SS8H3

**Analyze the role of Georgia in the American Revolutionary Era.**

a. Explain the causes of the American Revolution as they impacted Georgia; include the French and Indian War, Proclamation of 1763, and the Stamp Act.

b. Interpret the three parts of the Declaration of Independence (preamble, grievances, and declaration) and identify the three Georgia signers of the document.

c. Analyze the significance of the Loyalists and Patriots as a part of Georgia's role in the Revolutionary War; include the Battle of Kettle Creek and Siege of Savannah.

d. Analyze the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation and explain how those weaknesses led to the writing of a new federal Constitution.
CHAPTER 8

George Washington as he resigns his commission as Commander-in-Chief of the Army to the Congress. This action helped to establish civilian rather than military rule and aided in the ideological formation of a republic rather than a dictatorship for America.

AT FIRST GLANCE

This chapter covers the American Revolution and Georgia’s participation in it. A timeline of events in the American Revolution is featured throughout the chapter. The basic principles of American government are introduced in the context of the newly developing U.S. government. Formation of Georgia’s first constitutional government is discussed. The stories of Georgia patriots Nancy Hart and Austin Dabney appear in a special feature.

The American Revolution and Georgia Statehood

The Clash of British and American Ideas

The Independence Movement in Georgia

The American Revolution

Constitutional Foundations

After the French and Indian War, the American colonies prospered. Still, colonists were growing restless under British rule. In particular, they didn’t like the way the mercantile system forced them to trade only with Great Britain. More and more, Americans wanted freedom to make or grow whatever they wished and to sell to whomever they pleased. A few colonists began ignoring British laws and carried on smuggling (illegal trade) with French, Dutch, and Spanish merchants.

Taxes were another major source of conflict between Britain and the American colonists. While fighting the French and Indian War, Britain had gone heavily into debt. To help pay off this debt and run its empire, Parliament passed a series of tax laws. Some of these laws, such as the Sugar Act (1764) and the Townshend Act (1767), placed duties (taxes on imports) on products coming into the colonies. Incoming goods that were taxed included sugar, coffee, tea, wine, paper, lead, glass, and paint. The Stamp Act (1765), which required that all printed paper used in the colonies bear a tax stamp purchased from the government, was strongly opposed.

American colonists protested loudly to Parliament. At home, they began to take action to show their discontent. Groups such as the Sons of Liberty were formed to stir people to action. Some colonists boycotted (refused to buy) goods that were taxed and instead smuggled non-British goods into the colonies. Sometimes officials trying to collect the new taxes were met with threats and even attacks. Parliament finally backed down and repealed most of these unpopular taxes. But by then, an anti-British attitude had formed in the minds of many colonists.
Vocabulary

1. **Smuggling** - To carry on illegal trade.
2. **Duties** - Tax paid on imports.
3. **Boycott** - To refuse to use or buy something as a protest or as a way to force change.
The Clash of British and American Ideas

The views of American colonists on government and economics were influenced by several important ideas they brought from Britain.

One of these ideas was the concept of consent of the governed. This means that government should rule only so long as its citizens consent (or agree) to be governed. If the people become unhappy with their government or it no longer can protect them, that government loses its right to govern. If it refuses to step down, the people have the right to rebel.

Related to the idea of consent is that of representative government. This means that people have the right to elect persons to represent them and make political decisions that affect their lives. These elected representatives must be able to assemble in legislative bodies to make laws and set taxes.

A third idea colonists brought from Britain was the concept of limited government. This means that the power of government is limited by “natural law.” The theory of natural law says that people have natural rights—which come from God or nature—that government cannot take away. The most basic of these are life, liberty, and property.

In addition, American colonists had developed their own
ideas about self-government. They held town meetings to handle local problems, such as building roads. They had colonial legislatures to make laws on such matters as taxes and maintaining a militia (a unit of citizen soldiers). From these experiences, Americans came to believe that only their own elected representatives should pass laws and set taxes in the colonies.

RESENTMENT AND CONFLICT

Many Americans resented Britain’s effort to impose new laws and taxes on the colonies. First, taxes passed by Parliament (for whose members Americans could not vote) violated the colonists’ right to be taxed only by their own elected representatives. Second, Americans were supposed to enjoy the rights of British citizens, but often their legal rights were ignored. For instance, some British laws permitted government officers to search homes without a specific search warrant. Persons accused of smuggling could be brought before military courts with no rights to trial by jury.

As public protests and violence against government officials grew, Britain sent more troops to enforce the unpopular laws. Sometimes Parliament required colonial legislatures to come up with the money for housing soldiers in inns, taverns, and other locations. This only added to the trouble.

American anger at British policies was greatest in the northern colonies. Soldiers were booed in the streets, and sometimes eggs or snowballs were thrown at them. In 1770, one skirmish got out of hand. Several British soldiers, attacked by a crowd, were rescued by fellow troops. As the crowd pressed around them, the soldiers panicked and opened fire. Five people fell dead, and six were wounded. Soon word of the “Boston Massacre” spread across

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**EVENTS LEADING TO THE WAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1763</td>
<td>French and Indian War leaves Britain with large debt from defending American colonies</td>
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<tr>
<td>1764</td>
<td>Sugar Act: tax on sugar, molasses, coffee, indigo, and wine to raise money for Britain</td>
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</table>
| 1765 | Stamp Act: requires tax stamped printed items and documents  
Quartering Act: requires colonists to house British soldiers and provide certain supplies |
| 1767 | Townshend Acts: tax on glass, lead, paper, paints, and tea |
| 1770 | March: Boston Massacre  
April: Townshend Acts repealed |
| 1772 | Colonists establish Committees of Correspondence to communicate with other colonies |
| 1773 | May: Tea Act: tax on tea  
December: Boston Tea Party |
| 1774 | First Continental Congress meets; all colonies present except Georgia |
the colonies, carrying with it the flame of American discontent.

THE FINAL STRAW

In 1773, Parliament passed the Tea Act, which gave one British company a monopoly—or exclusive right—to sell tea to America. Tea was a very popular drink, but many colonists refused to buy the company’s tea, even though it was priced cheaply. They felt it was being forced on them by Britain. Meanwhile, some colonial merchants who had been illegally importing Dutch tea felt the new monopoly would threaten their businesses. On the night of December 16, 1773, members of the Sons of Liberty dumped several shiploads of British tea into the Boston harbor. In other ports, tea was also dumped overboard or burned.

To punish Massachusetts and control the colonies, Parliament passed several harsh measures. These included (1) closing the port of Boston until the tea was paid for, (2) not allowing the people of Massachusetts to elect their own officials or hold town meetings, and (3) requiring the people in all the colonies to feed and house British soldiers.

1775 : THE CRISIS DEEPENS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APRIL</th>
<th>Battles at Lexington and Concord</th>
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<tr>
<td>MAY</td>
<td>Second Continental Congress meets, decides to send King George III a petition</td>
</tr>
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| JUNE         | 1. George Washington appointed head of Continental Army  
|              | 2. Battle of Bunker Hill and Breed’s Hill |
| AUGUST       | King George III declares American colonies to be in rebellion |

The Boston Massacre.
On March 5, 1770, British troops fired on a crowd of colonists. Among the first men killed in the American Revolution was Crispus Attucks, a former slave. Paul Revere, a patriot and a silversmith, made an engraving of this event on copper so that it could be reprinted. His picture helped arouse anti-British feelings throughout the colonies.
These “intolerable acts,” as they were called by the colonists, only increased opposition to Britain. Patriots in each colony joined in protest. The First Continental Congress, with delegates from all colonies except Georgia, met in Philadelphia and agreed to boycott all British goods. In incidents around the colonies, government officials were attacked or run out of town. British goods were burned, and persons openly loyal to Britain were tarred and feathered (smeared with tar and covered with feathers as a punishment). Britain sent more troops to the colonies to control the situation.

Finally, on April 19, 1775, Massachusetts “minutemen” and British troops battled at Lexington and Concord. It was, as later described, “the shot heard ’round the world.”

News of the battles spread quickly throughout the colonies. Colonial assemblies voted to raise militias to defend themselves against the British. The war for American independence had begun.

Encouraged by patriots such as Samuel Adams, the Sons of Liberty boarded British ships and dumped 15,000 pounds of tea into the Boston harbor.

**Locating the Main Ideas**

1. **Define:** smuggling, duties, boycott, natural law, militia, monopoly

2. **Identify:** Sons of Liberty, Crispus Attucks, Paul Revere, representative government, Boston Massacre

3. In what ways did American colonists gain experience in self-government?

4. List two reasons why American colonists resented Great Britain imposing new laws and taxes on them.
THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS ACTS

In May 1775, the Second Continental Congress convened in Philadelphia. This Congress became the acting government for the American colonies. This time Georgia sent five delegates to Philadelphia. These colonial representatives had to decide what to do. Would it be war or peace? The delegates decided to prepare for both.

On June 15, 1775, the Congress named George Washington as commander in chief of the Continental Army. Two days later, American forces repelled three British assaults at the Battle of Bunker Hill (actually fought on Breed’s Hill) before running out of gunpowder and being forced to retreat.

In July, delegates sent King George III a petition (a formal written request) stating their loyalty to him but asking him to stop Britain’s hostile actions against the colonies. In London, King George refused to accept their petition. Instead, he declared the colonists in a state of rebellion. Parliament banned all trade with America.
American colonists remained divided, but the independence movement gained strength throughout the spring of 1776. Finally, in May, delegates to the Second Continental Congress voted to instruct each of the colonies to prepare for the end of British rule. Delegates debated how and when to announce a formal break from Great Britain.

On July 4, 1776, the Second Continental Congress took action, adopting the Declaration of Independence. All the delegates signed the document, including Georgia’s delegation—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, and George Walton.

This revolutionary document, written mainly by Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, included the following ideas:

All men are created equal.

Everyone is born with certain rights that government cannot take away—namely life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

Government gets its power from the people.

The people can do away with a government they no longer approve of.

The declaration ended with the bold proclamation that “these United Colonies are . . . Free and Independent States.” All political connections between the new states and Great Britain were dissolved.

On paper at least, the 13 American colonies were now independent “states” united in their desire for freedom from Great Britain. At that time, state was another word for nation. Both terms referred to an independent country with its own government. Only later did “state” come to have an additional meaning in America as a level of government below that of the nation.

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. Define: petition, Declaration of Independence, state, nation

2. Identify: Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton, Thomas Jefferson

3. What did delegates request of King George III regarding their situation in America? How did the king respond?
Vocabulary

1. **Natural law** - A theory that people have natural rights that come from God or nature.
2. **Militia** - A military unit of citizens who are not professional soldiers.
3. **Monopoly** - Exclusive right to act or conduct business without competition.
4. **Petition** - 1: A formal written request. 2: A written document signed by a certain number of voters for some purpose, such as listing an independent candidate on the general election ballot.
5. **Declaration of Independence** - The document adopted by delegates from the 13 American colonies in 1776 proclaiming their independence from Great Britain and their new status as free states.
6. **State** - One of 50 political units that make up the United States; the level of government below that of the nation.
7. **Nation** - An independent country with its own government.
The Independence Movement in Georgia

In 1775, the battles at Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts signaled the beginning of the American Revolution. In Savannah, patriots greeted the news with great excitement. They openly defied Georgia’s royal government. They raided the colony’s gunpowder storehouse and disrupted Governor Wright’s celebration of the king’s birthday. Amid much confusion, the royal government began to fall apart.

GEORGIA CHOSES SIDES

Georgia was much younger than the other American colonies and didn’t have a long history of self-government. Also, along the coast a number of Georgians had become wealthy from trade with Great Britain. Under the royal governor, Sir James Wright, the colony had grown and prospered. Thus, when northern colonies began pushing for freedom from Britain, Georgia was not quick to join in.

Loyalty to Great Britain was strongest in coastal Georgia. Far inland, backcountry Georgians were far more likely to want independence. However, even in coastal Georgia, support of the mother country began to weaken. Georgians soon began to take sides. As in the other colonies, anti-British Georgians were known as Whigs and later as “patriots.” Supporters of Britain were called Tories or “loyalists.”

Differences with Britain sometimes caused a split within families. Typically, first-generation Georgians were loyalists, tied to England by tradition, friends and relatives, and strong memories of their mother country. Noble Jones and James Habersham, two of the earliest Georgia colonists, never wavered in their support of King George III and royal government. On the other hand, their Georgia-born children often joined in the fight for liberty. Noble Wimberly Jones and the three Habersham boys—James Jr., John, and...
For a while, Georgia had two governments. Britain’s royal government, headed by Sir James Wright, and the Whigs’ provisional (temporary) government. The days of royal government, however, were numbered as anti-British sentiment built in Georgia.

Gradually, the Whigs took over Georgia’s militia, removing Tory officers. They approved new taxes to finance Georgia’s defense against British attack. They also took control of the courts and other government activities—such as handling Indian relations. Governor Wright was powerless. He watched as his royal authority crumbled.

