northern Indian agent ⁴⁸⁵⁸⁹ and a foremost leader of colonial New York. At left is the survivor of a pair of blockhouses which once flanked the house.

March 22, 1958

National Park Service photograph

period, and here Johnson entertained important officials from the colonies and from abroad. He died here in 1774 during a conference with the Iroquois.

The house has undergone extensive repair and is in excellent condition. It is a rectangular frame building in Georgian style, with two stories, basement and attic. The interior has been faithfully restored with furnishings which include a room of pieces belonging to the Johnson family. An inventory of the furnishings taken three weeks after Johnson's death has made possible a highly authentic interior restoration. The surviving block house adjacent to the Hall is one of two which guarded Johnson's home.

Bibliography: Melvin J. Weig, "Johnson Hall, New York," Ms. National Park Service Report, Oct. 1, 1937; Historic American Buildings Survey, 16 photographs, 1936, 1940; Arthur Pound and Richard Day, Johnson of the Mohawks (New York, 1930).

St. Paul's Chapel

Location: Broadway between Fulton and Vesey Streets, New York City.

Ownership-Administration: Trinity Parish, New York City.

Significance: This sole surviving church of New York City's Colonial era stands serene among the skyscrapers of the modern city, "a magnificent example of Georgian architecture."¹⁰ The building was erected in 1764-6 and was originally intended to serve as the chapel of First

¹⁰ Edward F. Rines, Old Historic Churches of America (New York, 1936), 139.

Trinity Church, destroyed in the great fire of 1776, a few days after the British occupation of New York. When the chapel was constructed, the congregation had some misgivings over the vestry's plan for so ambitious a project in a location then far removed from the settled area of the city.

The chapel was designed by Thomas McBean who took his inspiration from London's St. Martin's-in-the-Fields. The body of the church, distinguished by two tiers of arched windows, also resembled King's Chapel in Boston and St. Michael's in Charleston. The Ionic columned portico and spire were added to the chapel in 1794-96 when the chancel was extended. The 220-foot spire was the work of architect James C. Lawrence.

The spacious interior is a center barrel vault supported by slender columns, and with a gallery and gallery vaults on each side. The nave has been described by one architectural historian as second only to that in King's Chapel, Boston.¹¹ The building is steeped in the history of Colonial America and the early days of the Republic. New York's Royal Governor had his pew in the chapel as did Lord Howe, Major John Andre and other officers of the British army of occupation. A painting of the arms of the United States hangs above the pew of George Washington. After Washington's first inauguration, April 30, 1789, the Congress accompanied the President to St. Paul's for a special service.

¹¹ Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952), 554.

In 1950, the Church was restored to its Colonial appearance at a cost of \$200,000. The wooden spire was reinforced with steel and the interior of the Church was painted in white, gold and heaven blue. Fourteen glass chandeliers from Waterford, Ireland, hang from the vaulted ceiling.

Bibliography: Aymar Embury, Early American Churches (New York, 1914); Historic American Buildings Survey (37 photos, 1937); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Edward F. Rines, Old Historic Churches of America (New York, 1936).

PENNSYLVANIA

Bushy Run Battlefield

Location: Bushy Run Battlefield State Park, near Harrison City, on Pennsylvania Route 993, Westmoreland County.

Ownership-Administration: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Forests and Waters, Harrisburg.

Significance: The Battle of Bushy Run was a decisive English victory in the most determined and dangerous Indian attack on the colonial frontier in the 18th century. Often called "Pontiac's Conspiracy" or "Rebellion," the uprising threatened for a time to throw the white frontiers back on the Atlantic. When the Indians struck in the spring of 1763, the frontier posts fell one by one, and within a few weeks, along a thousand miles of frontier, only Forts Niagara, Detroit and Pitt held out. British General Henry Bouquet, with a small army of regular troops, was ordered to march to the relief of Fort Pitt. At Bushy Run, about 25 miles east of Fort Pitt, he met a strong force of Indians and

in a bitter, two-day battle on August 5-6, 1763, decisively defeated them, demonstrating that, properly led, British regulars could defeat the Indians at their own brand of warfare. Four days after his victory at Bushy Run, Bouquet lifted the siege of Fort Pitt and made the western frontier comparatively safe for the thousands of settlers who in a short time would be moving toward the Ohio country. Bushy Run was a major stroke in halting the spread of Indian attack into the middle colonies and in laying the groundwork for the subsequent campaign into the Ohio country which was a decisive factor in bringing the uprising to an end. A state park now encompasses 162 acres of the battlefield.

Bibliography: Francis Parkman, The Conspiracy of Pontiac (2 vols., Boston, 1851); Ray A. Billington, Westward Expansion: A History of the American Frontier (New York, 1949; Howard H. Peckham, Pontiac and the Indian Uprising (Princeton, 1947).

Conrad Weiser House

Location: Conrad Weiser State Memorial Park, near Womelsdorf, U. S. Route 422, Berks County.

Ownership-Administration: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Historical and Museum Commission, Harrisburg.

Significance: Conrad Weiser's contribution to the development of the English Colonies in the 18th century was one of great significance although his important role has been somewhat neglected. Weiser came to America from Germany in 1710 when he was about fourteen years old. As a youth he spent much time among the Indians of western New York learning their customs and language. In 1729, he moved to Pennsylvania and

prospered as a farmer. His appreciation of Indian affairs and knowledge of Indian languages were probably unequalled in the colonies and his efforts were of great significance in winning the support of the Iroquois for the Penns. He then cemented the Iroquois alliance although this was accomplished at the expense of alienating the Delawares and the Shawnee. Weiser saw the Indian problem as one common to all the Indian colonies and he saw its solution on a colony-wide rather than a provincial basis. He helped avert war between Virginia and the Iroquois in 1743, and his influence with the red men marked a shifting of direction of Indian affairs from New York to Pennsylvania. By the Treaty of Logstown in 1748, Weiser won over the west tribes, thereby extending Pennsylvania's Indian trade to the Mississippi. With the death of one of his close Indian allies in 1748, Weiser lost his commanding position as a "backwoods diplomat" although he remained one of the best of the Indian interpreters until his death. Weiser's later career lacked the major significance of his earlier work but the Indian alliances he had done so much to form were a decisive factor in England's victory over France in the climactic struggle for North America. Weiser died on July 13, 1760, leaving behind him a long career of valuable service to the developing English colonies.

In Conrad Weiser Memorial Park is preserved the restored house built by Weiser in 1751 on his Womelsdorf plantation. The graves of Weiser, his wife and a number of his Indian associates are nearby. The

house currently serves as a small museum but it has no significant collections of Weiser material. In addition to the main house, the original Weiser spring house and other outbuildings have been maintained.

Bibliography: Paul A. W. Wallace, Conrad Weiser, 1696-1760, Friend of Colonist and Mohawk (Philadelphia, 1945); Conrad Weiser Park, pamphlet published by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania (Harrisburg, 1956); J. S. Walton, Conrad Weiser and the Indian Policy of Colonial Pennsylvania (Philadelphia, 1900).

Elfreth's Alley
(Historic District)

Location: Between Front and Second Streets, north of Arch Street, Philadelphia.

Ownership-Administration: Individual private owners; development administered by Elfreth's Alley Association, Inc., Philadelphia.

Significance: Elfreth's Alley, the oldest complete and continuously inhabited street in Philadelphia, and possibly in the country, is a remarkable and almost unique survival of Colonial America's largest city.

Here in the heart of modern Philadelphia, a short distance from the Delaware River and surrounded by modern commercial structures, is a street six feet wide, from curb to curb, whose 33 brick houses are venerable survivors of the town that Benjamin Franklin knew. For more than 250 years Elfreth's Alley has been home to Philadelphians from the period of the Penns down to the present. The alleys of Colonial Philadelphia were narrow passageways through the blocks formed by the wide streets that William Penn planned for the city. The earliest house in Elfreth's Alley is believed to date from 1694.

The Alley's population today numbers almost 100 persons. Many of its houses have been or are being restored; some have been saved from razing only by the vigorous action of the Elfreth's Alley Association. The houses, of two and three stories, are typical urban dwellings of the period with their facades flush on the sidewalk, low ceilings and deep cellars. No events of major historical importance ever occurred in the Alley although a signer of the Declaration of Independence, John Clymer, once owned a house there. The Alley is significant as a remarkable "living remnant" of colonial America where Americans of today may see in an unexploited, authentic atmosphere, a segment of life in the colonial city of the 18th century.

Bibliography: Hugh Scott, "Elfreth's Alley Wants to Live," Philadelphia Inquirer Magazine, January 26, 1958. Cornelius Vanderbilt, Jr., The Living Past of America (New York, 1955). Historic American Buildings Survey (19 sheets, 1940, from Survey, Philadelphia Chapter, American Institute of Architects, 1931); Grant M. Simon, The Beginnings of Philadelphia in the Province of Pennsylvania, 1682 (Philadelphia, 1957).

