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Peggy

TALKING POINTS: NOORDEINDE TOAST
NOORDEINDE PALACE, THE NETHERLANDS
JULY 17, 1989
8:30 PM

- QUEEN BEATRIX, HONORED GUESTS: MANY THANKS FOR YOUR WARM WELCOME AND KIND HOSPITALITY.

- I AM ESPECIALLY PLEASED TO MAKE MY FIRST VISIT TO THE NETHERLANDS AS PRESIDENT -- THE FIRST VISIT OF ANY SITTING AMERICAN PRESIDENT TO YOUR COUNTRY.

- THERE HAS BEEN A STRONG DUTCH CONNECTION FOR MANY AMERICAN PRESIDENTS. OUR FIRST AMBASSADOR TO THE NETHERLANDS, JOHN ADAMS, BECAME OUR SECOND PRESIDENT.

- HIS SON, JOHN QUINCY, STUDIED AT LEIDEN, AND -- FOLLOWING IN HIS FATHER'S FOOTSTEPS -- WENT ON TO BE AMBASSADOR TO THE NETHERLANDS AND OUR SIXTH PRESIDENT.

- FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT AND TEDDY ROOSEVELT WERE OF DUTCH DESCENT.

- SO WAS MARTIN VAN BUREN -- MY INSPIRATION: THE LAST SITTING VICE-PRESIDENT TO WIN ELECTION TO THE PRESIDENCY -- BACK IN 1836.

- AND I HAVE MY OWN DUTCH CONNECTION. BOTH MY FAMILY -- AND BARBARA'S -- HAD ANCESTORS ON THAT MAIDEN MAYFLOWER VOYAGE.

- THE LONG AND FRIENDLY RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OUR NATIONS IS PROOF OF THE VALUES WE SHARE.

- BOTH OF OUR NATIONS HAVE PROUD HISTORIES AS SAFE HAVENS FOR PEOPLE SEEKING FREEDOM.

- That history meets in Leiden, which welcomed the Pilgrims who later settled the New world that became America.
- Today, the U.S. and the Netherlands are partners in commerce, partners in common defense -- with a common stake in peace, freedom and prosperity.

- Let us now raise our glasses:

  To Her Majesty Queen Beatrix;

  To a third century of friendship between our nations;

  To the peace and freedom cherished here and in America.

# # #

MEMORANDUM OF CALL

Previous editions usable

TO:

☐ YOU WERE CALLED BY— ☐ YOU WERE VISITED BY—

OF (Organization) Direct Investment Position

☐ PLEASE PHONE ▶ ☐ FTS ☐ AUTOVON

☐ WILL CALL AGAIN ☐ IS WAITING TO SEE YOU

☐ RETURNED YOUR CALL ☐ WISHES AN APPOINTMENT

MESSAGE

Dave Belli 523-0657

Jim Baumkamp 0559

RECEIVED BY	DATE	TIME

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TALKING POINTS: NOORDEINDE TOAST
NOORDEINDE PALACE, THE NETHERLANDS
JULY 18, 1989
8:30 PM

PM Lubbers

- QUEEN BEATRIX, ~~MEMBERS OF THE DUTCH PARLIAMENT:~~

MANY THANKS FOR YOUR WARM WELCOME AND KIND HOSPITALITY.

- I AM ESPECIALLY PLEASED TO MAKE MY FIRST VISIT TO THE NETHERLANDS AS PRESIDENT -- THE FIRST VISIT OF ANY SITTING AMERICAN PRESIDENT TO YOUR COUNTRY.

- THERE HAS BEEN A STRONG DUTCH CONNECTION FOR MANY AMERICAN PRESIDENTS. OUR FIRST AMBASSADOR TO THE NETHERLANDS -- ~~THE FIRST AMERICAN AMBASSADOR TO ANY NATION~~ -- JOHN ADAMS, BECAME OUR SECOND PRESIDENT.