In January 1776, Whig forces arrested Governor Wright, who managed to escape to the safety of a waiting British warship. This meant the end of the royal government, at least for the time being. Many Georgians still remained loyal to King George. Political control, however, now rested with Whig factions.

Created in 1775, the Grand Union flag showed the British Union Jack on a field of 13 red and white stripes representing the 13 colonies. The flag design showed loyalty to Great Britain and unity among the American Colonies.

ROYAL GOVERNMENT COMES TO AN END

In July 1775, a “Provincial Congress” of delegates from Georgia’s parishes met in Savannah. The delegates voted to join the other colonies in a complete boycott of trade with Great Britain. The Whigs also set up a “Council of Safety” to enforce the boycott and to work with other colonies.

Joseph—became political and military leaders in the Whig cause.

EVENTS LOOK BLEAK

| 1777 - 1778 | Washington and troops spend cold winter at Valley Forge; Baron von Steuben instructs soldiers in military drill |
| 1778        | Savannah recaptured by the British |
| 1779        | Royal governor returns to Georgia; Americans lay siege to Savannah; Count Pulaski killed |
CHAPTER 8 • THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION AND GEORGIA STATEHOOD

REACTION IN GEORGIA TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

Although it was signed on July 4, 1776, news of the Declaration of Independence did not reach Georgia for a month. In early August, the declaration was read publicly in Savannah. Patriots fired cannons and staged a mock funeral for King George III. Other Georgians, however, did not share in the celebration.

Some 1,500 Tories decided to leave Georgia. Some left for East and West Florida or went to British colonies in the Caribbean; some returned to Britain. Many loyalists, however, stayed to protect their property, but kept quiet about their feelings toward Britain.

PROBLEMS OF THE NEW STATE GOVERNMENT

In May 1777, Georgia’s first constitution went into effect. The House of Assembly named John Adam Treutlen the first governor of the state. Georgia’s political leaders, however, faced great difficulties. Thousands of people were still loyal to King George III and wanted to see the new government fail. Even more of a problem was a power struggle among different Whig groups.

Bitter feelings between members of a radical backcountry party and a conservative city party led to the death of one of Georgia’s signers of the Declaration of Independence. In the 1700s, it was common for a gentleman to defend his honor to the death with sword or pistol.

Button Gwinnett was one of three Georgia delegates to sign the Declaration of Independence. In 1818, the legislature named a new county for him.
When conservative Lachlan McIntosh publicly called radical Button Gwinnett “a scoundrel and lying rascal,” Gwinnett challenged him to a duel. On May 16, 1777, the rivals exchanged pistol shots outside Savannah. Both were wounded and Gwinnett died three days later.

Of course, the biggest difficulty facing the new government was war with Great Britain.
Vocabulary

1. **Whigs** - American colonists, also called “patriots,” who opposed British government before and during the American Revolution.

2. **Tories** - American colonists, also called “loyalists,” who supported the British government before and during the American Revolution.
The American Revolution

The sparks that lit the American Revolution had come from the northern colonies. The first bloodshed occurred in Massachusetts at Lexington and Concord in April 1775, followed two months later with the Battle of Bunker Hill near Boston.

George Washington, commander of the newly authorized Continental Army, turned his attention to raising an army. During the war, almost 500,000 Americans would fight on behalf of the American cause.

In late 1775, Patriot troops marched into British Canada hoping colonists there would become allies of the Americans. The Patriots captured Montreal but suffered a stunning defeat at Quebec. In July 1776, British troops captured New York City.
Several months later they invaded New Jersey. On Christmas night, George Washington led his army across the Delaware River and defeated the British the next morning at the Battle of Trenton. Several days later, the Americans won another victory at the Battle of Princeton.

British generals attempted to take the offensive in 1777, winning a victory at Brandywine Creek but suffering a major defeat at Saratoga. British forces then attempted to concentrate on the South.

WAR COMES TO GEORGIA

With British troops occupied in the North, Georgia was spared from battles during the early years of war. Still, there was no real peace at home. Only about one-third of the Georgians were Whigs. Another third were Tories, and the rest remained neutral, waiting to see what would happen. From 1776 to 1778, with the Whigs in control, some of the Tories were driven out of Georgia, their property taken over by the state. In addition to this fighting between Georgians, fights erupted between Georgia patriots and loyalists in East Florida. On three occasions, Georgia forces participated in failed attempts to capture the British garrison at St. Augustine.

Counting on the help of loyalists and Indian allies, Britain in 1778 decided to try to regain control of the Carolinas and Georgia. In December, a British army from New York reached Savannah. A force of 700 patriots faced more than 2,000 British soldiers. The battle was over quickly. More than 100 of the American defenders were dead, and 450 captured. Georgia’s Whig government barely escaped. British troops moved on to Sunbury, Augusta,
and Ebenezer. By the end of January 1779, every important town in Georgia was in the hands of the British.

Meanwhile, Sir James Wright, who had fled in 1776, returned to Savannah to reestablish royal authority. Many loyalists came out of hiding to openly support British authority. Some wealthy coastal planters did take an oath of allegiance to the king, but the backcountry farmers held out for independence.

Far inland from the coast, state leaders tried to carry on the fight, meeting wherever they could. The British and the Tories, however, kept them on the run.

SLAVES JOIN THE FIGHT

Prior to the American Revolution, almost half of Georgia’s 33,000 inhabitants were black slaves. During the war some slaves helped the patriots. However, far more earned their freedom by siding with the British. Why? Early in 1776, British commanders began offering freedom to any slave who would join their fight against the American colonists. Eventually, this offer was extended to include the family and relatives of each black recruit. For black slaves, it was not a matter of disloyalty. Rather, to them, freedom from slavery was more important than freedom from Great Britain.

In some cases, slaves helped the British not as soldiers but as spies or guides. In the December 1778 battle for Savannah, Quamino Dolly led a British invasion force through little-known swamp paths to bypass a patriot force. Because of his help, the British were able to attack the Americans from the rear and win a total victory, capturing Savannah.

After Savannah’s capture, British-occupied areas of coastal Georgia became a haven for escaping slaves. By war’s end, as many
as 10,000 Georgia slaves had won freedom by siding with the British. After Americans won the revolution, some of the blacks who had fled to Georgia’s coast were reenslaved. However, many fled to Indian territories in extreme south Georgia and Florida. Some were evacuated to Canada or other British colonies in the Caribbean.

**BATTLE OF KETTLE CREEK**

Early in 1779, at Kettle Creek in Wilkes County, Lt. Col. Elijah Clarke led a force of Georgia patriots in an attack against British loyalists. Aided by South Carolinians, the patriots scattered the Tories, killing their British commander.

Although the Battle of Kettle Creek didn’t involve large armies, it was important to the patriot cause. The patriots gained badly needed arms, ammunition, and horses. Also, their victory won over many Georgians who had been lukewarm in their support of the war. Never again were the Tories able to gather a large force in the backcountry.

**SIEGE OF SAVANNAH**

During the fall of 1779, patriots—aided by France, which had joined the American side—tried desperately to retake Savannah. An American army and a French fleet laid siege to the city for three weeks. After a fierce bombardment, the

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**TURNING POINT**

**1780**

General Charles Cornwallis captures Charleston, moves north losing battles at Kings Mountain, Cowpens, Guilford Court House

**1781**

**OCTOBER 18**

British under Cornwallis surrender at Yorktown, Virginia while the British army band plays “The World Turned Upside Down”

**1783**

Treaty of Paris signed, officially ending the war
Americans attempted to take the city by storm. In a daring cavalry charge, Count Casimir Pulaski, a Polish nobleman who had come to America to help the patriots, was killed. The attack failed.

In the end, the British were able to hold Savannah and lost only 150 men. The Americans and their allies had 1,000 men killed or wounded and gained nothing.

THE END OF THE WAR

During 1780, the British controlled most of Georgia. It was the only one of the 13 former colonies in which the king’s government was restored. However, the Whigs and the Tories continued their bitter fighting in the backcountry. Families were driven from their lands, their homes burned, their livestock killed, and their crops destroyed.

In 1781, the Whigs recaptured Augusta. Overall, though, the patriot cause looked bleak, despite the entry of Spain and France as American allies. British general Charles Cornwallis had moved his army to Yorktown, Virginia, in an attempt to take control of the South. Aided by a French fleet, the patriots were able to mount a siege. As General Washington prepared to attack the British, Cornwallis surrendered his army. For all practical purposes, this marked the end of the American Revolution.

However, it took a while for the British to withdraw their troops. In the spring of 1782, the Tories and the British troops gave up Georgia. As the American troops marched joyfully into Savannah, more than 2,000 Tories and their slaves left the state. All of Georgia was once again under control of its own government.

The American Revolution ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1783. Georgia, along with the other former colonies, was now a free
and independent state. However, all its troubles were not over.

During the revolution, Spain had joined the struggle and seized West Florida from the British. As part of the peace treaty, Britain had to return East and West Florida to Spain. But the United States disagreed with Spain over the northern boundary of West Florida. For the next 12 years, ownership of a sizeable area of Georgia’s western land was in dispute.

American Indians, some of whom had taken the British side in the war, also held to their territories along Georgia’s frontier. Georgia now faced some of the same problems as before the war. This time, however, the problems would be handled by a state, not a colony.

LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS

1 Identify: Elijah Clarke, Casimir Pulaski, Treaty of Paris (1783)

2 Give reasons why the British may have decided Georgia was a good target for them to recapture.

3 Why were slaves willing to aid the British? What did Quamino Dolly do?

4 What was the importance of the Battle of Kettle Creek?

5 At war’s end, how did Spain benefit from its decision to side with the Americans?
During the war, few records were kept. The heroic deeds of the patriots, however, spread by word of mouth. Years later, people still talked about them. During the 1800s, people wrote down different versions of these stories.

The stories presented here are adapted from versions published in 1854. Because the persons writing them down did not witness the events, these are secondary, not primary, sources. Although they are a blend of fact and fiction, they give us a look into the lives of the backcountry patriots.

Aunt Nancy Hart

The Rev. Mr. Snead of Baldwin County, a connection of the Hart family, says he remembers Aunt Nancy, as she was usually called. He describes her as being about six feet high, very muscular, and erect in her gait [walk].
Among the stories about her is the following from Mrs. Ellet’s “Women of the Revolution”:

On an excursion from the British camp at Augusta, a party of Tories penetrated the interior. They savagely murdered Colonel John Dooly in bed in his own house. They then proceeded up the country to commit further outrages. On their way, five of them crossed the Broad River to pay a visit to their old acquaintance, Nancy Hart.

On reaching her cabin, they entered it unceremoniously, receiving from her no welcome but a scowl. They ordered her to give them something to eat. She replied, “I never feed king’s men if I can help it. The villains have put it out of my power to feed even my own family and friends. They have stolen and killed all my poultry and pigs, except that one old gobbler you see in the yard.”

“Well, and that you shall cook for us,” said one, who appeared to be the head of the party. Raising his musket, he shot down the turkey and handed it to Mrs. Hart. She stormed and swore awhile—for Nancy occasionally swore. But at last she agreed to cook it, assisted by her daughter, Sukey, who was some 10 or 12 years old. Nancy now seemed in a good humor, exchanging jests with the Tories. They invited her to partake of the liquor they had brought with them.

Before cleaning and cooking the turkey, Mrs. Hart sent Sukey to the spring, a short distance from the house, for water. At the spring was kept a conch shell. It was used as a crude trumpet by the family to give information, by means of various notes, to Mr. Hart, or his neighbors, who might be at work in a field. Mrs. Hart had directed Sukey to blow the conch in such a way as to inform her husband that Tories were in the cabin.

Later, after they had become merry over their jug, the Tories sat down to feast on the slaughtered gobbler. They had cautiously stacked their arms where they were within view and within reach. Mrs. Hart attended to her guests at the table and occasionally passed between them and their muskets. She had slipped out one of the pieces of pine chinking between the logs of the cabin. Then she put out of the house, through that space, two of the five guns.

She was detected in putting out the third. The men sprang to their feet. Quick as a thought, Mrs. Hart brought the gun she held to her shoulder and declared she would kill the first man who approached her. All were terror-struck. At length one of them made a motion to advance upon her. True to her threat, she fired. He fell dead upon the floor! Instantly seizing another musket, she brought it to the position of readiness to fire again.
Sukey, who had returned from the spring, took up the remaining gun and announced, “Daddy and them will soon be here.” This information increased the alarm of the Tories. They proposed a general rush.

No time was to be lost by the bold woman; she fired again and brought down another Tory. Sukey had the other musket in readiness. Her mother took it, and positioning herself in the doorway, called upon the party to surrender.

Her husband and his neighbors came up to the door. They were about to shoot down the Tories. Mrs. Hart stopped them, saying they had surrendered to her. She swore that “shooting was too good for them.” The dead man was dragged out of the house. The wounded Tory and the others were bound, taken out, and hanged.

The tree upon which they were hanged was pointed out, in 1838, by a person who lived in those bloody times. This person also showed the spot once occupied by Mrs. Hart’s cabin, with the remark, “Poor Nancy—she was a honey of a patriot, but the devil of a wife.”