Fort Duquesne and Fort Pitt

Location: Point State Park, confluence of Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers, Pittsburgh.

Ownership-Administration: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Forests and Waters, Harrisburg. Blockhouse owned and administered by Allegheny Chapter, D. A. R.

Significance: This strategic site, at the confluence of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, witnessed the outbreak of the French and Indian War and later played an important part in the American Revolution and the opening of the Ohio frontier. The first outpost, begun by an

English force in 1754, was seized by the French before completion. They finished it and named it Fort Duquesne. Duquesne gave the French control of the Ohio River and was the keystone of their defense line in the west. Washington was advancing to the forks of the Ohio when he learned of the French move and fell back to make his unsuccessful defense of Fort Necessity. Fort Duquesne was also the objective of Braddock's ill-fated expedition of 1755. In 1758, British and colonial forces under General Forbes marched to the forks, to find Fort Duquesne destroyed and abandoned by the French. Approximately 200 yards from Fort Duquesne, the British built Fort Pitt. During Pontiac's Conspiracy in 1763, Fort Pitt was one of the few frontier posts to hold out. It became an outpost of great importance in the opening of the Ohio frontier, as a starting point for thousands of frontier settlers. The town of Pittsburgh grew up under the shelter of the fort. Occupied by Continental troops during the Revolution, the fort was finally abandoned in 1790.

A few years ago the point of land on which Forts Duquesne and Pitt had stood was buried beneath commercial buildings and railroad tracks. Happily, this situation is disappearing, thanks to development of the new Point State Park. The "Point" area has been virtually cleared of artificial intrusions which at one time buried the fort sites. The railroad yards and commercial buildings are gone although portions of the site are still obscured by heavily travelled roadways which give access to the Point and Manchester bridges over the Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers, respectively. The approximate site of Fort Duquesne is partially covered

by bridge ramps, but the in progress relocation of the bridges to a point higher up on the Triangle will free the site for full investigation. The site of Fort Pitt was the subject of intensive archeological investigation in 1942-43, and sufficient underground evidence was found to define with considerable accuracy the outlines and features of the fort. The brick Blockhouse is in good condition and is open to the public.

The proposed development of the Point calls for the establishment of a 36-acre state park and reconstruction of one of the fort's bastions. The park will include a historical museum on the fort site and the area will be planted in trees of the variety common to the virgin wilderness which surrounded the Forks of the Ohio 200 years ago. The Point State Park is a project of the Pennsylvania Department of Forests and Waters.

A more detailed treatment of this site will be found in the study for Theme XI, The Advance of the Frontier, 1763-1830, under the heading, "The Forks of the Ohio."

Bibliography: G. Dallas Albert, The Frontier Forts of Western Pennsylvania, vol. 2 of Report of the Commission to Locate the Site of the Frontier Forts of Pennsylvania (Harrisburg, 1916); John P. Cowan, "Fort Pitt, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (Ms. Report, National Park Service, 1937); Mary C. Darlington, Fort Pitt and Letters from the Frontier (Pittsburgh, 1892); "Part One of the Report of the Point Park Commission," (Mimeo., Pittsburgh, 1943); "Report on Forests and Waters: Land and People." (Brochure of the Pennsylvania Department of Forests and Waters, n. p., 1958).

Graeme Park

Location: Graeme Park, Keith Valley Road, Horsham.

Ownership-Administration: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania,
Historical and Museum Commission, Harrisburg.

Significance: This great Pennsylvania field stone house, about twenty-five miles north of central Philadelphia, is one of the most distinguished architectural examples in a region rich in fine 18th century houses. In addition to its architectural significance, the house has been traditionally identified as the home of Sir William Keith, Royal Governor of the colony from 1717 to 1726, although recent investigation suggests that the building was originally constructed as a malt house, part of an industrial settlement planned by Keith for the production of grain. The present house was but one of a number of buildings which made up the Graeme Park settlement, although none of these other structures has survived.

About ten years after Sir William Keith's return to England in 1728, the estate came into the possession of Dr. Thomas Graeme, husband of the Governor's step-daughter and a prominent Philadelphia physician. Graeme bought the property for a country estate and there experimented with a variety of farming techniques. Recent research indicates that the present house was made into a dwelling during Dr. Graeme's ownership. Dr. Graeme's daughter, Elizabeth, inherited the estate upon her father's death in 1772. Her husband, Henry Fergusson, was a Loyalist and served with His Majesty's forces during the Revolution. Later owners divided the estate

into small parcels of land for sale or rent and in 1801, Samuel Penrose purchased the small lot on which the present house stood. Around 1810, Penrose built a new dwelling and from that time on the old house was not used as a main dwelling. Work done on the house by owners in the 19th and 20th centuries was mainly to preserve the property.

The house, plain, almost severe in exterior design, contains two and a half stories, with a high gambrel roof and two tall chimneys rising from the center deck of the roof. The structure is approximately 60 by 25 feet in size, with walls two feet thick, of field stone carefully laid and fitted. Windows and doors are tall and narrow, in plain frames which accentuate the austerity of the exterior design.

While the exterior is clearly Colonial, the interior panelling, mantels and door frames are Georgian of an advanced design. The first floor consists of a small entry and stair hall, a square center room and two flanking rooms. The spacious paneled parlor on the east end of the first floor is one of the most interesting rooms in the house, notable for its marble-trimmed fireplace and wainscoted walls which rise 14 feet from floor to ceiling. The second story also consists of three rooms, one large and two smaller, similar to the first-floor plan although with lower ceilings. The half-story third floor contains one large finished room and three small unfinished rooms.

The house was recently donated by its private owners to the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, and the State plans to develop Graeme Park

as an historical attraction, open to the public. The house and grounds are undergoing intensive research preliminary to restoration.

Bibliography: Harold D. Eberlein and Horace M. Lippincott, The Colonial Homes of Philadelphia and Its Neighbourhood (Philadelphia, 1912); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Nancy J. Wosstroff, "Graeme Park, An Eighteenth Century Country Estate in Horsham, Pennsylvania," Ms. thesis, U. of Delaware, June, 1958.

John Bartram House

Location: 54th Street and Eastwick Avenue, Philadelphia.

Ownership-Administration: City of Philadelphia, administered by Fairmount Park Commission, Philadelphia.

Significance: The house and gardens of John Bartram stand as a memorial to the pioneer American botanist and are an eloquent symbol of the rise of scientific inquiry in the English colonies of the 18th century.

John Bartram was America's first native botanist and has been called the greatest natural botanist of his time. He was born near Darby, Pennsylvania, in 1699, and acquired a love of nature in the countryside around Philadelphia. His learning was self-taught and his interests were those of a collector and describer of plants rather than formal scientist. He had an extensive correspondence with leading botanists abroad and he made a number of important journeys throughout the colonies observing and collecting plants and noting everything on the colonial scene -- wild life, the people and the earth itself. A Quaker by birth and inclination, he was ejected by the Society of Friends probably because his broad knowledge of life and science made difficult his conformation to the strict orthodoxy of his faith. To his gardens came many

famous figures of the time -- scientists and leaders in colonial affairs.

In 1765, Bartram was appointed botanist to the King, and important field trips were made in the service of the Crown. Like Franklin and Washington, who were his frequent guests, Bartram was representative of the best elements in the developing colonies. He was a man of curiosity and keen intellect, equally at home with the great figures of his time and with the slaves whom he freed but who remained with him as paid servants. The gardens, filled by Bartram with rare and exotic plants, were enlarged by his son William and after a period of neglect, were saved to perpetuate the memory of a notable American of the 18th century.

The house, built by Bartram with his own hands in 1731, is one of distinctive, even unusual character, preserving the flavor of Bartram and his time. The two-and-a-half story Colonial building is of local stone with tall Ionic columns probably added when the house was remodeled some years after its original construction. A recessed porch and window casings of carved stone help give the house its distinctive character. Interior furnishings are of the period of Bartram's significant work.

Bibliography: Dorothy and Richard Pratt, A Guide to Early American Homes, North (New York, 1956); Donald Culross Peattie, article in Dictionary of American Biography, Vol. 2 (New York, 1929); Emily Read Cheston, John Bartram, 1699-1777, His Garden and His House (2nd ed., n. p., 1953); Brooke Hindle, The Pursuit of Science in Revolutionary America, 1735-1789 (Chapel Hill, 1956).

Mount Pleasant

Location: Fairmount Park, between East River Drive and Columbia Avenue entrance, Philadelphia.

Ownership-Administration: City of Philadelphia, Fairmount Park Commission.