✓

- HIS SON, JOHN QUINCY, STUDIED AT LEIDEN.

Encyclopedia Americana

- FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT AND TEDDY ROOSEVELT WERE OF DUTCH DESCENT.

"A Bilateral Bicentennial: A History of Dutch-American Relations, 1782-1982" p. 150

- SO WAS MARTIN VAN BUREN -- MY INSPIRATION: THE LAST SITTING VICE-PRESIDENT TO WIN ELECTION TO THE PRESIDENCY -- BACK IN 1836.

Encyal Britannica p-152

- AND I HAVE MY OWN DUTCH CONNECTION. BOTH MY FAMILY -- AND BARBARA'S -- HAD ANCESTORS ON THAT MAIDEN MAYFLOWER VOYAGE.

Gary Boyd Roberts
~~Mayflower Society~~
617/246-1624
New England Genealogical Society
author of "Ancestors of the Presidents"

- THE LONG AND FRIENDLY RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OUR NATIONS IS PROOF OF THE VALUES WE SHARE.

- BOTH OF OUR NATIONS HAVE PROUD HISTORIES AS SAFE HAVENS FOR PEOPLE SEEKING FREEDOM.

- THAT HISTORY MEETS IN LEIDEN, WHICH WELCOMED THE PILGRIMS WHO LATER SETTLED THE NEW WORLD THAT BECAME AMERICA.

- TODAY, THE U.S. AND THE NETHERLANDS ARE PARTNERS IN COMMERCE, PARTNERS IN COMMON DEFENSE -- WITH A COMMON STAKE IN PEACE, FREEDOM AND PROSPERITY.

- LET US NOW RAISE OUR GLASSES:

  TO HER MAJESTY QUEEN BEATRIX;

  TO A THIRD CENTURY OF FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN OUR NATIONS;

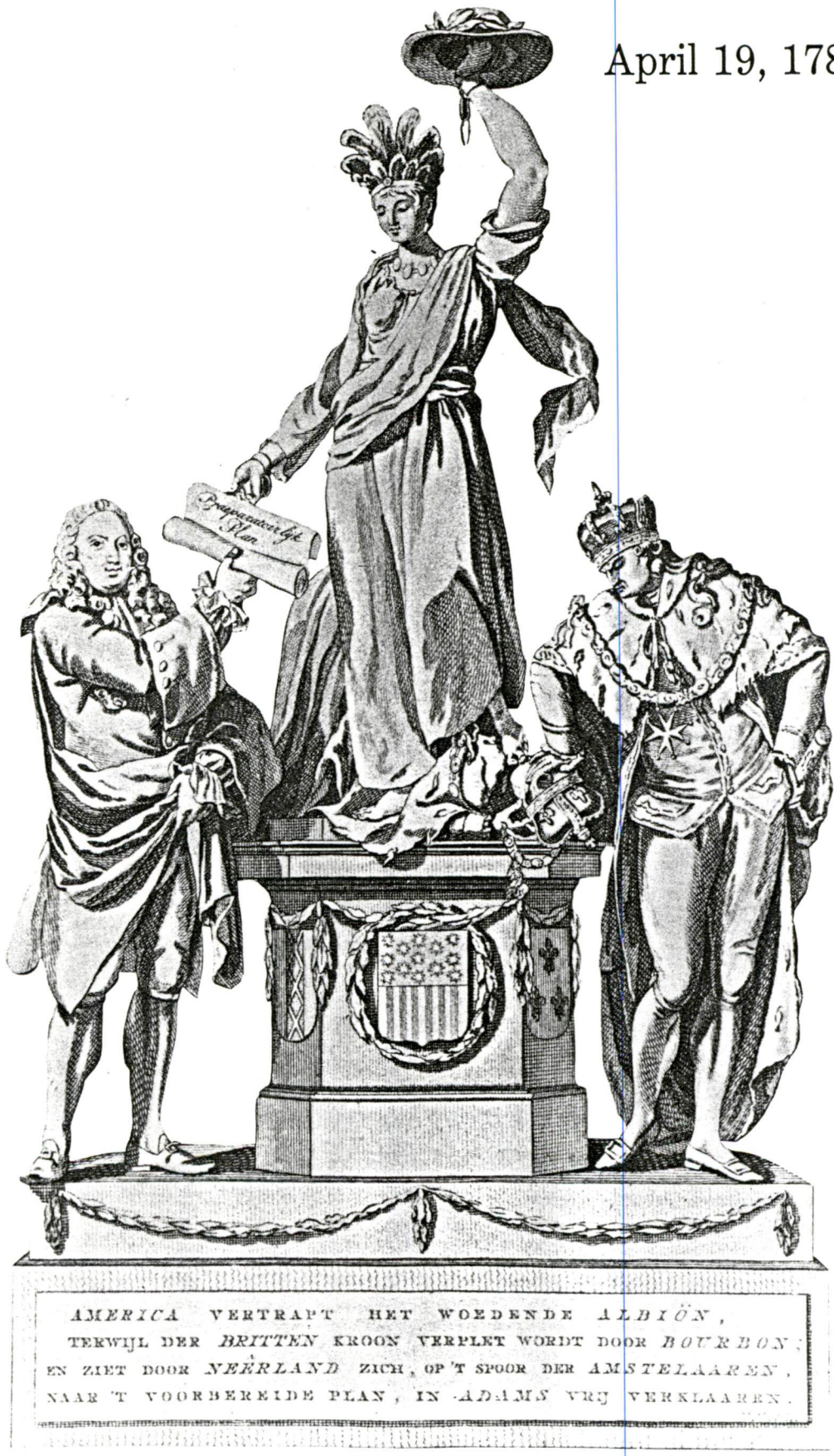
  TO THE PEACE AND FREEDOM CHERISHED HERE AND IN AMERICA.