Austin Dabney

The following account of Austin Dabney, a remarkable “freeman of color,” was given by Governor Gilmer:

In the beginning of the revolutionary conflict, a man by the name of Aycock moved to Wilkes County. He brought with him a mulatto boy, named Austin, who passed as Aycock’s slave.

As the conflict in that area became bitter, Aycock was called on to join the fight. He wasn’t much of a fighter, though, and offered the mulatto boy as a substitute. The patriots objected, saying that a slave could not be a soldier. Thereupon, Aycock admitted that the mulatto boy was born free. Austin was then accepted into service, and the captain to whose company he was attached added Dabney to his name.

Dabney proved himself a good soldier in many a skirmish with the British and Tories. He fought under Colonel John Dooly and was with Colonel Elijah Clarke in the battle at Kettle Creek. At Kettle Creek, he was severely wounded by a rifleball passing through his thigh. He was taken into the house of a Mr. Harris, where he was kindly cared for until he recovered. The wound made him a cripple for life. Dabney was unable to do further military duty and afterwards labored for Harris and his family.
After the war, when prosperous times came again, Austin Dabney acquired property. Later, he moved to Madison County, carrying with him his benefactor and family. Here he became noted for his fondness for horse racing and he betted to the extent of his means. His means were aided by a pension, which he received from the United States on account of his injury.

In the distribution of the public lands by lottery among the people of Georgia, the legislature gave Dabney some land in the county of Walton. At the election for members of the legislature the year after, the County of Madison was divided. They voted according to whether the candidates were for Dabney or against him. People were incensed that a mulatto should receive a gift of land. Some felt such gifts belonged to the white freemen of Georgia.

Dabney soon after moved to the land given him by the state and carried with him the Harris family. He continued to labor for them and contributed whatever he made to their support, except what he needed for his own clothing and food. He sent the eldest son of Harris to Franklin College and afterwards supported him while he studied law. When Harris was undergoing his examination, Austin waited outside. When his young friend was sworn in, he burst into a flood of tears. Upon his death, Austin Dabney left the Harris family all his property.

INTERPRETING THE SOURCE

1 What is likely to happen to stories of heroic people as they are told and retold over time? Do you think it has happened in these stories?

2 How did Mrs. Hart warn her husband of the presence of Tories?

3 How did Mr. Dabney repay the Harris family for taking care of him after he was wounded in the Battle of Kettle Creek?
Constitutional Foundations

A constitution is the fundamental plan of operation for a government. As the highest level of law, it spells out what government can and cannot do. It sets up the different branches of government, identifies major offices in each branch, and says how each office is to be filled. A constitution may also spell out important rights and liberties of the people.

**GEORGIA’S FIRST CONSTITUTION**

In April 1776, Georgia’s Provincial Congress adopted a set of “Rules and Regulations” as a temporary constitution. In clear language, its preamble (introduction) proclaimed the concept of popular sovereignty—that government rests on the will of the people:

This Congress, therefore, as the representatives of the people, with whom all power originates, and for whose benefit all government is intended . . .

do declare, order, and direct that the following rules and regulations be adopted in this Province . . .

As a state, Georgia needed a more permanent form of government than the “Rules and Regulations.” An election was called to select delegates to write a new constitution.

By February 1777, the convention had completed its work. The preamble to the new constitution recognized the important principle of popular sovereignty. The very first article of the new constitution, however, introduced a new principle—that of separation of powers:

The legislative, executive, and judiciary departments shall be separate and distinct, so that neither exercise the powers properly belonging to the other.
Although Georgia’s 1777 constitution appeared to create three independent branches of government, in reality the legislative branch was supreme. The constitution set up a unicameral (one-house) legislature. Unlike Georgia’s state government today, there was not a second house acting as a safeguard against hastily passed laws. The legislature, called the House of Assembly, was given broad authority to enact laws. It also had power to appoint officials in the executive and judicial branches.

Because of their experience with royal governors under British rule, framers of Georgia’s 1777 constitution severely weakened executive power in the new state government. For example, legislators elected the governor, who only had a one-year term and could not succeed himself in office. The governor could not veto legislation. In fact, just the opposite was true. The legislature elected 12 of its own members to serve as an executive council, with veto power over the governor. The power to grant pardons, traditionally an executive function, was placed in the hands of the legislature. This left the governor as chief executive in name only.

The constitution set up eight counties to replace the colonial parishes. Each county would have its own officials, courthouse, courthouse, Independence Hall, Philadelphia. Both the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States were signed here.
schools, and militia. To settle disputes, each county had a court, called the superior court. The constitution stated how cases were to be tried.

THE NATION’S FIRST CONSTITUTION

With the Revolutionary War under way, many delegates felt the Continental Congress needed some form of legal authority if British forces were to be defeated. In November 1777, delegates adopted a formal basis for union—the Articles of Confederation. This document was then sent to each of the states for approval, a process that was finally completed on March 1, 1781. It strengthened the union of the American states and served as the first constitution for the new nation.

The Articles created a new union of states, but it was a weak union. Even though they were at war, most Americans feared a strong central government—even though tradition holds that Betsy Ross designed and sewed the first U.S. flag, the real designer was probably Francis Hopkinson. Early flags had 13 stars in a circle, though designs varied.
one of their own creation. Also, a number of Americans felt a stronger allegiance to their state than to some new national union of states.

The Articles created a national government with only one branch, a unicameral legislature. The Confederation Congress had few powers to govern the nation. For instance, it could not levy (impose) taxes or regulate trade between the states. There was no president to carry out the laws nor any court system to handle grievances.

Under the Articles, each state had an equal vote in Congress, regardless of size or population. In effect, the United States was a confederation, or partnership, of independent, equal states. A few powers had been delegated to a weak central government, but most power remained with the states.

After the American Revolution, the 13 states faced the challenge of forging a stronger nation. Across the country, the economy was shaky. In some places, business was almost at a standstill. State governments discouraged trade by taxing the products of other states. Some of them issued nearly worthless paper money that many merchants refused to accept.

In 1786, the state of Massachusetts levied taxes to pay the war debt. The following year, George Washington presided over the 1787 convention that drafted the U.S. Constitution. Two years later, he was elected as the nation’s first president.
year, led by Daniel Shays, disgruntled citizens rebelled. Shays’s Rebellion was quickly put down by the state militia, but it caused alarm throughout the country. Other states argued over boundaries and the control of navigation and shipping on interstate rivers. Political leaders now realized that a stronger central government was needed.

In May 1787, delegates from every state except Rhode Island met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, to tackle a big problem—how to revise the Articles of Confederation. But delegates soon were at work on a different task—drafting a new constitution for the nation.

Georgia sent four delegates to the Philadelphia Convention of 1787—William Pierce, William Houstoun, William Few, and Abraham Baldwin. All four supported the constitution drafted at the convention, but only Few and Baldwin remained in Philadelphia for the signing.

During the convention proceedings, Georgia’s delegates looked after their state’s interests in the new union. Since Georgia was a slaveholding state, they opposed a ban on slavery, which some northern delegates wanted. They also supported creating a strong central government. At the time, Georgia needed help from the union in defending its vast frontier from Creek Indian raids.

**CONVENTION COMPROMISES**

For four months, delegates to the Philadelphia Convention debated, often bitterly. There were many difficult issues to resolve.

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. **Define:** constitution, preamble, popular sovereignty, separation of powers, unicameral, Articles of Confederation, levy, confederation

2. Why was it important to the rebelling Georgia colonists to include the concept of popular sovereignty in their temporary constitution?

3. Why was Georgia’s Constitution of 1777 written to give the legislative branch the most power?

4. Why were Americans interested in creating a weak union of states under the Articles of Confederation?
One of the biggest concerns of the convention, and one that almost broke up the gathering, was the question of representation in the proposed Congress. Would states with large populations get more representatives than states with small populations? Or would every state, no matter what its size, get an equal number of votes? A critical vote by Georgia’s Abraham Baldwin kept the convention together and allowed a compromise to be made.

Among the other issues decided by delegates was the division of power between states and the national government. Under the new constitution, state and national governments would function side by side, each with certain powers spelled out, in what is called a federal system. In some areas—such as defense, interstate commerce, and foreign relations—the national government would be supreme. In other areas—such as roads and taxes—both states and the central government would have powers to act.

Finally, on a great number of issues, states would be free to act without national interference. Reserved state powers included organization of state government, creation of cities and counties, and marriage and divorce laws.

To prevent the national government from growing too powerful, the delegates at Philadelphia divided its powers among three separate branches. They created a legislative branch to make the laws, an executive branch to carry out the laws, and a judicial branch to interpret the laws and settle legal disputes. Into the new constitution was built a plan of checks and balances to prevent any of the branches from overpowering the others. Each branch had certain powers to check the others and keep a balance of power.
GEORGIA RATIFIES THE CONSTITUTION

On September 17, 1787, convention delegates gave their final approval to the new constitution. One step remained for the new constitution to go into effect: **ratification** (formal approval) by nine states.

Despite all the problems with the Articles of Confederation, not all Americans supported the proposed constitution. Some thought that the national government was too powerful. They also worried that the constitution contained no list of rights and liberties protected from government interference.

Most Georgians welcomed the idea of a stronger national government. They needed the help and protection a strong national government could provide in defending the frontier against the Indian population. Also, there were promises that a **bill of rights** would be added once the constitution was ratified. That, along with compromises in the constitution, would keep the national government from becoming too strong and not protecting individual liberties.

On January 2, 1788, Georgia became the fourth state to ratify the Constitution of the United States, following Delaware, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. A year later, the new national government took over, and George Washington was elected as the first president of the United States.

STATE GOVERNMENT

In 1789, Georgia adopted a new state constitution, one more in line with the new national constitution. Like the national Congress, the Georgia
legislature would now be **bicameral**\(^\text{16}\) (or two-house), with a Senate and a House of Representatives.

As in the 1777 constitution, Georgia’s state government would have three branches. But unlike the federal government, the branches were not balanced. Most real power rested with the legislature (known as the **General Assembly**\(^\text{17}\)). Legislators controlled raising and spending money; chose the governor, the judges, and other state officials; and even granted divorces.

The highest courts in the state were the **superior courts**\(^\text{18}\). Superior court judges traveled a regular “circuit” from city to city by horseback or stagecoach. They handled the most serious cases in several counties. Each county had an **inferior court**\(^\text{19}\) for less serious cases, and each community had a justice of the peace court to handle minor matters.

**LOOKING AHEAD**

By 1789, both Georgia and the nation had new constitutions. Georgia, one of the largest states in area, stretched across present-day Alabama and Mississippi to the Mississippi River. Included in this area were large numbers of Cherokee, Creek, Chickasaw, and other Native Americans. Yet, in terms of nonnative population, Georgia was the smallest of the 13 states. Attracting new settlers would help protect Georgia’s exposed frontier. It would also mean more population and voting strength in Congress. Because of this, Georgia’s destiny depended on growth. ■

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. **Define:** federal, legislative, executive, judicial, checks and balances, ratification, bill of rights, bicameral, General Assembly, superior court, inferior court

2. Why did delegates to the constitutional convention divide the new government into three separate branches?

3. Why were Georgians in favor of the new Constitution and a stronger national government?

4. What was Georgia’s population ranking among the 13 states? Why was population growth important to Georgia’s future?

U.S. quarter issued in 1999 to commemorate Georgia’s ratification of the U.S. Constitution on January 2, 1788
1. **Constitution** - The legal document that authorizes a state or national government to exist. A constitution usually outlines the fundamental principles, form, major officials, and power of a government.

2. **Preamble** - An introductory statement to a legal document.

3. **Popular sovereignty** - The idea that government must be based on the will of the people.

4. **Separation of powers** - A division of government power among separate branches, each with distinct roles and powers.

5. **Unicameral** - Consisting of only one house or chamber, as was the case in Georgia’s legislature from 1777 to 1789.

6. **Articles of Confederation** - The agreement signed by the 13 original states setting up the first national government for the United States, in force from 1781 to 1789.

7. **Levy** - To impose or set, as in the case of a government levying taxes.

8. **Confederation** - A loose union of sovereign states in which the central government is given limited power.


10. **Legislative** - Relating to the branch of government that makes the laws.

11. **Executive** - Relating to the branch of government that carries out the laws.

12. **Judicial** - Relating to the branch of government that settles legal arguments, interprets law, and decides issues of constitutionality.
Checks and balances - A plan built into the U.S. and state constitutions to keep the three branches of government from overpowering each other.

Ratification - Formal approval of a proposed action.

Bill of rights - Fundamental rights and freedoms guaranteed to U.S. citizens by the Constitution's first 10 amendments.

Bicameral - Consisting of two houses or chambers. The legislatures of the United States and Georgia are bicameral, each having a Senate and House of Representatives.

General Assembly - The official name of Georgia's state legislature.

Superior courts - Georgia general trial court with original jurisdiction over most criminal and civil matters.