Significance: Mount Pleasant, situated on a hilltop overlooking the Schuylkill River, is the most important of a number of distinguished homes in Philadelphia's Fairmount Park. Built in 1761-62 by John McPherson, Scottish sea captain and privateer, the house was first named "Clunie" by its owner, after his ancestral home. The house, an opulent representation of late Georgian design, is constructed of rubble masonry coated with stucco which is scored to resemble joints of dressed stone masonry. The house's hilltop location, its six-foot hewn-stone basement, its twelve-foot ceilings and high, hipped roof with balustraded deck, combine to give the building a lofty appearance in keeping with its elaborate design. The facades are perfectly symmetrical, and arched quadruple chimneys at the north and south ends emphasize the balance. The north and south walls are windowless, relieved only by the brick belt course which extends around the house. Pavilions on the east and west sides frame arched doorways, above which are Palladian windows opening on to each end of the second floor hall.

The first floor consists of a large entrance hall which extends through the house, serving both the east and west entrances. The stairway rises from a small separate hall at the southeast corner. The north room on the first floor is a large parlor extending across the north end of the house. In the middle of the north wall is a chimney piece almost eight feet wide flanked by pedimented doors set against the solid wall behind them. The second floor also has a hall extending completely through the house, reached by the stairway in the small hall on the southeast corner of the building. The three second-floor chambers are especially

notable for their design and workmanship, most evident in the scrolled ornamentation and arched cupboard doors in the great chamber on the southwest corner.

Mount Pleasant has an unhappy historical association with General Benedict Arnold who bought the mansion in 1779, a short time before his attempted betrayal of West Point. The house later was confiscated and Arnold's possessions publicly sold. The mansion was leased for a short time to Baron von Steuben, and eventually came into the possession of General Jonathan Williams of Boston. Mount Pleasant remained in the Williams family until it became the property of the City of Philadelphia in the 19th century. The house is handsomely furnished in period style and is maintained by the Fairmount Park Commission as an outstanding survivor of 18th century Philadelphia.

Bibliography: Harold D. Eberlein and Horace M. Lippincott, The Colonial Homes of Philadelphia and its Neighbourhood (Philadelphia, 1912); Luther P. Eisenhart, Ed., Historic Philadelphia from the Founding until the Early 19th Century, Vol. 43, Part I, of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society (Philadelphia, 1953); Historic American Buildings Survey (6 photos, 1938, 1939; 31 sheets, 1940); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952).

RHODE ISLAND

The Brick Market

Location: Thames Street and Washington Square, Newport.

Ownership-Administration: City of Newport, Office of Newport Chamber of Commerce.

Significance: This interesting public building, designed by Newport's Peter Harrison, was constructed in 1762-63, although not all its

details were completed until 1772. The ground floor, originally built with open arcades, was intended for use "only as a market house" while the two upper floors were given over to stores and offices. All rentals and profits derived from the building went to the Newport Town Treasury to be used for the purchase of grain to supply a public granary for the town.

Harrison, often called America's first professional architect, was a merchant and shipowner of Newport and, mostly as a labor of love, designed a number of the town's most distinguished buildings. The Brick Market was Harrison's last architectural work and his design for the structure is believed to be one of the country's earliest examples of open arcades surmounted by great pilasters. The model for the design was the great gallery of London's Somerset House although Harrison chose brick rather than stone construction. Despite this and other modifications, the building is remarkably faithful to its prototype.

Early in its history, the upper portion of the building housed a printing office, and in 1793 the upper stories were remodeled as a theater. In 1842 the building was again altered and until 1900 served as Town and City Hall for Newport. The building was completely restored in 1928-30 and now houses the offices of the Newport Chamber of Commerce.

As an outstanding example of Harrison's mature work and as one of few remaining Colonial business structures, the Brick Market is a notable survivor of Colonial America.

First Baptist Meeting House

Location: North Main Street between Waterman and Thomas Streets, Providence.

Ownership-Administration: Church property.

Significance: Both architecturally and historically, the First Baptist meeting house is one of New England's most notable public buildings. Its origins date from the establishment of the first Baptist organization in America, founded in Providence in 1639, although the present structure was not built until 1774-75. The church was dedicated in May, 1775, a few weeks after the outbreak of the Revolution, but in design and feeling the structure belongs to the Colonial period.

When the congregation decided to build a new church, a committee of its members was sent to Boston to study churches and meeting-houses and record their forms and dimensions. Joseph Brown of the famous Providence family, and well-to-do merchant and amateur architect in his own right, is credited with the design of the church. This he based on an unexecuted design for St. Martin's-in-the-Fields, London, and on the plans of other English churches reproduced in his personal copy of Gibbs' Book of Architecture. The church as originally built was 80 feet square, with a door on each side and the main entrance under the spire on the west end. A gabled extension with a pedimented portico on the west end housed the stairs to the tower and spire, which rose to a height of 185 feet. The elaborate spire was the work of James Sumner, a master carpenter of Boston. An unusual feature of the body of the church are the two tiers

of round-headed windows. The low-pitched roof and the squareness of the structure combine to give the church an aspect of spaciousness and dignity. The interior, all white, is trimmed in wood. Galleries run along each side, supported by giant Doric columns. Over the five bays on each side are groined vaults which join the shallow vault over the nave.

The interior was extended in the 19th century, and the original pews, pulpit and slave gallery are gone, but otherwise the meetinghouse has suffered little alteration. Happily it has survived to illustrate the maturity of native architecture in the last years of Colonial America when the country stood on the threshold of independence.

In 1956, committees were appointed by the church to study ways and means to restore the building. A gift of \$500,000 from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., made possible complete rehabilitation and restoration which, it is estimated, will add at least another hundred years to the life and use of the Meetinghouse. The major change has been the reconstruction of the high pulpit with sounding board on the basis of the original design.

Bibliography: Aymar Embury, Early American Churches (New York, York, 1914); George F. Marlowe, Churches of Old New England (New York, 1947); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Edward F. Raines, Old Historic Churches of America (New York, 1936); Historic American Buildings Survey (28 photos c. 1900, 1937, 1939, and including copies of drawings of 1774 and 1789).

Old Colony House

Location: Washington Square, Newport.

Ownership-Administration: State of Rhode Island, administered by The Old State House in New Port, Rhode Island, Inc.

Significance: The Old Colony House is a superb public building of Colonial America, possessing both historical and architectural distinction. The building, designed by Richard Munday, was erected in 1739-41 to house the General Assembly of the Colony of Rhode Island, but served also as a center for public meetings and religious and social functions. The death of George II, the succession of George III, and the Colonies' acceptance of the Declaration of Independence were among the momentous events proclaimed from the second floor balcony. During the Revolution the Colony House served as a hospital for the British and later the French forces quartered in Newport. When General George Washington came to Newport to visit the newly-arrived French army, a banquet was held in the great hall on the first floor. From 1790 until the dedication of the new State House in Providence in 1900, the May sessions of the Rhode Island legislature were held in the Old Colony House.

Two and a half stories high, the Colony House is built of red brick resting on a granite masonry basement. The gabled roof, cut off to form a flat deck at its peak, is surmounted by a two-story octagonal cupola. The dominant feature of the main facade is the center doorway and balcony. The building's interior consists of a large room 40 by 80 feet on the first floor with a row of square columns running down the

middle, and three rooms on the second floor. The Colony House has been restored under the direction of Norman M. Isham and is today a public monument rich in historical associations and architectural significance.

Bibliography: Antoinette Downing and Vincent J. Scully, The Architectural Heritage of Newport, Rhode Island (Cambridge, 1952); Norman M. Isham, "The Colony House at Newport, Rhode Island," Old Time New England, VIII, No. 2 (December, 1917); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952); Roderick Terry, "History of the Old Colony House at Newport," Newport Historical Society Bulletin, No. 62 (October, 1927).

Redwood Library

Location: 50 Bellevue Avenue, Newport.

Ownership-Administration: Redwood Library and Athenaeum

Significance: This building is important both historically and architecturally. Historically it is a striking representation of the intellectual development of the American colonies in the 18th century. The Library is still in use and is beyond doubt one of the oldest library buildings in continuous use in the country. The Library was the outgrowth of a philosophical society founded in Newport in 1730, to which, in 1747, Abraham Redwood donated £500 sterling for the purchase of books. In all, Redwood's donation bought more than 1,200 volumes, which were purchased in London and shipped to Newport by way of Boston. To Redwood's gift, other Newport citizens added £5,000 for construction of a library building which was completed around 1750. Architect of the library was famed Peter Harrison of Newport, and with his design for the original portion of the building "he brought to America the Palladian style which,

after a brief interlude, reappeared in a purer Roman form when Thomas Jefferson went back to true Classical sources."¹²

The original structure was based on English adaptations of the Roman classical temple design. Unfortunately the reduced scale of the building greatly impaired its effectiveness. The original facade of the library was a temple portico with wide wings, and Harrison's academic reliance on English books of design resulted in a structure undistinguished in style and feeling. The siding was of wood, worked to resemble stone masonry, making the Library a very early example of the use of rusticated wood siding in Georgian architecture. The central Library room housed the stacks of books and small offices were located in the wings. As the Library grew, additional rooms were added in the 19th century to the rear of Harrison's structure. The original portion of the Library was restored in 1928.