# # #

The Netherlands recognizes the United States

"The most friendly and beneficial connexion"

April 19, 1782



NETHERLANDS

Tractaat

van Vriendschap en Commercie tusschen Haar Hoog Mogende, de Staten Generaal der Vereenigde Nederlanden, en de Vereenigde Staten van America, te weeten New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, en Providence Plantations, Connecticutt, New-York, New-Jersey, Pensylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Noord Carolina, Zuyd-Carolina en Georgia.

Haar Hoog Mogende de Staten Generaal der Vereenigde Nederlanden, en de Vereenigde Staten van America, te weeten New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island en Providence Plantations, Connecticutt, New-York, New-Jersey, Pensylvanien, Delaware, Maryland, Virginien, Noord-Carolina, Zuyd-Carolina en Georgien, geneigen zijnde, op een bestendige en billijke wyze te bepalen de regelen, die in acht genomen moeten worden, ten opzigte van de Correspondentie en Commercie welke zij verlangen vast te stellen tusschen haare respective Landen, Staten, Onderdanen en Ingezeetenen, hebben geoordeelt, dat het gezegde einde niet beter kan worden bereikt, dan door te stellen tot een Basis van haar Verdrag, de volmaakste egaliteit en

A Treaty

of Amity and Commerce between Their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Netherlands, and the United States of America, to wit New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticutt, New-York, New-Jersey, Pensylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia.