Inferior court - A court that handles minor cases.
Abraham Baldwin: A GEORGIAN AND THE GREAT COMPROMISE

The debate over equal representation in Congress came to a head on July 2, 1787. Both sides were dug in, and delegates from the smaller states were determined to leave the convention if they didn’t get equal representation. The roll was called. Georgia voted last. When its turn came, the issue was tied. Georgia’s delegation, now down to Baldwin and Houstoun, could break the tie. Houstoun voted with the large states. To many people’s surprise, Baldwin voted with the small states.

By splitting Georgia’s vote, the question remained a tie. The convention had no choice but to turn the matter over to a committee. By his action, Baldwin gave the delegates a chance to fashion what has been called the Great Compromise.

Delegates agreed that Congress would consist of two houses—a House of Representatives and a Senate. In the House, states would be represented according to their population. In the Senate, each state would have two senators without regard for the size of its population.
# Key Constitutional Compromises

<table>
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| **The Great Compromise**  
*also called the Connecticut Compromise because it was proposed by Roger Sherman of Connecticut* | In the legislative branch, states with large populations wanted representation based on population. States with small populations wanted equal representation.  
Congress was created with a Senate (with two senators per state) and a House of Representatives (with the number of representatives based on population). |
| **The Three-Fifths Compromise**                                         | How to count the slaves for the purposes of taxation and representation in the House of Representatives?  
Only three out of every five slaves were counted for taxation and representation. |
| **The Commerce Compromise**                                            | Who would regulate trade with foreign nations and among the states? The South’s economy depended on free trade.  
Congress would regulate all trade. It could impose tariffs on imports only. The tariffs had to apply throughout the country. |
| **The Slave Trade Compromise**                                         | As a result of the Commerce Compromise, Congress would regulate trade. Did that mean Congress could also prohibit the slave trade by law and tax slaves as imports?  
Congress was prohibited from regulating the slave trade for 20 years (until 1808). During that time, the import tax could not exceed $10. |
CHAPTER 8 QUIZ
SS8H4

Explain significant factors that affected westward expansion in Georgia between 1789 and 1840.

a. Explain reasons for the establishment of the University of Georgia, and for the westward movement of Georgia’s capitals.

b. Evaluate the impact of land policies pursued by Georgia; include the headright system, land lotteries, and the Yazoo Land Fraud.
AT FIRST GLANCE

This chapter covers the U.S. Census, methods for distributing land in Georgia, the Yazoo Land Fraud, and the participation of government in the building of roads, railroads, and planned cities, as its means to encourage growth and prosperity. During the time period of Chapter 9 (1790–1840), Georgia’s present-day boundaries were established. A skill activity on using quantitative data and primary source are additional features.

Growth and Prosperity

Georgia’s Land Area Expands

Government Encourages Growth and Prosperity

In 1790, the United States held its first census. The Constitution required a count of the population in each state be taken every 10 years. In the 50 years between 1790 and 1840, the population of Georgia quadrupled. A similar growth pattern occurred for the nation.

The population grew from about 4 million residents in 1790 to more than 17 million in 1840. Before the American Revolution, to preserve peace with the Native Americans, Britain had restricted settlement west of the Appalachian Mountains. Many colonists disobeyed this order and moved west anyway. But covered wagons could not be pulled over these mountains, so most settlers were forced to build covered wagon roads into Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia.

Before long, an important geographical feature was discovered. Many years before the colonists came, the Native Americans had found apes in the mountains that allowed them to travel east and west. English soldiers named the Cumberland Gap. After the revolution, the old Indian path through the gap was widened for use by covered wagons. Soon settlers were using the route to travel westward into the rich lands that one day would become Kentucky and Tennessee.

After independence, most states with land claims west of the Appalachians turned them over to the national government for the creation of new states. North of the Ohio River was a large land area known as the Northwest Territory. In 1787, the Confederation Congress had agreed on a plan for dividing this enormous region. Fifteen years later, Georgia gave up its western territory, for which Alabama and Mississippi would be created. But the largest land gain to the nation came in 1803 with the Louisiana Purchase, which almost doubled the land area of the United States. For $15 million—only about 3 cents per acre—France sold to Pres. Thomas Jefferson 828,000 square miles of land west of the Mississippi.

After the Revolutionary War, Americans believed they had a right to Indian lands west of the Appalachians, an area now known as the Louisiana Purchase. But the United States had paid France a large sum of money for the land, so the U.S. government had a right to the land. Despite this, the United States was not able to force the Native Americans to give up their land. In 1795, Georgia agreed on a plan for dividing this land area into states. Fifteen years later, Georgia gave up its western territory, for which Alabama and Mississippi would be created. But the largest land gain to the nation came in 1803 with the Louisiana Purchase, which almost doubled the land area of the United States. For $15 million—only about 3 cents per acre—France sold to Pres. Thomas Jefferson 828,000 square miles of land west of the Mississippi.

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Vocabulary

1. **Census** - An official count of the population.

2. **Manifest destiny** - The conviction that the United States should extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean by God's will.
Georgia’s Land Area Expands

As first created by Britain in 1732, Georgia’s boundaries extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Later, after the French and Indian War, the Mississippi River became Georgia’s new western boundary. Despite this vast territory, the actual area open to settlement was much smaller. Creeks, Cherokees, and other Native Americans inhabited most of the land being claimed by Georgia.

In some cases, the Native Americans went heavily into debt from dealing with shrewd white traders. To settle these debts, the Creeks and Cherokees in 1773 gave up more than two million acres of land, in the backcountry region. Surveyors marked off tracts of land and colonial officials distributed them.

After the American Revolution, state officials continued to encourage new settlers to come to Georgia. A growing population would mean more representatives in Congress, thus giving Georgia a greater influence in the national government. Also, new settlers would turn forests into farms, helping Georgia’s agricultural economy to grow.

How did the movement of Georgia’s capital from city to city relate to where population growth was taking place?

GEORGIA CAPITALS, 1733-1868
In the decades that followed, Georgia state government pressured the Native Americans to cede (give up) their land. Slowly, this goal was achieved.

**DISTRIBUTING PUBLIC LAND**

Each time the Native Americans ceded land to the state, Georgia officials faced the question of how to distribute it. Selling the land would bring in money needed for roads, schools, and other public services. On the other hand, giving the land away would encourage more people to come to Georgia. State leaders decided to favor population growth.

At first, Georgia distributed land under the headright system. The head of a family was entitled to 200 acres of unclaimed land for himself, plus 50 acres for each member of his family. There was a limit of 1,000 acres per family. Veterans of the Revolutionary War were entitled to additional acres—ranging from 288 acres for privates to 1,955 acres for generals.

Each person receiving a grant of land was free to go out and claim the best vacant land available. Often this was the land along a winding creek or river. Surviving plats—maps of land lots—show that headright lots often were a maze of irregular shapes.

**GEORGIA’S CAPITAL MOVES**

From the colony’s founding, Savannah had served as Georgia’s capital. After the revolution, the General Assembly alternated meeting in Savannah and Augusta. But Georgia’s real growth was taking place in the backcountry—not along the coast. By 1784, there was increasing concern that the capital not return to Savannah. Frontier settlers had found how convenient it was to have the capital in Augusta. In those days, many
everyday matters had to be acted upon by the legislature. For example, state lawmakers had to approve all divorces, name changes, and permits to operate bridges. There were no trains, and other forms of transportation were slow, so it was important to live near the legislature’s meeting site.

So many people insisted that the capital stay in Augusta that in 1785 the General Assembly decided to hold all future meetings there. However, for many, even Augusta was too far east. So the legislature appointed a commission to find a new capital site—one that would be centrally located and accessible to all Georgia residents.

In 1786, the General Assembly chose a site on the Ogeechee River as capital, and named it Louisville. After many delays, state government moved, in 1796, to the new two-story brick statehouse at Louisville.

After only a decade, there was pressure to move the state capital yet again. This time a site on the Oconee River to the west was selected. Here the town of Milledgeville was laid out and a new capitol building erected.

THE YAZOO LAND FRAUD

During Augusta’s decade as state capital, many events occurred. In 1785, lawmakers created the nation’s first state-chartered institution of higher education—the University of Georgia. In 1788, Georgia ratified the U.S. Constitution. Three years later, the nation’s new president, George Washington, visited Augusta. But an unfortunate event took place there in 1795. That was the year of the state’s worst political scandal—the infamous Yazoo Land Fraud.

At that time, Georgia extended westward

According to tradition, lawmakers decided that no ordinary fire should be used to burn the Yazoo Act. Rather, a magnifying glass focused the sun’s rays to start the fire. This symbolized “fire from heaven” destroying the unjust act.
to the Mississippi River. State leaders wanted to open this vast expanse to new settlement, but the land was occupied by the Creeks, Cherokees, and other tribes. If the Native Americans could be persuaded to leave Georgia, a land rush would follow, making Georgia’s population explode.

A land rush would also mean big profits as the land was sold. Businessmen formed several land companies and approached state officials about buying large portions of Georgia’s western territories. These were **land speculators**.

Land speculation is the practice of buying land at a low price, holding it until the price rises, then selling it at a profit. It is a common and perfectly legal business practice. But it’s another thing when done by government officials, who are supposed to act to benefit the public—not themselves.

In 1795, four private land companies bribed many members of the General Assembly to pass a law. This law allowed the companies to buy 35 million acres of Georgia’s western lands extending to the Yazoo River. Much of what today is Alabama and Mississippi was sold to the companies at the incredible price of less than two cents per acre. The companies then made big profits by selling the land.
to the public. Millions of acres were sold—some to other land speculators, some to innocent citizens who planned to move to the frontier territories.

When Georgians learned of the Yazoo Land Fraud, they were outraged. Some of the dishonest legislators, fearing for their lives, fled the state. The next year, a newly elected legislature met at the new statehouse in Louisville and repealed\(^5\) the law authorizing the Yazoo land sale. The legislature also directed that the Yazoo Act be publicly burned on the statehouse grounds and that all copies of the infamous legislation be destroyed.

After repealing the Yazoo Act, the legislature provided for refunding the money to those who had purchased Georgia’s western lands. But many buyers weren’t willing to give up their bargain. They went to court, and the Yazoo controversy eventually landed in the U.S. Supreme Court. The issue took years to resolve. It finally ended in 1814 when the federal government took over the contested territory and paid off the remaining Yazoo claims. ■

GEORGIA LOSES ITS WESTERN TERRITORY

For a dozen years after the American Revolution, Spain and Georgia both claimed a large stretch of land between the Chattahoochee and Mississippi rivers. In a treaty with the United States in 1795, Spain finally gave up its claim. It was now unclear whether that land belonged to the United States or to Georgia. Congress, in 1798, decided that the area would be called the Mississippi Territory and that it would have its own government. This meant that the land would no longer be part of Georgia.

Georgia was unhappy with this action, but by now its leaders were tiring of the

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. **Define:** plat, Yazoo Land Fraud, land speculators, repeal

2. **What were the advantages to the state in selling public land? What was the advantage in giving it away?**

3. **Why did the capital of Georgia move from Savannah to Augusta?**

4. **Explain how dishonest land speculators made a profit on the Yazoo Lands.**
trouble caused by the western territories. They were tired of the lawsuits over the Yazoo Act’s repeal, the questions over Native American rights, and the burden of protecting frontier settlements. These and other problems finally convinced state leaders, in 1802, to transfer the contested territories to the federal government. In return, the national government paid Georgia $1,250,000 and promised to remove all remaining Native Americans from the state.

GEORGIA ACQUIRES INDIAN LANDS

After 1802, Georgia’s boundaries were pretty much what they are today. Now state lawmakers in Louisville wanted to gain control over all territory belonging to Georgia. This meant getting the Indians to cede their lands. Slowly but surely, the Indians moved out.

In 1802, fighting broke out between the Creeks and Georgians along the Oconee River. Since the American Revolution, the Oconee had served as the Creek boundary with Georgia. Many whites, however, wanted to settle west of that river and often tried to move onto Indian
lands. In fact, in 1794, Gen. Elijah Clarke and a group of followers had tried to create an independent government on Creek Indian lands across the Oconee River. They built several forts in what they called the Trans-Oconee Republic before Georgia and federal troops were sent in, forcing them to leave.

In June 1802, the Creeks signed a treaty at Fort Wilkinson ceding a stretch of land west of the Oconee River to Georgia. Three years later, another treaty gave up a large area of land as far west as the Ocmulgee River.

How would these newly acquired lands be distributed? Georgia abandoned the old headright system. Now land would be equally distributed through a land lottery.

**LAND LOTTERIES**

In 1803, Georgia changed its method of distributing public lands. No longer were large 1,000-acre land grants issued. Nor could land grant winners get to pick the location and shape of their lots.

Under the new system, surveyors divided as much of the land as possible into square lots. In general, these lots were smaller than under the headright system. This was designed to encourage a larger number of families to settle the frontier.