"Except for the side wings, the faults of the Redwood Library were the faults of an age rather than of an individual. As a beginning amateur, Peter Harrison is perhaps to be forgiven for his failure to perceive that the English models he followed were themselves at fault: their classicism was a spurious one, for they reduced the grandeur that was Rome to the scale of toy temples in villa gardens; they treated architecture as playful scenery, an impertinence to the mistress art if not to their own sense of the trivial. Fortunately, Peter Harrison was never again so naive."¹³

¹² Carl Bridenbaugh, Peter Harrison, First American Architect (Chapel Hill, 1949), 51.

¹³ Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1952), 450.

Bibliography: Carl Bridenbaugh, Peter Harrison, First American Architect (Chapel Hill, 1949); Historic American Buildings Survey (3 photos, 1937); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture (New York, 1942).

SOUTH CAROLINA

Charleston (Historic District)

Location: Two "Old and Historic Areas," one bounded by Broad, East Battery, South Battery, and Logan Streets, and the other bounded by Cumberland, State, Chalmers and Meeting streets, Charleston.

Ownership-Administration: Various ownerships, mostly private.

Significance: Founded in 1670, the city during the 18th century became the largest and wealthiest metropolis south of Philadelphia. That wealth -- based on rice, indigo and furs -- plus a cosmopolitan population made Charleston one of the more cultured colonial cities. Charleston architecture is an outstanding example of the adaptation of building construction to fit climatic conditions. Despite wars, a series of costly fires, and a major earthquake, the two "Old and Historic Areas" constitute a remarkably preserved bit of 18th and early 19th century Charleston. In addition to those buildings which are treated separately in this report, the following 18th century buildings have been classified as "Nationally Important" by the Carolina Art Association: The Exchange (Custom House), 1767; the Heyward House, c. 1750; the Branford-Horry House, 1751-67; the Gen. William Washington House, c. 1768; and the Gibbes House, 1772-89. Most of the houses are privately owned and are in excellent condition.

*Secretary's Room
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Bibliography: Samuel G. Stoney, This is Charleston: A Survey of the Architectural Heritage of a Unique American City (Charleston, 1944); Albert Simons and Samuel Lapham, Charleston, South Carolina (Washington, 1927); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture, From the First Colonial Settlements to the National Period (New York, 1952).

Drayton Hall

Location: Twelve miles west of Charleston on State Highway 61, Charleston County.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Drayton Hall, a remarkable Early Georgian mansion which Morrison calls the "outstanding surviving example of South Carolina's plantation houses,"¹⁴ was built about 1738-42 by John Drayton, a member of the Royal Council. Architecturally, it is far in advance of great Virginia houses of the same period, particularly in the monumentality of its design and in the two-story portico, with superposed orders of columns, which adorns its west facade. The east facade has a classic pediment instead of a portico. Both main facades are approached by double flights of steps, those on the west being parallel and those on the east meeting at the main entrance. Inside, the mansion is distinguished by a majestic entrance hall with full paneling and ornamented ceiling, and by rich cornices and elaborate fireplaces in the other rooms. The architect, obviously a professional, is unknown.

Although the house appears structurally sound, it stands in need of repair. The brickwork needs repointing and the steps are weed-grown and crumbling. Except for a sizeable lawn, the plantation has

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¹⁴ Morrison, op. cit., 401.

reverted to tangled woodland.

Drayton Hall and the neighboring Magnolia Gardens, once a unit, now are in different ownerships and are separated by a small strip of land sold for a railway right-of-way some years ago. Magnolia Gardens also is owned by a Drayton descendant.

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; Stoney, Plantations of the Carolina Low Country; Elise Lathrop, Historic Houses of Early America (New York, 1937).

Miles Brewton House

Location: 27 King Street, Charleston.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Though not without historic interest, the Miles Brewton House is chiefly notable for its architectural excellence. It is generally conceded by authorities to be the best example of the "Charleston double house," and one noted architect calls it the "finest town house of the colonial period."¹⁵ A two-story house of almost square design, it is covered by a sharply ridged, hipped roof, and the main facade is dominated by a two-story portico. The house is richly ornamented, both inside and outside, with a wealth of details not found elsewhere.

Such historic interest as the house possesses springs directly from its architectural distinction. Being the most splendid town house in Charleston, it was occupied as a military headquarters in two wars; during the Revolution, by Sir Henry Clinton, and in the last days of the Civil War, by occupying Federal officers.

¹⁵ Thomas T. Waterman, The Dwellings of Colonial America (Chapel Hill, 1950), 81-85.

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MILES BREWTON HOUSE, Charleston, South Carolina - A view of the main facade, showing the two-story portico and the rich exterior ornamentation. A fine example of the "Charleston double house". 40589

March 19, 1958

National Park Service photograph

The house was built 1765-69 for Miles Brewton, a prominent citizen of Charleston. The architect was Ezra Waite.

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; Waterman, Dwellings of Colonial America; Beatrice St. Julien Ravenel, Architects of Charleston (Charleston, 1945); Simons and Lapham, Charleston, South Carolina; Historic American Buildings Survey, 6 photographs, 1938-40.

Robert Brewton House

Location: 71 Church Street, Charleston.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Built about 1730 by the prominent Miles Brewton for his son, the Robert Brewton House has survived two wars and two major fires to achieve a unique double distinction. Besides being one of the oldest surviving Charleston houses, it is the earliest accurately dated example of the "single house," an architectural type peculiar to that city.¹⁶ Showing some signs of West Indian influence, the "single house" is a fine example of the adaptation of structural design to climatic conditions. Of single-room thickness, it stood with its long axis perpendicular to the street; along one of the long sides (generally the south or west) ran a piazza, overlooking a small enclosed garden; the entrance was through a gate onto the street end of the piazza; thick walls of brick, covered with white or pastel-tinted stucco, were topped by tile roofs. The piazza, which during the 18th century was of wood and only one story high, during the 19th century evolved into the two-story

¹⁶ The Junior League of Charleston, Inc., Our Charleston, 1700-1860 (n. p., n. d.). This booklet was compiled with the help of Samuel Gaillard Stoney, former president of the South Carolina Historical society; Miss Helen G. McCormack, Director of Gibbes Art Gallery; Dr. J. H. Easterby, Director of the South Carolina Archives Department; and Miss Mary Sparkman of the Historical Commission of Charleston.

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appendage so familiar in present-day Charleston. This design admirably served its purpose of making the hot South Carolina summers bearable and -- coupled with the town's sea breezes and the relative absence of malaria -- made Charleston the summertime mecca of the plantation families.

The Robert Brewton House has undergone little exterior change, except that the piazza has been removed (necessitating a new entrance treatment) and there is no side garden. Three stories high, it is featured by angle quoins, key blocks over the windows and a wrought-iron balcony on the street front. The mantelpieces and other interior woodwork show fine workmanship. The house appears to be well-maintained and in the best of condition. It is not open to visitors.

Bibliography: Samuel Gaillard Stoney, This is Charleston (Charleston, 1944); The Junior League of Charleston, Inc., Our Charleston, 1700-1860 (n. p., n. d.); Morrison, op. cit.; Ralston B. Lattimore, Historic Sites Survey card, July 10, 1937.

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St. Michael's Episcopal Church

Location: 80 Meeting Street, Charleston.

Ownership-Administration: St. Michael's Church Corporation, Charleston.

Significance: Called by Hugh Morrison "one of the great Georgian churches of the colonies,"¹⁷ St. Michael's provides a graphic illustration of the great advance of wealth and culture in South Carolina during the first half of the 18th century. Construction of the edifice was

¹⁷ Morrison, Early American Architecture, 408.

authorized by the colonial assembly in 1751 but, although it was virtually completed within two years, for some reason it was not dedicated until 1761. The architect is not known, though it may have been the noted Peter Harrison. The building was of brick furnished by Zachariah Villepontoux -- who was noted for the quality of his product -- and was covered with stucco. The exterior features a two-story Roman Doric portico, the first giant portico built on a Georgian church in the colonies, according to Morrison, and an unusually solid spire. From a square base, the latter rises in a series of diminishing octagons to a terminal spire, the top of which is 185 feet above the street. The interior is marked by a coved ceiling and low side galleries supported by fluted Ionic columns. Waxed and polished cedar woodwork adds to the beauty of the interior.

Bibliography: Stoney, This is Charleston; Morrison, op. cit.; Historic American Buildings Survey, 3 photographs, 1939-40.

*Advisory Bd. minutes
3/21-23/60 (attach. 80)
recommended this site be
given consideration for addition to N.P. System -
of suitability*

The Mulberry

Location: Thirty miles north of Charleston on U. S. Highway 52, beside Cooper River, Berkeley County.