Their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Netherlands, and the United States of America, to wit New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticutt, New-York, New-Jersey, Pensylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina and Georgia, desiring to ascertain, in a permanient and equitable manner, the Rules to be observed, relative to the Commerce, and Correspondence, which They intend to establish, between their respective States, Countries and Inhabitants, have judged, that the said End cannot be better obtained, than by establishing the most perfect Equality and Reciprocity, for the Basis of their

John Adams (1735–1826), born in Braintree (now Quincy), Massachusetts, was educated at Harvard University and elected a delegate to the First Continental Congress in 1774. A signer of the Declaration of Independence, Adams served as a commissioner to France 1777–1779, before being appointed as Minister to the Netherlands in January 1781. He was received by the Dutch Government on April 19, 1782. Later that year he secured loans in the Netherlands and negotiated a treaty of amity and commerce. He then joined other American diplomats in Paris to negotiate the treaty of peace with Great Britain. He served as Vice President under George Washington, 1789–1797, and as the second President of the United States, 1797–1801. (Courtesy Harvard University Portrait Collection, Bequest-Ward Nicholas Boylston, 1828)

Establishment of diplomatic relations between the United Provinces of the Netherlands and the United States on April 19, 1782, marked a significant event in the history of the two nations.[1] *Linked with America by common traditions of intellectual and political freedom, as well as by financial, commercial, and cultural ties, the Netherlands was the second country—after France—to recognize the Thirteen Colonies as an independent and sovereign nation.*

From the beginning of the War for Independence, the American revolutionaries found sympathy among the Dutch, who had won their own independence from Spain two centuries before and who shared the Americans' views on the importance of seapower, free trade, and neutral rights on the high seas. But widespread British influence in the United Provinces and fear of British retaliation against Dutch shipping delayed concrete demonstrations of support for the Colonies until the tide of battle turned in favor of the rebels. While American diplomat John Adams' initial months in the Netherlands were full of perplexity over the workings of Dutch political institutions and frustration at the procrastination of the government and financiers, in the end he saw the establishment of official relations and the conclusion of a treaty of amity and commerce between the two republics on October 8, 1782, as "the greatest action of my life."[2]

It was clearly more than a personal triumph. As one historian has observed, the two countries dealt with one another as equals, and the Dutch actions "established the value of the United States in the eyes of the world, thereby marking a step forward in the independent national life of the new commonwealth."[3] *A year later—October 31, 1783—the first Dutch Minister to the United States, Pieter Johan van Berckel, presented his credentials to the Continental Congress.*

The International Setting

An already flourishing Dutch trade with the Colonies increased after the American Revolution erupted in the spring of 1775. Much of this trade was carried on at the Dutch island of Sint Eustatius in the Caribbean, where American merchants exchanged their products for gunpowder, iron, and other goods. Much to the annoyance of the British, the Dutch soon became a most important supplier of munitions to the American insurgents.

To gain European support for the war against Great Britain, the Continental Congress in November 1775 instructed the Committee of Secret Correspondence to write to certain agents in England and France to ascertain the attitudes of the major powers toward the rebellion. On behalf of the committee, Benjamin Franklin asked an old friend, Charles Guillaume Frédéric Dumas, to act as the American agent in the Dutch Republic. A man of letters and a capable linguist, Dumas was a naturalized Dutch citizen of Swiss origin who had long been fascinated by life in colonial America and who was an early supporter of the Colonies' rebellion. Franklin also made an urgent request for arms and ammunition. Dumas willingly accepted the offer, and his enthusiasm and incessant efforts on behalf of the American cause contributed significantly to the success of John Adams' mission to the Netherlands a few years later.

France, England's archenemy, was the first power to respond to the appeals of the American rebels. A few months after the Colonies proclaimed independence in July 1776, Congress sent a commission to France, headed by Franklin, to obtain funds and munitions. At Versailles on February 6, 1778, France signed treaties of alliance and friendship with the United States, thereby becoming the first country to recognize the Thirteen Colonies as an independent nation.

French recognition created a difficult foreign policy problem for the Dutch Republic. On the one hand, it was tied to

Britain by two treaties—a commercial treaty of 1674 and an alliance of 1678; moreover, its weak army and unprotected borders made it vulnerable to invasion by the French. On the other hand, an alliance with France would expose Dutch shipping—the major source of wealth—to attack and destruction by the powerful British Navy. In addition, many of the Dutch feared a possible reconciliation between England and the United States or recognition by England of American independence in exchange for a monopoly on the American trade.