Lot size varied according to the quality of the land. In the pine barrens of south Georgia, lots were 490 acres each. In the more fertile Piedmont, they were 202 ½ acres each. Later, Cherokee lands in north Georgia were divided into 160-acre lots.
though lots in the gold fields were as small as 40 acres.

Next, the state held a lottery—drawing for a prize. Every white male U.S. citizen who had lived in Georgia for 12 months and was at least 21 years old was allowed one draw or chance. If he had a wife and child, he got two chances. Widows and orphans also got chances.

Persons who wanted land would register at a county courthouse. Their names were sent to the state capital where they were written on tickets and placed in a barrel. Land lots to be given away were numbered. The number of each lot was written on a ticket and placed in another barrel.

A state official simultaneously drew names and numbers from the barrels. Those receiving land were known as “fortunate drawers.” Except for a recording fee of $4 per 100 acres, the land was absolutely free. People who got land could farm it or sell it as they wished.

The first land lottery was held in 1805. During the next 28 years, five more lotteries were held. Under the lottery system, Georgia distributed about 30 million acres of land west of the Oconee River to more than 100,000 fortunate drawers.

1 Define: lottery

2 What problems occurring in Georgia’s western territories convinced officials to transfer land to the federal government?

3 What qualifications did a person need to participate in Georgia’s land lottery?

4 Who were “fortunate drawers”?

Surveyors divided as much of the land as possible into square lots.
Vocabulary

1. **Cede** - To give up land, usually for a price. The land given up is known as cession.
2. **Plat** - Map of a land lot’s boundaries.
3. **Yazoo Land Fraud** - The political scandal in 1795, when Georgia’s General Assembly sold millions of acres of Georgia’s western territories for just pennies an acre to land speculators who had bribed many of the legislators.
4. **Land speculator** - People who buy land cheaply, hold it until the price goes up, and then attempt to sell it for a profit.
5. **Repeal** - Abolish, or take back, approval previously given.
6. **Lottery** - A drawing for a prize.
Government Encourages Economic Growth

During this period, technology advanced rapidly, changing the way Americans did things. Steamboats and railroads brought faster and cheaper transportation. New machines, such as those developed by Samuel Slater to make textiles (finished cloth), helped create the factory system. Other inventions made great changes in agriculture. Some of the most important ones were Eli Whitney’s cotton gin, Henry Blair’s corn harvester, and Cyrus McCormick’s mechanical reaper. All these new developments affected regions of the country in a different manner.

In the North, more roads, railroads, and canals signaled greater industrialization of that region. Finished goods could be shipped to all parts of the country. For the South, transportation improvements meant that cotton could be grown inland and shipped to markets at a profit. Roads and railroads pushing into the West opened the area for even greater settlement. A growing population in the West helped fuel the nation’s growth as the exchange of farm and manufactured goods increased.

GOVERNMENT AND TRANSPORTATION

State government encouraged Georgia’s growing prosperity. To have a strong economy, Georgia needed a better way to distribute goods and move people. Georgia government officials worked with business people to develop a transportation system. As people moved into unsettled areas, cities and towns developed. Georgia’s government helped to plan some of those cities.
CHAPTER 9 • GROWTH AND PROSPERITY

WATERWAYS

Georgia’s waterways served as important inland “highways” for transportation to and from the frontier. The Savannah River was the most important waterway linking the backcountry to the ocean port at Savannah. Where the Fall Line crosses that river, Augusta grew up to become Georgia’s major inland city. From there, trading paths and dirt roads ran westward past frontier settlements into Indian lands.

After 1800, other important trade centers were built along the Fall Line. These were Milledgeville on the Oconee River, Macon on the Ocmulgee, and later, Columbus on the Chattahoochee.

Rectangular barges—sometimes called “Oconee boxes”—carried bales of cotton downriver to ocean ports for shipment to distant markets. But these barges had one big drawback—they could not return upstream against the current.

The arrival of steamboats in the 1820s solved this problem. The steam-powered, flat-bottomed boats provided a fast and efficient way to transport large quantities of cotton downstream. They could also return upstream with goods needed inland.

Although steamboats were privately owned businesses, state government passed laws and spent tax money to protect river transportation. It had to keep the channels free of fallen trees and

Loading cotton onto riverboats. A South Carolina visitor reported, “I arrived in Augusta; and when I saw the cotton wagons in Broadstreet, I whistled! but said nothing!!! But this was not all, there were more than a dozen tow boats in the river, with more than a thousand bales of cotton on each, and several steamboats with still more.”

TRANSPORTATION DEVELOPMENT

For about 100 years, Georgians generally followed transportation routes first used by Native Americans. Why do you think trading routes generally ran east and west?
sandbars and prevent people from placing fish traps or other hazards to navigation in the rivers.

Word of New York’s Erie Canal created a national interest in canal building. State governments were quick to realize the economic benefits that faster and easier transportation offered. Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana built canals, but none were as successful as the Erie Canal. In 1825, the Georgia Board of Public Works looked into the possibility of a north-south canal to connect the Ocmulgee or Oconee river with the Tennessee River. The Tennessee flows into the Mississippi River. Lawmakers hoped a connecting canal would give Georgia products access to the ocean port of New Orleans and to new markets in the nation’s interior.

The project, however, was soon dismissed. The mountains of north Georgia were too great a barrier for a northward-flowing canal.

In 1819, the Savannah sailed from its namesake port in Georgia to Liverpool, England becoming the first steamship to cross the Atlantic.

Such roads as existed in Georgia were dirt. Wooden logs were often placed over small streams so that wagons could cross without getting stuck in the mud.

ROADS

After the American Revolution, wave after wave of white settlers began moving into the nation’s interior. They used old Indian trails, with the wheels of their wagons and carts turning the paths into crude dirt roads. For the most part, these roads were rough and impassable in rainy weather.
As America’s population grew, roads were needed for settlers to travel west and, once there, to get their crops to market. Farmers not living near a river usually shipped their crops by wagons or ox carts. But doing so was slow and expensive. In 1806, Congress decided to construct a road from Cumberland, Maryland, westward across the mountains to the Ohio River. When opened in 1818, it was called the Cumberland Road. Later extended to Illinois, America's first national highway was named the National Road.

The few navigable waterways in Georgia generally ran north to south. To get products to riverside docks and move east and west in Georgia, overland transportation was needed.

Back in 1775, the colonial government had passed Georgia’s first road law. It required males between ages 16 and 60 to work on local roads at least 12 days a year. The new state government continued this method of building and maintaining roads—all of them dirt in those days. Many of the early roads merely followed old Native American trails, twisting and turning through the forests. Even the best road—from Savannah to Augusta—was so bad that it took a stagecoach two to four days to make the trip.

As the interior of Georgia began to fill up with people and farms, the need for more connecting roads grew. To build such roads, state government approved turnpike corporations. A turnpike was a private roadway built and maintained by a company. Travelers using the roads paid toll charges, from which the turnpike’s owners hoped to make a profit. At certain points, “pikes”—long poles serving as gates across the road—blocked wagons and stagecoaches until the drivers paid the toll.

Similar corporations were approved to build bridges and run ferries across rivers.
They earned their income by charging tolls and fees to travelers.

**RAILROADS**

By the 1820s, there was growing demand throughout the United States for a more efficient system of transportation. What was needed was a reliable, fast, and inexpensive form of transportation that worked on land, not water.

Work on steam-powered locomotives had been under way in England for several decades. There the world’s first steam powered railroad began operation in 1825. In America, port cities such as New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Charleston were excited about the possibilities of rail transportation. In 1830, the new Baltimore and Ohio Railroad demonstrated its first steam-powered locomotive, the Tom Thumb.

In Georgia, cotton-marketing towns such as Athens and Forsyth were far from navigable rivers. Shipping cotton by wagon over rough dirt roads was slow and expensive. In periods of low rain, rivers sometimes became too shallow for riverboats.

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The invention of the railroad boosted Georgia’s development. Georgia’s first railroads were private businesses. Building rail transportation was very expensive, and the companies were limited by how much

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**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. Define: turnpike
2. Why did cities develop first along waterways?
3. How were roads built and maintained in Georgia’s early days?

Georgia’s W & A Railroad connected two sites that would become the cities of Atlanta and Chattanooga. Chattanooga is located along the Tennessee River, just north of Lookout Mountain.
money they could borrow from investors. Because of this, Georgia’s General Assembly decided that the state should step in and become a partner in railroad building.

THE COMING OF THE RAILROAD TO GEORGIA

On Christmas Day of 1830, residents of Charleston, South Carolina, cheered as the small locomotive Best Friend of Charleston chugged off pulling two cars of passengers. This event marked the first regular train service in America.

In 1833, the track was completed from Charleston to Hamburg, South Carolina, just across the river from Augusta. But Augusta officials would not allow the line to continue across the bridge into Georgia. After all, this would give Charleston merchants and shippers direct access to Georgia’s rich cotton markets, bypassing Augusta and Savannah.

Georgia needed its own rail transportation. In December 1833, Georgia’s General Assembly chartered two railroads. The Georgia Railroad Company was to build a railroad westward from Augusta to Madison, Eatonton, and Athens. The Central of Georgia Railroad was to extend from Savannah to Macon.

By 1838, track was completed from Augusta to Greensboro, and on to Madison and Athens three years later. The rail line from Savannah
progressed more slowly, but it finally reached Macon in 1843.

**ATLANTA AND THE RAILROAD**

In 1836, the General Assembly passed a law for building a state-owned railroad from the Chattahoochee River in DeKalb County, north through Cherokee country to Ross’s Landing (Chattanooga) on the Tennessee River. Known as the Western and Atlantic (W&A) Railroad, this line would connect railroads from Augusta, Macon, Milledgeville, and Columbus with America’s interior.

The next year, surveyors determined the 138-mile route of the W&A. They located its southern end a few miles southeast of the Chattahoochee River. There they drove a stake into the ground and marked it “Terminus” (meaning “end”). This was the beginning of what one day would be the city of Atlanta. At the other end of the line, another great city developed—Chattanooga, Tennessee.

Terminus began to grow as construction of the W&A Railroad began. On Christmas Eve 1842, a locomotive made the first run, from Terminus to Marietta.

In 1845, the Georgia Railroad arrived from Augusta. Terminus was renamed “Marthasville” in honor of the daughter of ex-governor Wilson Lumpkin, a strong backer of the W & A. A year later, the Macon and Western Railroad linked Marthasville with the Central of Georgia Railroad from Savannah.

By 1847, town population reached 400. It was no longer a frontier village, and the name “Marthasville” didn’t seem like a good name for a big-time railroad center. The chief engineer of the Georgia Railroad suggested the name “Atlanta” (from “Atlantic” in the W&A’s name). The inhabitants agreed, and the General Assembly made it official.

Driving the zero point stake for the southern terminus—or end—of the new W & A Railroad.
In 1853 a fourth line, the Atlanta and West Point, was completed, linking Georgia’s rail system to Alabama. By 1860, Atlanta was a major railroad center of the Deep South. The main link between the Atlantic seaboard and the Middle West, it was nicknamed the “Gate City.”

GOVERNMENT AND TOWN PLANNING

After Georgia became a state, many new towns sprang up unplanned at crossroads, ferry landings, railroad stops, or other places where farmers gathered to trade. Other towns followed special developments in the state. For example, when the General Assembly in 1801 selected a site in northeast Georgia for the University of Georgia, it set the stage for the founding of Athens.

Still other urban places were purposely planned by state government. When the state surveyed former Indian territory for distribution to white settlers, it reserved specific land for towns. Specially appointed commissioners laid out streets, set aside lots for public buildings, and sold town lots to settlers.

Between 1803 and 1828, as the Creeks gave up their lands and moved west, state government planned three cities for the new areas of settlement. Milledgeville was a planned city built to serve as Georgia’s state capital, and it did so from 1807 to 1868. More important to the state’s economy, Milledgeville, Macon, and Columbus, located at the Fall Line, were trade centers. From these points, agricultural products could be easily shipped downriver to ports on the coast. Also, goods could be brought upriver to these locations for distribution throughout the interior of the state.
The plans were not the same for all three cities. However, the plans show that the state’s leaders wished them to be attractive, healthy places to live as well as successful commercial centers. State government’s planning of Macon and dozens of other cities and towns helped bring orderly growth to rough frontier areas. This kind of orderly growth contributed to Georgia’s economic prosperity in the early 1800s.

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**Locating the Main Ideas**

1. Why did state officials want railroads built in Georgia? Why would state government get involved in the building of railroads?
2. What other names did Atlanta have? How did it get them?
3. Why was it important to locate cities on the Fall Line?
4. What was the purpose of planned cities on the frontier?