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Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Besides possessing a considerable degree of architectural interest, The Mulberry well illustrates a number of important facets of 18th century American history. It was constructed in 1714 by Thomas Broughton, later a royal governor of South Carolina. Located on the frontier, the house was constructed over a cellar fort, with firing

slits in the foundation walls. During the Yamassee War, 1715-16, The Mulberry was a fortified stronghold to which a number of neighboring colonists fled for protection. During the latter days of the American Revolution, when British troops overran the surrounding countryside, The Mulberry served as headquarters for a cavalry unit.

With its rice fields, dikes and canals still in a fine state of preservation, it is one of the most impressive of the river rice plantations which brought such wealth to the colony in the 18th century. Architecturally, The Mulberry has been described by one authority as "one of the most provocative houses of the colonial period. . . . a sort of melting pot of architectural forms, as diverse in origin as the population of the colony."¹⁸ Its most distinctive features are the four "flankers" which extend out from the corners of the central section, with hipped roofs, bell-shaped turrets and fine iron weathervanes.

The house and grounds are in excellent condition. Major interior alterations were made in 1800 and some restoration in the early 20th century, but apparently few major changes have been made structurally since the house was constructed. The two main rice fields still exist, as well as the original dikes and rice canals; only the sluice gates on the latter appear to be of comparatively recent design.

The Mulberry is not open to visitors.

Bibliography: Samuel G. Stoney, Plantations of the Carolina Low Country (Charleston, 1938); Edward McCrady, The History of South Carolina, 1670-1783 (4 vols., New York, 1897-1902); Morrison, op. cit.; Waterman, Dwellings of Colonial America.

¹⁸ Morrison, op. cit., 172.

VIRGINIA

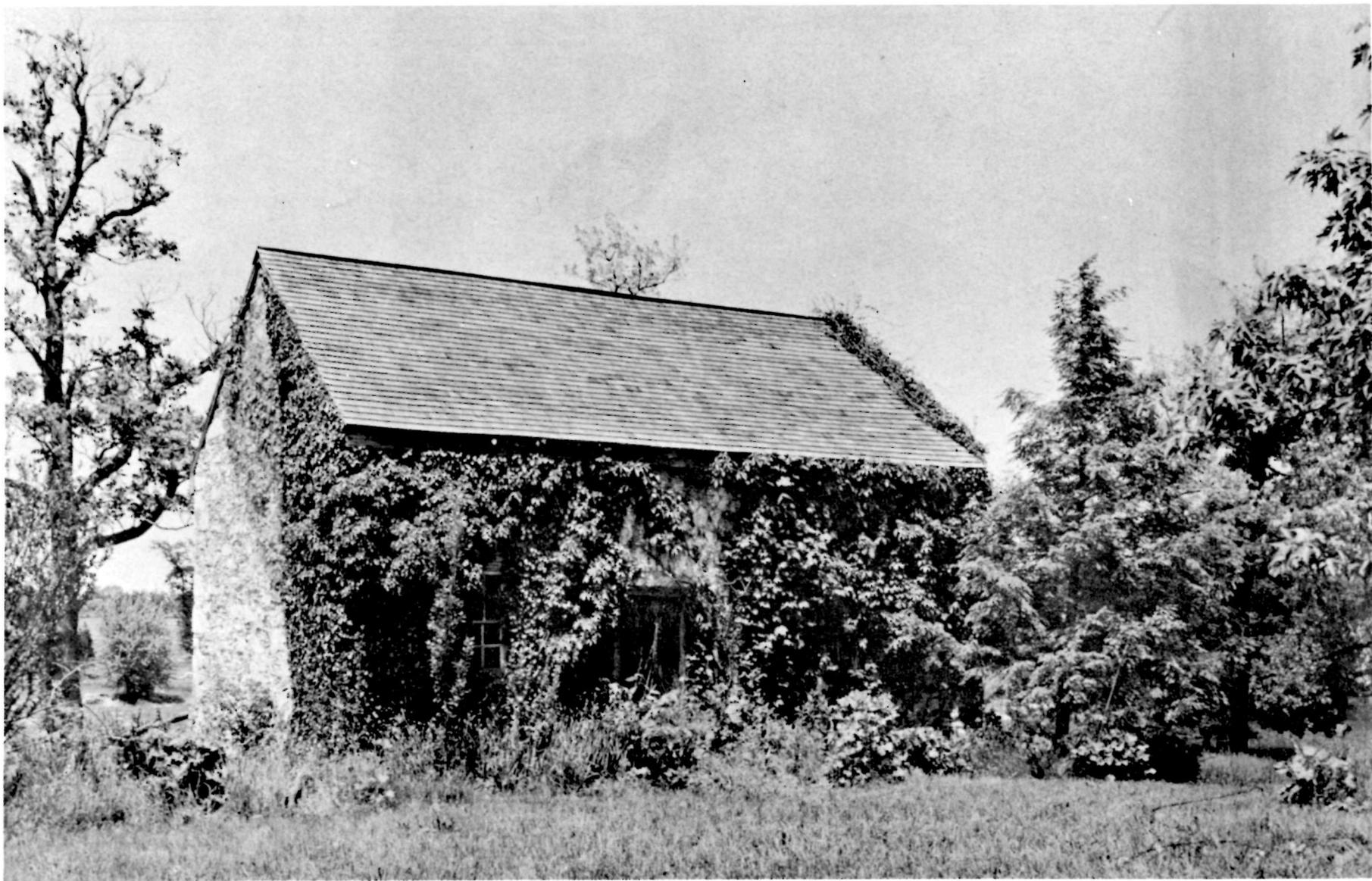
Greenway Court

Location: One mile south of White Post near State Highway 277, Clarke County.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: For 30 years, Greenway Court was the home of Thomas Lord Fairfax -- the only English peer residing in the colonies, a friend to the young George Washington, and proprietor of a five-million-acre grant of Virginia lands. Inheriting the proprietary through his mother, daughter of Thomas Lord Culpeper, Fairfax was forced into a long-drawn-out defense of his lands by a formidable political attack which began in 1733 and continued intermittently until after his death in 1781. To safeguard his interests, he took up residence at Greenway Court in 1752, living out his years there in comfort, but on a scale far below that which the average upper-class Virginian enjoyed. In truth, the estate was never completed; a projected manor house was never built, and Fairfax resided in another house which had been planned as a hunting lodge. From 1762 until his death, Fairfax maintained the land office for his Northern Neck Proprietary at Greenway Court. Washington visited there a number of times, first in 1748 as member of a surveying party, and later in his capacity as a large landed proprietor himself. Lord Dunmore, royal governor of Virginia, spent some time at Greenway Court during the Shawnee campaign of 1774, and a number of other prominent Virginians were there

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GREENWAY COURT, Virginia - Land office of the Northern Neck Proprietary, built about 1762. This small stone building was a center of frontier land speculation in the late colonial period.

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May 23, 1958

National Park Service photograph

at one time or another. Fairfax, a leading citizen of Virginia during the third quarter of the 18th century, was an important influence on the careers of Washington and, indirectly, of John Marshall, whose father also did some survey work for the Proprietor. The land speculation which centered at Greenway Court for over a decade was typical of that preoccupation with frontier lands which concerned Virginians of all social classes in the years just before the American Revolution.

Of the buildings existing during Fairfax's lifetime, the "hunting lodge" has been replaced by a two-story brick farmhouse built in 1828. The limestone Land Office, probably built in 1762, still stands. Restored in 1930, it appears to be in fair condition. It is a thick-walled structure 28.4 by 18.4 feet, with a heavy hewn-board door and narrow shuttered windows.

The property is now occupied by tenants, but appears to be well maintained.

Bibliography: Charles W. Porter, "Greenway Court - Home of Lord Fairfax," Ms. Historic Sites Survey report, June 3, 1936; Historic American Buildings Survey, 6 photographs, 1936-39; Leonidas Dodson, "The Fairfax Proprietary," Dictionary of American History, II, 240.

Mount Airy

Location: One mile west of Warsaw on U. S. Highway 360, Richmond County.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Designed by the noted Virginia architect, John Ariss, Mount Airy was built by Col. John Tayloe, 1758-62. It is one of

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the few stone houses built in Virginia during the 18th century and represents the first instance in the colonies of the achievement of the ideal scheme of the full Palladian villa, with dependent wings connected to the main house by Quadrant passages. The dark brown sandstone walls, laid in courses of random heights, are trimmed with light-colored sandstone. The entrance facade features a projecting pavilion of rusticated limestone with a crowning pediment. The south facade, facing the broad valley of the Rappahannock, is similar except that the three entrances are framed by round arches. The entire composition of that facade is copied from a design in James Gibbs' Book of Architecture, which greatly influenced colonial architecture after its publication in 1728. The original interior was destroyed by fire in 1844, and the roof has been remodeled. Mount Airy still is owned by Tayloe descendants and is not open to visitors.