The preservation of its existing trade became increasingly important because, in contrast to its great commercial prosperity of the previous century, the Dutch economy had declined in the 1700s. Moreover, the Netherlands was losing its traditional position as a staples market of Europe. While the Netherlands was still a major factor in commercial shipping from the Baltic to the Caribbean, many of the Dutch knew that their vulnerability to British seapower meant that neutrality, which allowed them to profit from trade with France and other belligerents, was the best guarantee of their independence and commerce.

Even though part of the Dutch people favored neutrality, this issue divided the major domestic political factions. The Orangists—the party of the Stadholder, Prince Willem V of Orange—traditionally favored close ties with England. The pro-French Patriots, by contrast, held republican views and sympathized with the United States on philosophical grounds. In France and Russia, they saw a counterbalance to the pervasive English influence in the economic and political life of the United Provinces. Another group, the merchants of the principal seaports, supported trade with France and America, and while they did not agree with the political philosophy of the Patriots, they joined them in their strategy of obstructing the Stadholder. This power struggle between the chief of state and the municipalities, dominated by the wealthy bourgeoisie, continued throughout 1779 and 1780.

The reaction to the arrival of the American Navy Captain John Paul Jones in Dutch waters with captured British ships on October 4, 1779, underscored the complexity of the Dutch situation. While the people of Amsterdam gave Jones an enthusiastic reception, the English Ambassador, Sir Joseph Yorke, strongly urged the Stadholder to take firm action against Jones. However, the States General, not the Stadholder, had sovereign powers in foreign affairs, and this body was in no hurry to decide the question. Finally, after 3 months of maneuvering by British and French diplomats in the Netherlands, the States General required Jones to leave.

The question of neutral rights concerned Russia as well as the Netherlands. In February 1780, Catherine II of Russia proclaimed a code of maritime principles for the protection of neutrals and asked other sovereigns to join her in the League of Armed Neutrality. Many nations responded; even the rebellious Colonies were interested. On October 5 Congress adopted a resolution stating its support for the league and its desire to join if invited. On December 10 the Dutch Republic announced it would accede to the league; less than two weeks later it found itself unexpectedly and involuntarily at war with Great Britain.

War Between the Netherlands and Great Britain

Great Britain declared war on the Netherlands on December 21, 1780, after accusing the Dutch of negotiating a secret treaty with the American rebels. Since 1776 American agents and Dutch bankers had been holding talks in Amsterdam about the possibility of negotiating a loan for the United States. Lack of official relations and uncertainty in the Netherlands about American credit were major obstacles in these negotiations. But in September 1778, William Lee, the representative of the Continental Congress to the Courts of Berlin and

Vienna, and Jean de Neufville, a prominent Amsterdam merchant and banker, secretly drew up a draft treaty of amity and commerce between the United Provinces and the Thirteen States of North America without authorization from either of their governments. It was modeled on the Franco-American treaty of 1778 and strongly supported by Engelbert François van Berckel, one of its initiators, who was Amsterdam's Pensionary and one of its most powerful magistrates. The draft accord demonstrated the desire of the Amsterdam magistrates to restrain Congress from making agreements disadvantageous to the Netherlands and to provide American leaders with proof of their pro-American sentiments.

In October 1779, after receiving a copy of this draft treaty from Lee, Congress commissioned Henry Laurens of South Carolina to obtain a loan of $10 million in the Netherlands and to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. Because Laurens' departure was considerably delayed, Congress also sent a letter in June 1780 to John Adams—one of the commissioners in Paris—empowering him, pending Laurens' arrival, to act in his stead. In August 1780 Laurens set sail from Philadelphia, but a British frigate seized his ship off the coast of Newfoundland. Before the British stormed the ship, Laurens tossed overboard the bag containing his letters of credence to the States General and the copy of the draft secret treaty. But the iron shot attached to the bag was insufficient to sink it, and the British easily fished it out of the sea.