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**CSX.** We pay a visit to CSX’s REDI Center in midtown Atlanta to talk with the fine folks of CSX about the 3,000 employees they have scattered about the state. REDI is the acronym for Railroad Education and Development Institute. That’s where most of their employees come to learn what it takes to work on the railroad, which also makes it a great place for us to learn more about CSX jobs.
Vocabulary

1. **Turnpike** - A road built and maintained by a private company which then charges travelers a fee or toll to use the road.
Most Georgia pioneers settled permanently on the lands they received, but some moved almost constantly, along with the frontier. This restless spirit is illustrated in the life of Gideon Lincecum, born in middle Georgia in 1793. Gideon’s father moved his family from place to place in Georgia and the Carolinas seeking better opportunity and more elbow room. Inheriting this same spirit, Gideon moved west with the frontier to Mississippi and Texas. Along the way, he learned enough to be a surveyor, schoolteacher, Indian trader, physician, and planter. The following excerpt from his autobiography tells about events beginning in 1804.

**Autobiography of Gideon Lincecum**

1804. My father sold his cotton for a good price and made a visit to his sister in Clark[e] County, Ga. He was gone two or three weeks, and when he returned, he told my mother that he had purchased a tract of land with a good house on it, one mile from Athens, Ga. We were soon on the road again, returning to Georgia. In the course of a week we were in our new home. Father worked hard at his new place. He planted and raised a large crop of cotton; and as soon as it began to open, every one that could
pick five pounds a day was forced into the cotton field. We succeeded in gathering the cotton by Christmas, and father took it to the gin and got the receipts for 4,643 pounds, for which he received five cents a pound.

1805. He again became restless, and selling his place, put his wagon in good repair, and set out on a third attempt to get to Tennessee. I was delighted that we were on the road. Being in my twelfth year, I was an expert with a bow and arrow, and could run far ahead, shooting and killing many birds in the course of a day.

Father hired a straggling old fellow to drive for us this trip, and we rolled on bravely until we came to the Saluda river. There was there a store and blacksmith shop, and we stopped until the smith nailed a pair of shoes on the outriding horse. Father and his teamster became somewhat intoxicated and got two bottles of whiskey to carry with them. The river was wide and swift, but shallow. We forded it and landed safely in South Carolina again. After going about five miles further, my father and the driver became more deeply intoxicated. The driver fell off the wagon and frightened the horses. They ran away and tore up the wagon, hurting all who were in it. My grandmother was very seriously wounded.

[The family settled in South Carolina, never making it to Tennessee. The next year they moved back to Georgia and settled at a place one mile from where they lived before.]

1807. The lands beyond the Oconee river had been obtained by the United States from the Muskogee [Creek] Indians. No one had moved into this new purchase. Father intended to settle there as soon as the Indians had completed the twelve months' hunting which had been by a stipulation in the treaty with the United States reserved to them.

Father entered my sister, brother, and me as day scholars in a little old log cabin, a mile and a half from our home, at the rate of $7 each per year. I was 14 years old, and it was the first school house I had ever seen. I began in the alphabet. There were some very small boys, seven years old, who could read.

My father had been moving about so much that he was not entitled to a chance in the lottery—and the place he wanted on the Little River was drawn by a man who would not part with it. Father then found a place belonging to Thomas McLellon, with a double cabin on it. For this place he gave all the money he had, along with “Mammy Pat” and two of her children. It was situated in the woods on a beautiful clear running creek, in one mile of where Eatonton now stands.

The next year after we came there the county seat was laid off and named Eatonton. I was one of the chain carriers to survey the streets and lots though I was but fourteen years old.
INTERPRETING THE SOURCE

1 What were some personal qualities of Gideon Lincecum? of his father?

2 How much money did Mr. Lincecum make on the cotton he sold at Christmas in 1804?

3 What are some of the reasons why Gideon was just starting school at age 14?

4 What requirement kept Mr. Lincecum from being able to participate in the land lottery?
How many students go to your school? What percentage of Georgians live on farms? What’s the number of counties in Georgia? Information such as this—anything that can be counted—is called quantitative data. This term comes from the words quantity (which means “how many”) and data (a term for “facts” or “information”). Thus, quantitative data is information that can be expressed in numbers.

Often you will see numbers, dates, and other types of quantitative data expressed in tables, graphs, charts, and maps. A table is an arrangement of data in columns and rows. A graph is a picture of data shown as lines, bars, or circles. Chart is a general term that can refer to either tables or graphs.

### GEORGIA POPULATION BY RACE
#### 1790-1840

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>White Population</th>
<th>Percent of Total</th>
<th>Black Population</th>
<th>Percent of Total</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1790</td>
<td>52,886</td>
<td>64.1%</td>
<td>29,662</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
<td>82,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800</td>
<td>102,261</td>
<td>62.9%</td>
<td>60,425</td>
<td>37.1%</td>
<td>162,686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1810</td>
<td>145,414</td>
<td>57.6%</td>
<td>107,019</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>252,433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1820</td>
<td>189,570</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
<td>151,419</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
<td>340,989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830</td>
<td>296,806</td>
<td>57.4%</td>
<td>220,017</td>
<td>42.6%</td>
<td>516,823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>407,695</td>
<td>59.0%</td>
<td>283,697</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
<td>691,392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
USING TABLES AND GRAPHS

Simple examples of quantitative data can be written as a sentence. You can say, for instance, “In 1790, the population of Georgia was 82,548.” But imagine if you wanted to compare the state population over a number of different decades. Or what if you wanted to compare the growth of black and white populations over five decades? This is where tables and graphs come in handy.

Often a graph can be used to show data from a table in visual form. Because it is a picture, a graph allows you to see relationships between different kinds of data in a table. Also, graphs can show changes over time. They can even help you predict events that might happen some time in the future.

TYPES OF GRAPHS

There are three basic types of graphs: circle graph, bar graph, and line graph. The type of graph used depends in part on the information to be shown. To illustrate, information from the above table is presented in each of the types of graphs on this page.

Circle Graph (Pie Chart). A circle graph is useful for showing the distribution of parts that make up the whole. Because these parts are drawn as wedges, like pieces of pie, this graph is often called a pie chart. Usually the parts on a pie chart are shown as percentages of the whole. The wedges are drawn in proportion to the percentage they represent. For example, 50 percent would be drawn as half of the circle. Remember that a circle graph shows information about something at one point in time.
**Bar Graph.** Like a pie chart, a bar graph can be used to show data at one point in time. But it also can be used to compare data over time. Bar graphs can be drawn vertically or horizontally. The larger the number, the longer the bar.

**Line Graph.** The line graph is useful in presenting data over a period of time, making it possible to see changes and trends. Commonly, the horizontal axis—the line going across the page—represents time, typically years at regular intervals. The vertical axis—the line going up and down the page—measures the amount of what is being graphed. To save space, large numbers may be written without all the zeroes with a statement such as “in thousands.” One advantage of a line graph is that several sets of data can be graphed together.
PRACTICE YOUR SKILLS

1 Define: quantitative data, table, graph, chart

2 Use the table to find the decade in which the number of blacks and the number of whites in Georgia were most nearly equal.

3 Compare the two pie charts and make a generalization about what happened to the racial makeup of Georgia between 1790 and 1840.

4 On a piece of paper, copy the bar graph above and add the bars for 1830 and 1840.

5 Estimate, from the line graph, the total population of Georgia in 1810. Refer to the data in the table to see how close you were to the actual number.
Chapter 10
Foreword

Georgia Standards of Excellence Correlations

SS8H4

Chapter Outline

Conflicting Views
  Tribal Leaders
  Georgia’s Native American Tribes

The Creeks
  Conflicts between Creeks and Whites
  The War of 1812
  Pressure on the Creeks Continues
  Chief McIntosh

The Seminoles

Government Encourages Economic Growth
  Progress and Setbacks in the Cherokee Nation
  Discovery of Gold Brings Trouble to Cherokees
  The Cherokees and Their Lands Divided
  The Trail of Tears

SS8H4

Explain significant factors that affected westward expansion in Georgia between 1789 and 1840.

b. Describe the role of William McIntosh in the removal of the Creek from Georgia.

c. Analyze how key people (John Ross, John Marshall, and Andrew Jackson) and events (Dahlonega Gold Rush and Worcester v. Georgia) led to the removal of the Cherokees from Georgia known as the Trail of Tears.
CHAPTER 10

Cherokee Removal, 1838. Forced off their historic homelands and escorted by the U.S. Army to Oklahoma on an 800-mile journey in the dead of winter, thousands of Cherokees died from cold and disease. The Cherokee would forever remember this as their “Trail of Tears.”

AT FIRST GLANCE

This chapter tells the story of Native Americans in Georgia, from the arrival of the colonists to the final removal of the Cherokees to Oklahoma. It covers major events associated with white Georgians and these Native Americans, particularly the Creeks, Seminoles, and Cherokees. Primary sources make clear the positions of the president of the United States and the Native Americans on the question of Indian removal from the southeast.

Conflict Over Indian Lands

Conflicting Views
The Creeks
The Seminoles
The Cherokees

No matter where you live in Georgia, the land around you was once the home and hunting ground of native tribes. At first, European settlers coming to America simply asked the natives to share some of their vast lands. Some Native Americans, like Tomochichi’s Yamacraws, welcomed the white colonists, signing treaties of friendship and peace. Other tribes, however, refused to give up their land, even for a price. Still, boatload after boatload of European settlers set sail for America. The treasure they came searching for was not gold or silver. It was land—the tribal lands of America’s native inhabitants.

Only 105 years after the arrival of the first English colonists, Georgia’s native population was gone, its tribal lands totally in the hands of whites. How could this have happened?
Conflicting Views

Georgia’s early boundaries were so far apart that people originally thought there was plenty of room for both whites and native tribes to live in peace. But cultural differences between the two threatened this prospect.

Differing ideas about land ownership caused the most trouble between the two races. For the native tribes, an individual could no more own land than own air or rivers. Rather, a person could manage the land and use it. Thus, a tribe might have the right to use certain hunting grounds, and other tribes would respect that claim. But once that tribe stopped using the grounds (perhaps by moving away), it lost its special right to it.

Whites, on the other hand, held European beliefs about land ownership. Like a house or furniture, land was something that could be bought, sold, and inherited. A landowner was entitled to exclusive rights to his possession.

During the colonial period, tribal lands in Georgia were protected by the British government. After the American Revolution, however, native rights slowly eroded. At first, the issue was one of Native Americans sharing their land. But soon, Georgians became intent on removing the native people from the state entirely. After the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, many whites came to believe that the Indians should move west. Twenty-five years later, Pres. Andrew Jackson announced that they had to move west.

TRIBAL LEADERS

Except for some missionaries, there were few white defenders of native rights in Georgia. The best defense came from such Native American leaders as Alexander McGillivray, William McIntosh, John Ross, Elias Boudinot, and George Creek Chief William McIntosh
Guess (better known as Sequoyah). Born to European men and their Native American wives, these men were fully accepted as members of their mothers’ tribes. In tribal culture, descent was traced through the mother—not the father. White fathers sometimes sent their mixed-blood sons back east for an education. Later, many of these young men became tribal chiefs or other spokesmen. As Georgia’s Native Americans attempted to understand white civilization, they turned to those who were educated and knew the ways of whites. Because of their need to live in two worlds, many of the famous Creek and Cherokee leaders had English as well as Indian names.

Creek loghouse, 1791. What evidence of influence by white settlers do you see? What native customs have been retained?
GEORGIA’S NATIVE AMERICAN TRIBES

Before the 1800s, white settlement was permitted only in a tiny portion of Georgia’s vast expanse. Holding on to their native lands were five major groups of Native Americans—the Creeks, Cherokees, Seminoles, Choctaws, and Chickasaws.*

By 1764, about 60,000 natives lived within Georgia’s boundaries. At the same time, living on the lands ceded by the Native Americans along the Savannah River and coast were some 10,000 whites and 8,000 blacks.

Georgia’s largest tribe was the Choctaw, which had about 25,000 adults and children. They lived in what today is south Mississippi. To the north of the Choctaws were about 2,000 Chickasaws. Neither tribe played an important role in Georgia history because their lands were far to the west of Georgia’s frontier.

Controlling most of what today is Georgia and Alabama were some 17,000 Creeks. To the north of them lived more than 13,000 Cherokees. These two tribes held the lands adjoining Georgia’s frontier settlements. A third tribe in Georgia was the Seminoles, a branch of the Lower Creeks that had moved into the region.

*Creeks, Cherokees, Seminoles, Choctaws, and Chickasaws - These five tribes would later be known as the “Five Civilized Tribes” because they adopted many characteristics of white culture. They made this effort in the nineteenth century, thinking it would help them to hold onto their native lands.
stretching from southwestern Georgia into northern Florida. The number of Seminoles in Georgia was small, and eventually they lived entirely in Florida. Thus the story of conflict between the white settlers and the Native Americans in Georgia focuses on the Creeks, Seminoles, and Cherokees.
The Creeks

The Creeks were not a single tribe or people but rather a loose confederation (or association) of tribes and chiefdoms. Because most spoke a variation of the Muscogean language, the Creeks were sometimes referred to as Muscogees.

There were two distinct groups. The Upper Creeks lived in towns and villages in the northern half of Alabama. The Lower Creeks located their towns in western Georgia, southern Alabama, and northern Florida.* The remainder of Creek territory—including most of Georgia—was used for hunting.