Bibliography: Waterman, The Mansions of Virginia; Historic American Buildings Survey, 17 photographs, 1934-39; Sale, Manors of Virginia; Morrison, op. cit.

Stratford Hall

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Location: Three miles north of Lerty on State Highway 214, Westmoreland County.

Ownership-Administration: Robert E. Lee Memorial Foundation, Inc., Stratford Hall.

Significance: Stratford Hall, probably best-known as the birthplace of General Robert E. Lee, is of major importance both historically

and architecturally. The list of noted men who were born or lived at Stratford Hall reads like a miniature Who's Who: four members of the Governor's council, 12 burgesses, four members of the Virginia Convention of 1776, two Signers of the Declaration of Independence, several Governors of Virginia, members of the Continental Congress, diplomats, and military leaders. Of those born at Stratford Hall besides the Confederate general, the list includes the Signers, Richard Henry and Francis Lightfoot Lee, and three other Revolutionary leaders, William, Arthur, and Thomas Ludwell Lee.

Architecturally, the mansion is a notable example of early Georgian architecture, yet with many features which make it unique. Its H-plan gives it a kinship with the Capitol building at Williamsburg and Tuckahoe in Goochland County, Virginia. It is a huge bulk with raised basement, unaccompanied by the usual pilasters and other academic forms. One of its chief distinguishing characteristics is the presence of twin sets of four chimney stacks on the wings, connected by arches and enclosing balustraded roof-decks. The monumental great hall is outstanding of its period, with a "complete academic formality"¹⁹ seldom found in early Georgian architecture. Four original service dependencies flank the mansion. The acreage owned by the Foundation is only a portion of the original 16,000-acre estate, on which Col. Thomas Lee built the house in the period, 1725-30.

The Stratford Hall estate, maintained as a historic house museum

¹⁹ Morrison, op. cit., 337.

and operating 18th century plantation, is in excellent condition. The formal gardens have been restored, as well as walks, shrubbery and minor dependencies.

Bibliography: Edmund J. Lee, Lee of Virginia, 1642-1892 (Philadelphia, 1895); F. W. Alexander, Stratford Hall and the Lees Connected with Its History (Oak Grove, 1912); E. M. Armes, Stratford on the Potomac (1928); Morrison, op. cit.; Waterman, The Mansions of Virginia; Charles W. Porter, Historic Sites Survey card, Sept. 12, 1936; Historic American Buildings Survey, 45 photographs, 1932-40.

Westover

Location: On James River, 7 miles west of Charles City Court House, Charles City County.

Ownership-Administration: Privately owned.

Significance: Located on one of the earliest of Virginia plantations, first occupied in 1619, the present mansion was built by William Byrd II, in the years 1730-34. Typical of the Tidewater tobacco plantations, Westover was a vast, 1,200-acre estate which barely sufficed to provide a living for its owner. So hard pressed was Byrd that on more than one occasion he had to sell land and Negroes to make ends meet. Byrd, typical of his class, eked out his existence as a tobacco planter with large-scale speculation in western lands. The mansion, "perhaps the most famous Georgian house in America,"²⁰ is noted for the quality of its construction and its architectural completeness. The mansion proper consists of a two-story central section on a high basement and two attached wings, the one to the east a replacement of the

The Advisory Bd. at 3/21-23/60. meeting 8:00 to 9:00 minutes. (Attachment this staff - see to be 9 min. consideration from staff - point of suitability for addition to N.P. system -)

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²⁰ Morrison, op. cit., 339.

original, which was destroyed during the Civil War. Several dependencies, including the original kitchen which is reputed to antedate the present house, stand nearby. Notable features of the mansion include formal doorways in Portland stone on both main facades; a steeply pitched hip roof, rising to a sharp ridge instead of a deck; an off-center main hall, utilizing one of the regularly spaced facade windows as a light source; and a finely detailed interior with full-length panelling and enriched plaster ceilings. Exterior features include three original gates, the central set called by Morrison the "finest old wrought iron gates in America,"²¹ probably made by Thomas Robinson, of London; an underground tunnel from the house to the river bank; formal gardens, containing the grave of Byrd; the site of the first Westover Church, about 400 yards west of the house, where a number of prominent Virginians are buried, including the first Benjamin Harrison of Berkeley, the first William Byrd and his wife, and Capt. William Perry, who died in 1637, ~~and the remains of an old ice house.~~ The mansion group was restored about 1920¹⁹⁰⁰ and came into possession of the present family ^{in 1971} shortly thereafter. It appears to be in excellent condition. The garden and grounds are open to visitors.

Bibliography: Morrison, op. cit.; Thomas T. Waterman, The Mansions of Virginia, 1706-1776 (Chapel Hill, 1946); Edith T. Sale, Manors of Virginia in Colonial Times (Philadelphia, 1909); Sale, Interiors of Virginia Houses of Colonial Times (Richmond, 1927); Historic American Buildings Survey, 8 photographs, 1939.

²¹ Morrison, op. cit., 340.

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Williamsburg
(Historic District)

Location: Restored area of 130 acres, containing more than 490 reconstructed or restored buildings, in the center of Williamsburg.

Significance: The Colonial capital of Virginia, with a span of importance almost exactly coinciding with the 18th century Colonial period, never approached Charleston as a metropolis, though it was the political and cultural center of one of the leading colonies. Its particular value, aside from its political importance, stems from the remarkable interpretive program which for some years has been carried on by Colonial Williamsburg. A quiet college town and county seat for a century and a half, Williamsburg today is an outstanding example of restoration and interpretation. The avowed aim of the Restoration has been to "re-create accurately the environment of the men and women of 18th century Williamsburg and to bring about such an understanding of their lives and times that present and future generations may more vividly appreciate the contributions of these early Americans to the ideals and culture of our country." The Restoration, begun in 1927 under the auspices of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., to date has involved the razing or removal of some 600 buildings, the restoration of approximately 100, and the reconstruction, on their original sites, of nearly 400. Noteworthy restorations, besides the Wren Building, include Brafferton Hall (1723) and the President's House (1732), of the College of William and Mary; the Public Magazine, 1714; the Ludwell-Paradise House, 1717; the

Old Court House, 1770; Bruton Parish Church, 1710-15; and the George Wythe House, 1755. A number of other important buildings have been reconstructed. Colonial Williamsburg has title to most of the 130-acre restored area.

Bibliography: Colonial Williamsburg, Inc., Colonial Williamsburg Official Guidebook (Williamsburg, 1957); Hugh Morrison, Early American Architecture, From the First Colonial Settlements to the National Period (New York, 1952); Colonial Williamsburg: Report by the President for the Year 1957. / Williamsburg, 1958 /

Wren Building

Location: College of William and Mary, Williamsburg.

Ownership-Administration: State of Virginia; College of William and Mary.

Significance: The first successful college in Virginia and the second in all the English colonies, the College of William and Mary was chartered on February 8, 1693. Middle Plantation (later renamed Williamsburg) was chosen as the site, and the cornerstone was laid in 1695. Designed by Sir Christopher Wren and "adapted to the Nature of the Country by the Gentlemen there,"²² the building was completed in its original form in 1702, when two sides of the proposed quadrangle were finished. Accidentally burned in 1705, the building was subsequently rebuilt, and a third side of the quadrangle was completed in 1732. Twice more, in 1859 and 1862, the building was damaged by fire, with consequent alterations in each reconstruction. When John D. Rockefeller, Jr., undertook its restoration in 1927, only two-thirds of the original wall height remained. Timely discovery of the "Bodleian Plate" at Oxford University, depicting

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²² Hugh Jones, 1722, quoted in The Architectural Record, December, 1935, p. 368.

several important buildings of 18th century Williamsburg, permitted an authentic restoration of the Wren Building.

One of the largest buildings erected in the English colonies up to that time,²³ the Wren Building was four stories high (including English basement and attic) and 136 feet long. Though begun in the 17th century, its design was proudly of the 18th. The mature Renaissance design incorporates a formal symmetry, with the central axis accented by round-arch portal, balcony, sharp-pitched gable and cupola. Balancing the central axis are uniformly spaced windows and narrow dormers. The north wing, completed at the same time as the front portion, contains the "Great Hall"; the south wing, constructed in 1732, is the chapel. Restoration in 1928 was authentic, with the only alterations being additional stairs and other minor details needed to adapt the building to a continuing academic use. The interior woodwork having been completely destroyed by fire, painstaking research was necessary in order to permit authentic replacement.

Bibliography: The Restoration of Colonial Williamsburg in Virginia, reprinted from The Architectural Record, December, 1935 (New York, 1935); Morrison, op. cit.; Historic American Buildings Survey, four photographs, 1937-39.

²³ Morrison, op. cit., 322.