The Upper and Lower Creeks were separate parts of the confederation. Another part of the confederation was a group of Lower Creeks in south Georgia and Florida known as Seminoles.

The Creek confederation was organized around a political unit known as the chiefdom. This consisted of one or more towns or settlements, governed by a chief, known as a mico, and a tribal council. One of the mico’s most important jobs was to represent his people when dealing with other chiefdoms or when conducting treaties with whites.

**CONFLICTS BETWEEN CREEKS AND WHITES**

During the Revolutionary War, some Creeks sided with the British, carrying on frontier raids against Whig settlements. After the war, white Georgians

*The Lower Creeks located their towns in western, Georgia, southern Alabama, and northern Florida. • The Yamacraw Indians Oglethorpe encountered in 1733 were part of the Lower Creeks.*
remembered this and demanded that the Creeks give up some of their land. What they wanted was the land between the Ogeechee and the Oconee rivers.

The Creeks were divided over what to do. The Lower Creeks agreed to turn over territory to the whites, but the Upper Creeks, led by chief Alexander McGillivray, refused.

Fighting between McGillivray’s followers and white settlers on the border of the Creek nation almost became a full-scale war. Finally, in 1790, President Washington invited McGillivray to New York City, then the nation’s capital. There the Creek leader was persuaded (and, perhaps, took money) to cede to Georgia lands between the Ogeechee and Oconee rivers. The 34-year-old chief died from an illness three years later. His dream of a strong Creek nation was dying, too.

After the Yazoo Land Fraud, Georgia turned over its western lands to the United States in 1802. In return, the state received $1,250,000 and the national government’s promise to remove all Indians from the state as soon as reasonably and peacefully possible. (At the same time, the United States, in its treaties with the Indians, more or less promised to protect their lands from white takeover!)

In 1802, the U.S. government persuaded the Creeks to give up more land. For the first time, Georgia was able to expand west of the Oconee River. The next year, state lawmakers directed that a site be selected on the Oconee River for building a “permanent” state capital, to be named Milledgeville. The Creek cession1 (land given up or ceded) was then surveyed and distributed in Georgia’s first land lottery.

The Creeks gave up an even larger area of land in 1805 in another treaty with the United States. This cession extended all the way to the Ocmulgee River and resulted in Georgia’s second land lottery two years later.
Each time the Creeks ceded more land, they signed a treaty with the United States. In return for giving up land to Georgia, the Creeks received payments of money and other goods. Treaties also provided for settling disputes between the Creeks and whites.

In 1796, President Washington appointed Col. Benjamin Hawkins as U.S. Indian Agent. His job was to administer U.S. treaties and help promote peaceful relations with the Creeks. On the eastern bank of the Flint River (in present-day Crawford County), Hawkins established his headquarters—known as the Creek Agency. He tried to influence the lives of the Creeks, teaching them farming methods and homemaking skills. He helped keep the peace among the Creeks, a job made more difficult because of the constant pressure from white Georgians for more land. Eventually, these efforts failed when the Creeks took sides during the War of 1812.

THE WAR OF 1812

In 1812 the United States went to war with Great Britain. The war was fought over a variety of issues. It was partly about U.S. shipping rights and partly about Americans’ desire for land claimed by the British and their allies.

The Creeks were divided about whom to support. One group, mainly Lower Creeks, decided to stay friendly with the United States. The Upper Creeks, however, saw the War of 1812 as a chance to get their lands back. They were known as the Red Sticks, because red was the color associated with war.

Supplied with British arms, the Red Sticks launched a civil war against fellow Creeks who remained friendly to the United States. Soon, the Creek War spread to attacks against white settlers on the frontier. In 1813, more than 1,000 Red...
Sticks overran Fort Mims in southern Alabama, killing and scalping 500 people. Among those murdered were innocent white and mixed-blood families who had fled to the fort for safety.

The next year, an army under Gen. Andrew Jackson met the Red Sticks at Horseshoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River in eastern Alabama. Fighting with Jackson were many Cherokees, as well as a force of Lower Creeks led by Chief William McIntosh. Seeking revenge for the Fort Mims massacre, Jackson’s forces killed about 700 Red Sticks before the day was over.

The Creek War continued, but it was now clear that the Red Sticks had lost. In August 1814, General Jackson called on all Creeks desiring peace to meet him at Fort Jackson in Alabama. Many friendly Creeks came, but only one Red Stick chief. Even though most of those present had been on his side, Jackson forced the Creeks to give up all their land in south Georgia and a large area in eastern Alabama.

PRESSURE ON THE CREEKS CONTINUES

After the war, the U.S. government encouraged Native Americans to go west to Arkansas and Oklahoma. Those not desiring to go could remain, but they could not continue as separate nations.

Some Creeks accepted the U.S. government’s offer of free land to the west of the Mississippi River. Those who remained realized they had too few warriors to hold the land by force. The Creeks began to adopt more and more characteristics of white culture. Less time was spent on hunting and trading, and more on raising crops and livestock. Still, the Creeks were in possession of large portions of Georgia—land the state wanted for white settlement.
Pressured by Georgia’s leaders, the U.S. government persuaded the Creeks to cede their lands westward to the Flint River in 1821. This wasn’t enough. Georgians reminded the national government of its 1802 promise to remove all Indians from the state. The government in Washington tried to bargain with the Native Americans. Most Creeks, however, had decided not to yield any more land.

CHIEF MCINTOSH

The Lower Creek towns were led by William McIntosh, one of the five great chiefs of the nation. McIntosh, son of an Indian mother and a Scottish father, was first cousin to Georgia’s governor, George Michael Troup. The Creek chief was a well-known warrior who had fought under General Jackson against other Creeks at Horseshoe Bend in 1814.

Governor Troup and representatives of the U.S. government believed they could work through Chief McIntosh to get the Creeks to sell their remaining lands. McIntosh is said to have received thousands of dollars for accepting the deal. However, he was unable to persuade other Creek leaders to agree.

Next, McIntosh, whom the Cherokees had made an honorary chief of their nation,
tried to get the Cherokees to sell their lands. He offered some of the white man’s money to Cherokee leader John Ross, who turned him down. The Cherokees warned the Creeks to watch their chief closely.

The warning came too late. On February 12, 1825, Chief McIntosh and a few followers signed a treaty ceding all Creek lands to the United States. As this was done without the support of the Creek people, McIntosh’s days were numbered. Years before, the Creek National Council had passed a law condemning to death any chief who sold tribal lands without the council’s approval.

Before dawn on May 1, 1825, Creek warriors surrounded Acorn Bluff, McIntosh’s home in present-day Carroll County near the Chattahoochee River, and set it on fire. When the chief ran from the burning building, he was shot down and stabbed to death. Several of his followers were also killed.

Governor Troup demanded that the U.S. government honor the treaty signed by McIntosh and remove the Creeks at once. He also directed that the Creek lands be surveyed to prepare for distribution to white Georgians by lottery.

John Quincy Adams, president of the United States, thought the treaty might not be legal and would not enforce it. He threatened to arrest any surveyor found on the Creek lands. But when Governor Troup threatened war with the United States, President Adams backed down. He wanted to avoid any military showdown with Georgia.

So, by new treaties, the United States forced the Creeks to sell their remaining lands in Georgia. By the end of 1827, the Creeks were gone from Georgia. Most of them were removed to Oklahoma, where their descendants (known as Muscogees) still live today.
Vocabulary

1. Cession - Land given up or ceded.
2. Massacre - The brutal killing of a large number of people.
The Seminoles

Living in southwest Georgia and northern Florida, the Seminoles were a source of constant and grave concern to Georgians. They accepted escaped slaves from Georgia and South Carolina and allowed them to live on their lands in freedom. Sometimes runaway slaves lived together in “maroon camps” on Seminole land.* More often, however, escaped slaves were simply welcomed and lived as new members of the tribe. Intermarriages and close friendships were common, and Black Seminoles—as they were called—were fully accepted as tribal members. By encouraging this practice, the Seminoles threatened the existence of slavery.

White slave owners were angry that the Seminoles would not return their slaves. Making the situation worse, during the War of 1812, Great Britain had encouraged the Seminoles to harass Georgia and Alabama settlements. This led to increasing conflicts between the Seminoles and whites.

Finally, in 1817, American military forces crossed into Florida. U.S. military forces under Gen. Andrew Jackson were victorious in this action known as the First Seminole War. In 1819, Spain ceded Florida to the United States. The Seminoles were forced to move from south Georgia and north Florida to a reservation in central Florida. In 1830, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act, authorizing the removal of all southeastern tribes. The act required the consent of the Native Americans and offered compensation. Whether they consented or not,

* Sometimes runaway slaves lived together in “maroon camps” on Seminole land. - Both the terms “Seminole” and “maroon” are derived from the Spanish word “cimarron,” which means wild or runaway.
however, they were forced to move. Lands had been set aside west of the Mississippi River in Oklahoma and Arkansas.

The Seminoles resisted, and the Second Seminole War began. Under Osceola and other Seminole leaders, the war continued from 1835 to 1842. At great cost, the Americans won. As a result, except for 500 Seminoles who escaped to live in the Everglades, the entire Seminole nation was forced to move to Indian Territory in the west.

Next came the Cherokees.

LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS

1. Define: massacre
2. Identify: Red Sticks, Andrew Jackson, William McIntosh, George M. Troup, Osceola
3. What two countries fought the War of 1812? Which side did the Upper Creeks help?
4. After the Creek War, under what condition could the Creeks remain in Georgia?
5. Why was the Seminoles’ acceptance of runaway slaves threatening to white Georgians?

A U.S. Marine boat expedition searching the Everglades during the Second Seminole War.
The Cherokees

The Cherokees lived in the southern ranges of the Appalachian Mountains, extending into four states—Tennessee, North Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. Living in the mountains, they were out of the main path of white migration to the west. This allowed them to avoid removal longer than the Creeks.

Until the 1790s, the Cherokees frequently went to war—against not only whites but also Creeks. During the American Revolution, they sided with the British. After the war, Cherokee war parties continued their raids on frontier settlements and forts, particularly in Tennessee. In 1793, near the present site of Rome, Georgia, the Cherokees were defeated in their last major battle with American forces. The next year, the United States concluded a peace treaty with the Cherokees. It was the end of a long, bloody era of death and destruction on both sides. The next time the Cherokees took up arms, they sided with the United States during the Creek War of 1813 and 1814.

During the 1700s, the Cherokees, for the most part, lived in “towns” stretching along rivers and streams. Each town, and there were 80 or so, was an independent chiefdom. Only at the end of the century did the Cherokees move toward uniting their towns and people as a nation under a unified government.
PROGRESS AND SETBACKS IN THE CHEROKEE NATION

In the eyes of many white Americans, the Cherokees were the most “civilized” Indians. Whites considered the Cherokees to be advanced far beyond other tribal groups because they had adopted so much of the white culture.

In the early 1800s, white Americans learned that a Cherokee named Sequoyah [George Guess] was doing something that missionaries and other whites had been unable to do. He was writing and teaching others to write the Cherokee language.

The system taught by Sequoyah was a syllabary\(^1\), not an alphabet. It was a set of written characters, or symbols, used to represent spoken syllables. Using the syllabary was a way to show that the Cherokees didn’t need the whites’ written English.

In an attempt to save their homeland, the Cherokees joined together to form a nation that stretched across four states. New Echota, near present-day Calhoun, became the Cherokee capital. Here, in 1827, the Cherokees wrote a constitution for their nation. Patterned after the U.S. Constitution, it provided for legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government. The nation was divided into eight districts, and each sent elected representatives to the capital.

New Echota also served as the home of the Cherokee Phoenix, a bilingual\(^2\) (two language) newspaper. Its printing shop, along with other buildings of the time, still stands today.

Missionaries were allowed to operate

Newspaper office where the Cherokee Phoenix was published. It is located at the New Echota Historic Site near Calhoun along with other original and reconstructed buildings at the capital of the Cherokee Nation.
churches and schools, and many Cherokees accepted Christianity. In many ways, the Cherokees lived just like whites. They lived in houses and made a living from farming or operating stores, mills, taverns, inns, and ferries. Some became lawyers and teachers.

Although the Cherokee government had the approval of the U.S. government, Georgia refused to recognize it. State leaders argued that the U.S. Constitution prohibited the creation of a “nation” within a state without the approval of that state’s government.

In 1828, the Georgia General Assembly decided to put an end to the Cherokee nation. It passed an act extending the laws of the state and the authority of its courts over the Cherokee territory. Cherokee laws were declared “null and void”—that is, of no effect—as of June 1, 1830. The act also provided that no Indian or descendant of an Indian could be a witness against a white person in court. An Indian could not bring a lawsuit against a white person.

The Cherokees were outraged. After all, hadn’t they signed treaties with the U.S. government? Hadn’t the United States agreed they could set up their own government and laws?

In 1829, Cherokee representatives journeyed to Washington and presented their case, known as a memorial, to Congress. The memorial was a formal statement of the facts and contained objections to actions by the U.S. government.