Sites of Exceptional Value
in the National Park System

Adams National Historic Site, Massachusetts

The "Old House" at Quincy, originally constructed in 1731 by a wealthy West Indian sugar planter and acquired in 1787 by John Adams, one of the most active of New England Colonial leaders during the period immediately preceding the Revolution. It was home to four generations of prominent Adamses, each of which contributed to the structure of the present house.

Federal Hall National Memorial, New York

The United States Sub-Treasury Building, constructed in 1842, occupies the site of the old New York City Hall, built 1699-1700. In the City Hall, John Peter Zenger was imprisoned in 1734 prior to his acquittal of a charge of seditious libel the following year -- a notable victory for freedom of the press. In October, 1765, the Stamp Act Congress was held there, to offer the first organized opposition to England's colonial policy.

Fort Frederica National Monument, Georgia

Ruins of an important 18th century fortified settlement established by Oglethorpe in 1736 as a frontier outpost in the Anglo-Spanish struggle for control of the present southeastern United States. Fort Frederica was Oglethorpe's headquarters during the border warfare which culminated in the Spanish defeat at Bloody Marsh in 1742.

Fort Necessity National Battlefield Site, Pennsylvania

Scene of the opening battle of the French and Indian War, July 3, 1754, in which a Colonial force under Lt. Col. George Washington was besieged and captured by a numerically superior force of Frenchmen and Indians.

George Washington Birthplace National Monument, Virginia

At Popes Creek on the Potomac River, George Washington was born in 1732 and here he lived for the first three years of his life. The house was destroyed by fire during the American Revolution. In the absence of documentary evidence for an authentic reconstruction, the memorial mansion which was erected in 1930-31 represents a typical Virginia plantation house of the 18th century.

Gloria Dei (Old Swedes') Church National Historic Site, Philadelphia

A National Historic Site in non-Federal ownership, this is a splendid example of the cultural and religious aspects of early Swedish colonization in America. Gloria Dei is owned by the Corporation of Gloria Dei (Old Swedes') Church, of Philadelphia.

Hopewell Village National Historic Site, Pennsylvania

A typical early American iron-making "plantation," stated by Mark Bird in 1770 and continuing in operation until 1883. Even as contemporary furnaces were converting during the 19th century to coke and steam power, Hopewell Furnace ended as it had begun -- a cold-blast, charcoal-burning furnace.

Independence National Historical Park, Philadelphia

Around Independence Square in Philadelphia cluster a number of buildings intimately identified with the dramatic days which marked the close of the colonial period and the beginnings of the United States. They include Independence Hall, Congress Hall, and the Old City Hall, owned by the city but administered by the National Park Service.

St. Paul's Church National Historic Site, New York

St. Paul's Episcopal Church has been called one of the finest architectural monuments of the Renaissance Revival in the United States and probably the finest example still standing of the 18th century parish church in the Middle Colonies.

The original church was founded in 1665 in the newly-established settlement of Eastchester. The present building was begun in 1763 but was not completed until about 1790. It has been restored to its appearance of that time. On the town green where the church stands was held the local election on October 29, 1733, which has been credited with bringing about the political feud which led two years later to the trial of John Peter Zenger. From this legal contest came the vindication of the right of the press to "oppose and expose" the use of arbitrary power -- the principle of freedom of the press which is a basic tenet of the American democratic process. It is owned by the corporation of St. Paul's Church, Eastchester, Mount Vernon, New York.

Salem Maritime National Historic Site, Massachusetts

Derby Wharf, constructed in 1762, and several historic buildings are included in this National Park Service area on the waterfront of the once-thriving port of Salem. New England merchant ships sailed from the port to all parts of the globe.

Touro Synagogue National Historic Site, Newport, Rhode Island

The Touro Synagogue, built 1759-63, is the oldest synagogue in the United States. It is a fine example of Colonial religious architecture and a building rich in historical association. The architect was Peter Harrison. It is another National Historic Site in non-Federal ownership, being owned by Congregation Sharith Israel, New York City.

Other Sites and Buildings Considered in the Survey

Among the many sites and buildings considered in the survey of the Development of the English Colonies, 1700-1775, a number were considered to have more than ordinary interest although, in terms of this theme, they are not of the first rank. In some instances, sites and buildings having only secondary value in Theme IX may have considerably more significance in other historical themes of the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings. These sites are indicated in the following list, and they will be given more detailed treatment in the appropriate theme study. The list which follows, grouped alphabetically by states, includes those sites which were evaluated but failed to meet the established criteria for classification of exceptional value in terms of the present study.

CONNECTICUT

Mystic Seaport, Old Mystic: Reconstructed typical seaport of 18th and 19th centuries. Mystic in colonial period was an important maritime center, but the reconstruction reflects a later period.

Newgate Prison, Granby Copper Mine, East Granby: One of the first copper mines in the English colonies (1707); but the site is obscured by subsequent prison development.

DELAWARE

Amstel House, New Castle: Home of the first governor of Delaware, Nicholas Van Dyke, built about 1730.

Emmanuel Episcopal Church, New Castle: Built in the years 1703-10.

Gunning Bedford House, New Castle: Built in 1730.

Old Court House, New Castle: Center portion was built early in the 18th century and its cupola was used as the center point of the "12-mile circle" which fixed the northern boundary of the colony and later the state of Delaware.

Presbyterian Church, New Castle: Built in 1707.

Van Leuveneigh House, New Castle: Built in 1732.

GEORGIA

Fort King George and Fort Darien, Darien: Site of Fort King George (1721-27) and Fort Darien (1736-43), important English posts on the southern frontier. Site owned by the State of Georgia.

Hardwick, Bryan County: Site of a town established by the royal governor in 1755 to serve as the capital of the colony, but the effort failed. Site on privately owned plantation.

New Ebenezer, Effingham County: Site of a Salzburg Lutheran settlement, founded 1736, which was one of the important frontier settlements of Colonial Georgia. Ebenezer Church, built in 1769, still has an active congregation.

MAINE

Fort Halifax, Winslow: Blockhouse built in 1754, the only surviving structure of this type in New England. To be considered under Theme XX for its architectural significance.

Fort Pownall, Stockton Springs: The most elaborate fort built in Maine, constructed in 1759. Designed to control the mouth of the Penobscot River, it is significant in State history.

MARYLAND

Brice House, Annapolis: Constructed in 1740.

Chase-Lloyd House, Annapolis: Constructed in 1769-71.

Cresaps Fort, Oldtown: Ruins of the fortified home and trading post built in the 1740's by Col. Thomas Cresap, a frontier leader in the colonies.

Fort Cumberland, Cumberland: Base for military operations in the last American war between England and France, including Braddock's expedition against Fort Duquesne. Perhaps more important in a later period as the eastern terminus of the National Road.

Fort Frederick, Clearspring: A good restoration of a typical frontier fort of the French and Indian War. Important as a place of refuge on the frontier.

State House, Annapolis: Begun in 1772.

MASSACHUSETTS

Mission House, Stockbridge: House built in 1739 by John Sergeant, the first missionary to the Stockbridge Indians. Not on the original site, but in excellent state of preservation. An interesting frontier story.

Old Sturbridge Village: A reconstruction of a "typical" village of the 18th and 19th centuries. It is authentically done, but for the most part reflects a later period than that of Theme IX.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Governor Benning Wentworth House, Portsmouth: Built in 1695, with later additions.

Moffatt-Ladd House, Portsmouth: Built in 1763 by John Moffatt, a prosperous merchant.

Westworth-Gardner House, Portsmouth: Built in 1760.

NEW YORK

Fort Brewerton, Brewerton: Earthwork remains of a fort built in 1759 to protect the northern frontier.

Fort Crailo, Rensselaer: Traces of 17th century, but mostly 18th century, construction, built by Dutch land owners in the Hudson Valley.

Fort Crown Point: British fort on Lake Champlain, built in 1759 after the capture of the nearby French Fort St. Frederic; the ruins of several buildings remain. Considered under Theme V, French Exploration and Settlement.

Fort Frey, Palatine Bridge: Trading post built in 1739, and used as a fort during the French and Indian War. One of the relatively few colonial structures surviving in this area. In very good condition.

Fort Johnson, Fort Johnson: Earlier home of Sir William Johnson, built in 1749.

Fort Ontario: Originally built in 1755 by the British near the former Fort Oswego on Lake Ontario. The present buildings are of a later period.

Fort William Henry, Lake George: Reconstruction of a fort of the French and Indian War period, built by Sir William Johnson in 1755 and besieged and captured by Montcalm in 1757. An excellent, carefully done reconstruction.

Indian Castle Church, Fort Plain: A small wooden church built in 1769, and given to the Mohawks by Sir William Johnson. An interesting example of Johnson's enlightened Indian policy.

Lake George Battleground, Lake George: Scene of Sir William Johnson's victory over the French, September 8, 1755; also, in later actions of the French and Indian War, including the capture of Fort William Henry. Site contains the remains of Fort George.