In March 1829, while Congress considered the Cherokees’ request, Andrew Jackson took office as president of the United States. He asked Congress to pass an Indian removal bill, giving him more power in Indian matters.

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Sequoyah (George Guess), with a copy of the Cherokee syllabary. Although he used many letters of the English alphabet, he also created several unique symbols.
Jackson also addressed the native people directly. His message, aimed specifically at the Creeks still in Alabama, let Georgia Cherokees know exactly where he stood. Speaking to the Creeks as his “red children,” he told them to move to land in the west. Chief Speckled Snake’s reply reveals that he no longer trusted President Jackson to keep his promises to native people.

DISCOVERY OF GOLD BRINGS TROUBLE TO CHEROKEES

In 1828, gold nuggets were discovered in several creeks on the eastern boundary of the Cherokee nation. Then came word of gold mines near the present-day site of Dahlonega. The news spread quickly, and by 1829, America’s first gold rush was under way. Thousands of gold seekers, many of them wild and lawless men, rushed into north Georgia. The Cherokees appealed to the national government for help. U.S. soldiers were sent in to drive the miners off Indian lands.

Rather than being pleased with the help of federal troops, Georgia officials were upset that the federal government was interfering in state affairs. As of June 1830, the state claimed there no longer was a Cherokee nation. Rather, all territory occupied by the Cherokees was now part of Georgia and subject to its laws. Georgia called on President Jackson to withdraw federal troops from the gold region. The president agreed to allow the state to handle the matter, and the soldiers were pulled out.

Georgia then directed any whites living in the Cherokee country to sign an oath pledging to uphold the laws of Georgia. This law was aimed not at gold miners but at Protestant missionaries living and working among the Cherokees. These missionaries opposed Georgia’s efforts

LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS

1 Define: syllabary, bilingual
2 Identify: Sequoyah, New Echota, Cherokee Phoenix, null and void
3 Why were the Cherokees able to remain in Georgia longer than the Creeks?
4 What reason did Georgia leaders give for refusing to recognize the Cherokee nation?
to take over native land and urged the Cherokees to resist.

Several white missionaries refused to take Georgia’s oath and were arrested. In 1831, they were tried, convicted, and sentenced to four years at hard labor in the Georgia prison at Milledgeville. When Georgia’s governor, George Gilmer, offered to pardon them, they refused. “After all, if we committed no crime, how could we be pardoned for it?” the missionaries asked.

The missionaries’ situation gained national attention. Their case, *Worcester v. Georgia*, was carried to the U.S. Supreme Court. In 1832, Chief Justice John Marshall announced the Supreme Court’s decision: Georgia laws did not apply in the Cherokee nation. The missionaries should be freed.

The Cherokees celebrated. They believed the decision meant that their laws and their nation would be saved. It was not to be.

Georgia’s newly elected governor, Wilson Lumpkin, paid no attention to the Supreme Court. President Jackson, no friend of the Cherokees, sided with the state of Georgia. Said the president, “John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it.”

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THE CHEROKEES AND THEIR LANDS DIVIDED

The Cherokee cause now was hopeless. In sadness, they watched as the state surveyed their land, preparing to distribute it to whites in a great land lottery in 1832. Ten counties were mapped out and Governor Lumpkin urged white settlers who had drawn land in the lottery to occupy it. Cherokee families were forced from their homes by the new owners.
Most of the Cherokees continued to resist. Early in 1834, in a statement to President Jackson, they even offered to give up their own government and some of their territory. They wanted only to stay as citizens of the United States. However, Jackson replied, “The only relief for the Cherokees is by removal to the West.”

Like the Creeks earlier, the Cherokees were divided. Most followed Chief John Ross in resisting any move west. Another group followed the leadership of Major Ridge, his son John, and Elias Boudinot, the first editor of the Cherokee Phoenix. These men sincerely believed it was better for their people to move west.

In 1835, at New Echota, the Cherokee capital, the Ridge faction signed a treaty with the United States. By this treaty, they agreed to give up their lands and move west in return for $5 million. The majority of the nation, led by John Ross, opposed this treaty. Major Ridge, John Ridge, and Elias Boudinot were viewed as traitors by most Cherokees and would later pay with their lives for their actions.

Some Cherokees left for Arkansas across the Mississippi. Those who rejected the New Echota treaty stayed in Georgia. Within a few years, they were driven from their farms by white settlers. They continued to present their case in Washington, with no success.

The Trail of Tears. The trails for Cherokee removal included river as well as overland routes.
THE TRAIL OF TEARS

In 1838, U.S. Army troops, under Gen. Winfield Scott, rounded up the last 15,000 Cherokees in Georgia. Almost all the Cherokees resisted, and a few did escape to the mountains of western North Carolina. Eventually, they were allowed to live there in peace. Today, their descendants live on the Qualla Reservation, just outside Cherokee, North Carolina.

Although General Scott ordered his men to treat the Cherokees humanely, many did not. One Georgia soldier wrote many years later, “I fought through the Civil War, and have seen men shot to pieces and slaughtered by thousands, but the Cherokee removal was the cruelest work I ever knew.”

The last group of Cherokees left on November 4, 1838. A young Cherokee leader reported to Chief John Ross the following:

*We are now about to take our final leave and farewell to our native land, the country that the Great*
**Spirit gave our fathers. It is with sorrow that we are forced by the authority of the white man to quit the scenes of our childhood. We bid farewell to the country which gave us birth, and to all that we hold dear.**

The Cherokees were forced to march to the west on foot in the dead of winter. Exposed to bitter cold and disease, thousands of men, women, and children died. The Cherokees’ suffering was so great that the route they took became forever known as the “Trail of Tears.”

At last, total removal of Georgia’s Indians was complete. Well, almost complete. In December 1838, the Georgia legislature granted full citizenship to 22 well-to-do Cherokee families of mixed blood. But to continue living on a piece of their land, these families had to buy it back from the fortunate drawers who had won it in the lottery.

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. Define: faction
2. Identify: John Marshall, John Ross, Treaty of New Echota, Trail of Tears
3. Describe what happened in north Georgia when gold was discovered.
4. Did the Supreme Court rule in favor of the state of Georgia or the Cherokees in the case of the missionaries and the oath?
5. What did Major and John Ridge and Elias Boudinot believe the Cherokees in Georgia should do?
Vocabulary

1. Syllabary - A set of written characters, or symbols, used to represent spoken syllables.
2. Bilingual - Using two languages.
3. Faction - Part of a group united on a major issue.
Memorial

Of John Ross and Others, Representatives of the Cherokee Nation of Indians, 20th Congress, 2d Session, March 3, 1829

... We ... respectfully and solemnly protest, in behalf of the Cherokee nation, against the extension of the laws of Georgia over any part of our Territory, and appeal to the United States’ Government for justice and protection.

The great Washington advised a plan and afforded aid for the general improvement of our nation, in agriculture, science, and government. President Jefferson followed the noble example, and concluded an address to our delegation, in language as follows: “I sincerely wish you may succeed in your laudable endeavors to save the remnant of your nation by adopting industrious occupations and a Government of regular law. In this you may always rely on the counsel and assistance of the United States.” This kind and generous policy to improve our condition has been blessed with the happiest results: our improvement has been without parallel in the history of all Indian nations. Agriculture is everywhere pursued, and the interests of our citizens are permanent in the soil. We have enjoyed the blessings of Christian instruction; and the advantages of education and merit are justly appreciated, a Government of regular law has been adopted, and the nation, under a continuance of the fostering care of the United States, will stand forth as a living testimony that all Indian nations are not doomed to the fate which has swept many from the face of the earth.

Under the parental protection of the United States, we have arrived at the present degree of improvement, and they are now to decide whether we shall continue as a people, or be abandoned to destruction.

In behalf, and under the authority of the Cherokee nation, this protest and memorial is respectfully submitted.

John Ross
Edward Gunter
R. Taylor
William S. Coody

Washington City, February 27, 1829.
Friends and Brothers—By permission of the Great Spirit above, and the voice of the people, I have been made President of the United States, and now speak to you as your Father and friend, and request you to listen. Your warriors have known me long. You know I love my white and red children, and always speak with a straight, and not with a forked tongue; that I have always told you the truth. I now speak to you, as my children, in the language of truth—Listen. . . .

Where you now are, you and my white children are too near to each other to live in harmony and peace. Your game is destroyed, and many of your people will not work and till the earth. Beyond the great River Mississippi, where a part of your nation has gone, your Father has provided a country large enough for all of you, and he advises you to remove to it. There your white brothers will not trouble you; they will have no claim to the land, and you can live upon it, you and all your children, as long as the grass grows or the water runs, in peace and plenty. It will be yours forever. For the improvements in the country where you now live, and for all the stock which you cannot take with you, your Father will pay a fair price. . . .

Where you now live your white brothers have always claimed the land. The land beyond the Mississippi belongs to the President and to none else; and he will give it you forever. . . .

Friends and Brothers, listen. This is a straight and good talk. It is for your nation’s good, and your Father requests you to hear his counsel.

Signed,

ANDREW JACKSON

March 23, 1829
Chief Speckled Snake Replies

[Speech made at council of Indian chiefs assembled to have President Jackson’s talk read to them, from Niles’ Weekly Register, June 20, 1829.]

Brothers! We have heard the talk of our great father; it is very kind. He says he loves his red children. Brothers! When the white man first came to these shores, the Muscogees gave him land, and kindled him a fire to make him comfortable; and when the pale faces of the south [the Spanish in Florida] made war on him, their young men drew the tomahawk, and protected his head from the scalping knife.

But when the white man had warmed himself before the Indian’s fire, and filled himself with the Indian’s hominy, he became very large; he stopped not for the mountain tops, and his feet covered the plains and the valleys. His hands grasped the eastern and western sea.

Then he became our great father. He loved his red children; but said, “You must move a little farther, lest I should by accident tread on you.” With one foot he pushed the red man over the Oconee, and with the other he trampled down the graves of his fathers.

But our great father still loved his red children, and he soon made them another talk. He said much; but it all meant nothing, but “move a little farther; you are too near me.” I have heard a great many talks from our great father, and they all began and ended the same.

Brothers! When he made us a talk on a former occasion, he said, “Get a little farther; go beyond the Oconee and the Oakmulgee; there is a pleasant country.” He also said, “It shall be yours forever.”

Now he says, “The land you live on is not yours; go beyond the Mississippi; there is game; there you may remain while the grass grows or the water runs.”

Brothers! Will not our great father come there also? He loves his red children, and his tongue is not forked.

INTERPRETING THE SOURCE

1 Analyze the documents by answering the questions for each of the three documents.
2 Identify the author/speaker.
3 Identify the date.
4 Identify the intended audience.
5 Summarize two important points made by each author or speaker.
In 1828, Benjamin Parks crossed the eastern boundary of the Cherokee Nation while hunting deer. In what today is Lumpkin County, he stumbled over a stone of an unusual color. He recognized it immediately—gold!

Word spread quickly. By 1829, thousands of miners and prospectors had converged on north Georgia in America’s first major gold rush. At its height, over 10,000 people were panning for gold flakes and nuggets in streams, while others mined veins of gold in the hillsides.

The discovery of gold would seal the fate of the Cherokees. In 1830, Georgia’s legislature passed an act claiming jurisdiction over Cherokee land. The act also provided for surveying the Cherokee lands, dividing them into land lots, and authorizing a lottery to distribute the land.

In 1832, the Georgia legislature created Lumpkin County. The new settlement of Dahlonega became the county seat. In 1835, Congress authorized the building of a new U.S. mint for production of gold coins in Dahlonega. Completed in 1837, the mint produced its first gold coins in 1838. Over the next 23 years, it produced almost 1.4 million coins, with a total face value of over $6.1 million. After Georgia seceded from the Union in 1861, the mint closed, never to reopen.

During a restoration of Georgia’s capitol in 1957, a Dahlonega-born engineer proposed covering the capitol dome with Georgia gold. Dahlonega citizens donated 43 ounces of native gold for the project. In August 1958, a caravan of seven covered wagons delivered the gold to Atlanta. After it was hammered into gold leaf and applied to the capitol dome, Georgia joined eight other states with gold-domed capitols.

Twenty years later, however, much of the gold had worn off. Once again Dahlonega citizens came to the rescue. A “Make Georgia a Shining Example” project was launched to raise money for new gold. Schoolchildren throughout the state donated nickels and dimes for the project. In November 1979, a wagon train carrying 60 ounces of gold dust and nuggets left Dahlonega on a three-day trip to Atlanta. A mile-long procession of wagons and riders passed through downtown Atlanta to the state capitol where Gov. George Busbee was waiting to accept the gold.

Afterward, the gold was refined and molded into fine leaf in preparation for gilding. The dome was stripped completely bare of its old gold, and using a secret process, new gilding was applied. By 1981, the project was complete. Once again, Georgia had a beautiful capitol dome covered with gold and keeping alive memories of Dahlonega’s golden past.
CHAPTER 10 QUIZ

Text Version