NORTH CAROLINA

Alamance Battleground: Scene of the battle on May 16, 1771, between a Regulator force of frontiersmen and a militia force led by Governor William Tryon, which resulted in the defeat of the Regulators. Now a State park.

Bethabara, Winston-Salem: Site of the first Moravian settlement in North Carolina, made in 1753.

Brunswick Town, Brunswick County: Established as port town for the Cape Fear region in 1726, it remained the largest port town in North Carolina throughout the Colonial period. Excavation of the site has been carried out recently by the State Department of Archives and History, which has jurisdiction over the site.

Cupola House, Edenton: A unique architectural blend of Georgian and Jacobean features, built about 1712.

Tryon Palace, New Bern: A reconstruction of the seat of the Royal government of North Carolina in the late colonial period; one wing of the building is original.

PENNSYLVANIA

Fort Augusta, Sunbury: British fort built in 1756, used by the Americans during the Revolution.

Fort Le Bœuf, Waterford: Site of a French fort, 1753, one of the line of outposts erected by the French to keep settlers out of the Ohio country. This story can best be told at Fort Necessity and Fort Pitt.

Fort Zeller, Lebanon County: The oldest existing fort in Pennsylvania, built in 1723 and rebuilt in 1745. Erected as a refuge during the Indian wars. Possesses State importance.

The Cloisters, Ephrata: Mid-18th century buildings surviving from a German Seventh-Day Baptist monastic community founded by Johann Konrad Beissel.

SOUTH CAROLINA

Colonial Powder Magazine, Charleston: An early Charleston public building, constructed within the original fortifications in 1703.

Daniel Elliott Huger House, Charleston: Home of the last Royal governor of South Carolina, built in 1760.

Fort Johnson, Charleston: An early Charleston fortification, built 1704-08; scene of the Stamp Act resistance in South Carolina, 1765. A revolutionary period magazine remains.

French Protestant Huguenot Church, Charleston: Gothic church building, built in 1845 on the site of the first Huguenot church in Charleston. An adjacent burial ground contains a number of early graves.

Jacob Motte House, Charleston: Home of Jacob Motte, public treasurer of South Carolina in the Colonial period; built about 1745.

John Stuart House, Charleston: Home of the Indian agent for the southern colonies; built about 1772.

Ninety Six, Greenwood County: An early 18th century fur-trading post. The Old Star Fort was the scene of a Revolutionary War siege in 1781. To be considered under Theme X.

St. Helena Episcopal Church, Beaufort: Colonial church, built in 1712 and later enlarged. John Barnwell, a noted Colonial leader in South Carolina, is buried in the churchyard.

The Exchange (Custom House), Charleston: Construction 1767-71 on the site of the old Court of Guards; confiscated tea was stored there in 1774, and used by the British for a military prison during the Revolution. Extensively altered since its original construction.

William Rhett House, Charleston: Home of a prominent Colonial leader, built about 1707-16 and now the oldest remaining house in the city.

TENNESSEE

Bean Cabin Site, Johnson City: Site of the cabin built by the first settler of Tennessee, William Bean, in 1769; now under water.

Fort Loudoun, Vonore: An important South Carolina frontier fort, captured by the Cherokees in 1760.

VERMONT

Crown Point Military Road, Springfield-Chimney Point: The earliest road built in Vermont, 1759-60, to support the British invasions of Canada. Traces are marked.

VIRGINIA

Bellefont, Staunton: Home of John Lewis, a pioneer Scotch-Irish settler of the Shenandoah Valley.

Berkeley, Charles City County: Ancestral home of the prominent Harrison family on the lower James River.

Carter's Grove, Warwick: A Georgian mansion built by Carter Burwell in 1751.

Castle Hill, Albemarle County: Home of Dr. Thomas Walker, noted surveyor and land speculator, who discovered Cumberland Gap. The original house, built in 1765, now forms the rear of a larger, 19th century addition.

Chiswell Lead Mines, Wythe County: Mines first developed by Col. John Chiswell in 1756; an important source of lead for the colonists during the Revolution.

Claremont, Surry County: Example of a T-plan Virginia house, built about 1725.

Draper's Meadows, Blacksburg: Scene of an Indian massacre in 1755 in which Col. James Patton, a noted frontiersman, was killed. It marked the virtual beginning of the French and Indian War in the western part of Virginia.

Elsing Green, King and Queen County: A rare U-plan Virginia house, built in 1754.

Fort Chiswell, Wythe County: Site of an important frontier fort, built in 1760.

Fort Egypt, Page County: A Pennsylvania Swiss log house with stone fort cellar, built 1725-30.

Gadsby's Tavern, Alexandria: A fine example of 18th century Alexandria architecture, built in 1752 and added to in 1790.

George Wythe House, Williamsburg: Built by a noted architect, Richard Taliaferro, for his daughter and son-in-law, the distinguished jurist, George Wythe. An exhibit home of Colonial Williamsburg.

Germanna, Spotsylvania County: Site of a frontier German colony established by Lt. Gov. Alexander Spotswood, who had a palatial home there. Few surface remains are to be found, with the exception of a few chimneys.

Gunston Hall, Fairfax County: The home of George Mason, built 1755-58, and noted for its fine interior woodwork. Treated more fully in Theme XII, Political and Military Affairs, 1783-1830.

Hanover Court House, Hanover County: Built about 1733, and scene of the "Parsons' Cause" in 1763. Treated more fully in Theme X.

Manakintown, Powhatan County: Site of a Huguenot settlement on the James River, 1699-1701 and later.

Matthew Jones House, Fort Eustis: A two-story brick house, built about 1660 and altered 1725-30.

Monticello, Albemarle County: Home of Thomas Jefferson, built between 1772 and 1802. Treated more fully under Theme XII.

Mount Vernon, Fairfax County: Home of George Washington, built about 1743 and remodeled by Washington between 1757 and 1787. Treated more fully under Theme XII.

Pohick Church, Fairfax County: A Colonial parish church, built 1769-74; Washington and George Mason were vestrymen.

St. John's Church, Richmond: Scene of Patrick Henry's "Liberty or Death" speech. Treated more fully under Theme X.

Scotchtown, Hanover County: Home of Patrick Henry, 1771-77, and of Dolly Madison, 1777-83.

Shadwell, Albemarle County: Birthplace of Thomas Jefferson, 1743. No surface remains, though the site has been excavated and a reconstruction is planned.

Shirley, Charles City County: A Carter plantation on the lower James River, built in 1740. Birthplace of the mother of Robert E. Lee.

Springdale, Frederick County: House built by Col. John Hite in 1753. On the property are the ruins of an earlier building, probably erected by Joist Hite, pioneer German settler in the Shenandoah Valley.

Tubal Furnace, Spotsylvania County: Remains of a furnace developed and operated by Lt. Gov. Alexander Spotswood about 1716. Connected with his settlement at Germanna and his port at New Post by the Mine Road.

Tuckahoe, Goochland County: Ancestral home of the Randolph family, built about 1712. Here Thomas Jefferson received his early schooling.

WEST VIRGINIA

Harewood, Jefferson County: A Georgian mansion in traditional design, built about 1770 and attributed to the architect, John Ariss.

Logan Massacre Site, Ohio County: Scene of the incident which provoked Dunmore's War in 1774.

Point Pleasant Battlefield: Site of the defeat of the Shawnees on October 10, 1774, which ended Dunmore's War and temporarily crushed their offensive power. Part of the battlefield included in a State park.

Recommendations for Additional Study

Further study is recommended for five sites, to confirm their authenticity and/or to determine the extent of any physical remains which may exist. Following completion of such studies, each of the sites should be considered anew for possible classification of exceptional value.

Jumonville Glen, Pennsylvania

Traditional site of the skirmish on May 28, 1754, between Virginia troops under Lt. Col. George Washington and a French scouting party under Captain Jumonville, the opening shots of the French and Indian War. A full field and documentary study is needed to authenticate the site.

"Log College," Neshaminy, Pennsylvania

A school founded in 1727 by the Rev. William Tennent, the first educational institution higher than a common school affiliated with the Presbyterian Church. The exact site and the full significance of the institution have not been determined as yet.

Fort Moore, South Carolina

The principal post for the South Carolina fur trade in the early 18th century, located on the Savannah River opposite Augusta, Georgia. The exact location has not been determined at present.

Hard Labor Treaty Site, South Carolina

Site of the important Indian treaty of 1768, by which the Cherokee boundary line was established from Tryon Mountain in the Blue Ridge to Chiswell's Lead Mine on New River, thence to the mouth of the Kanawha River. The exact site is not known, though it is believed to be at or near Whitehall, Greenwood County.

Lucas Plantation, South Carolina

The site of the first successful cultivation of indigo by Eliza Lucas in 1744, which gave such impetus to the economic prosperity of South Carolina. The central portion of the plantation still is intact, but the location of its major physical features remains to be determined.