When the copy of the draft treaty reached London, the British Government imprisoned Laurens in the Tower of London. Aware that the Dutch were prepared to join the League of Armed Neutrality, the British Government denounced the Anglo-Dutch alliance. Rather than have the Dutch Republic join the league and make its ships and goods available to France and Spain, the British preferred a war that would give them freedom to capture Dutch ships and end Dutch contraband trade with America. British attacks on Dutch shipping began immediately, and an English squadron captured Sint Eustatius and other Dutch possessions in the Caribbean.

Adams' Mission in the Netherlands

While the battle over Dutch neutrality was being waged in the summer of 1780, John Adams arrived in the Netherlands. He reached Rotterdam on August 4 with his two sons, 13-year old John Quincy and 10-year old Charles, and, after proceeding through Delft, The Hague, and Leyden, arrived in Amsterdam on August 10. Disagreeing with French Foreign Minister Vergennes and Franklin, whom he considered too subservient to the French, Adams thought he was wasting his time in Paris. On his own initiative, even before receiving Congress' instructions, Adams had decided to go to the Netherlands to seek recognition and money for his government. His purpose was "to see if something might not be done there, to render my country somewhat less dependent of France, both for political consideration, for loans of money and supplies for our army."[4] He resided at Amsterdam because he felt it would be easier to secure loans there and he would not be under the thumb of the Duc de la Vauguyon, French Ambassador at The Hague.

This round-faced and outspoken New England lawyer found the Dutch people hospitable and friendly. The thriving city of Amsterdam, full of foreigners, merchants, and diplomatic agents, excited him and he easily made many new friends. Soon after arriving he praised the country in a letter to his wife, Abigail:

I have been here three weeks, and have spent my time very agreeably here. I am very much pleased with Holland. It is a singular Country. It is like no other. It is all the Effect of Industry and the Work of Art. The Frugality, Industry, Cleanliness

etc. here, deserve the Imitation of my Countrymen. The Fruit of these Virtues has been immense Wealth and great Prosperity. They are not Ambitious, and therefore happy. They are very sociable, however, in their peculiar Fashion.[5]

Adams immediately set out to learn Dutch, to study the country's history, and to understand its people, government, and international situation. For Adams, comprehending the complicated Dutch political system was difficult:

The sovereignty resides in the States-general; but who are the States-general? Not their High Mightinesses who assemble at the Hague to deliberate; these are only deputies of the States-general. The States-general are the regencies of the cities and the bodies of nobles in the several Provinces. The burgomasters of Amsterdam, therefore, who are called the regency, are one integral branch of the sovereignty of the United Provinces, and the most material branch of all, because the city of Amsterdam is one quarter of the whole republic, at least in taxes.[6]

A month after his arrival, Adams received a provisional commission from Congress to negotiate a loan. His initial expectation was that support would be easily obtained, but he soon discovered that the merchants and bankers of the United Provinces did not want to risk their funds without assurance of repayment and that they wanted commercial advantage as much as the United States wanted credit.

To the Dutch capitalists, the prospect of an American triumph looked slim in 1780 in view of British victories at Charleston in May and at Camden, South Carolina, in August. The longer Adams stayed in Holland, the more he realized how difficult it would be to persuade the Dutch to take any concrete action. By the end of 1780, although discouraged by his lack of success in obtaining a loan, he had not given up hope. In a letter to the President of Congress, he wrote:

Patience, firmness, and perseverance are our only remedy; these are a sure and infallible one; and, with this observation, I beg permission to take my leave of Congress for the Year 1780, which has been to me the most anxious and mortifying year of my whole life.[7]

Because of Laurens' capture by the British, Congress on January 1, 1781, appointed Adams as Minister Plenipotentiary to the Government of the Netherlands.

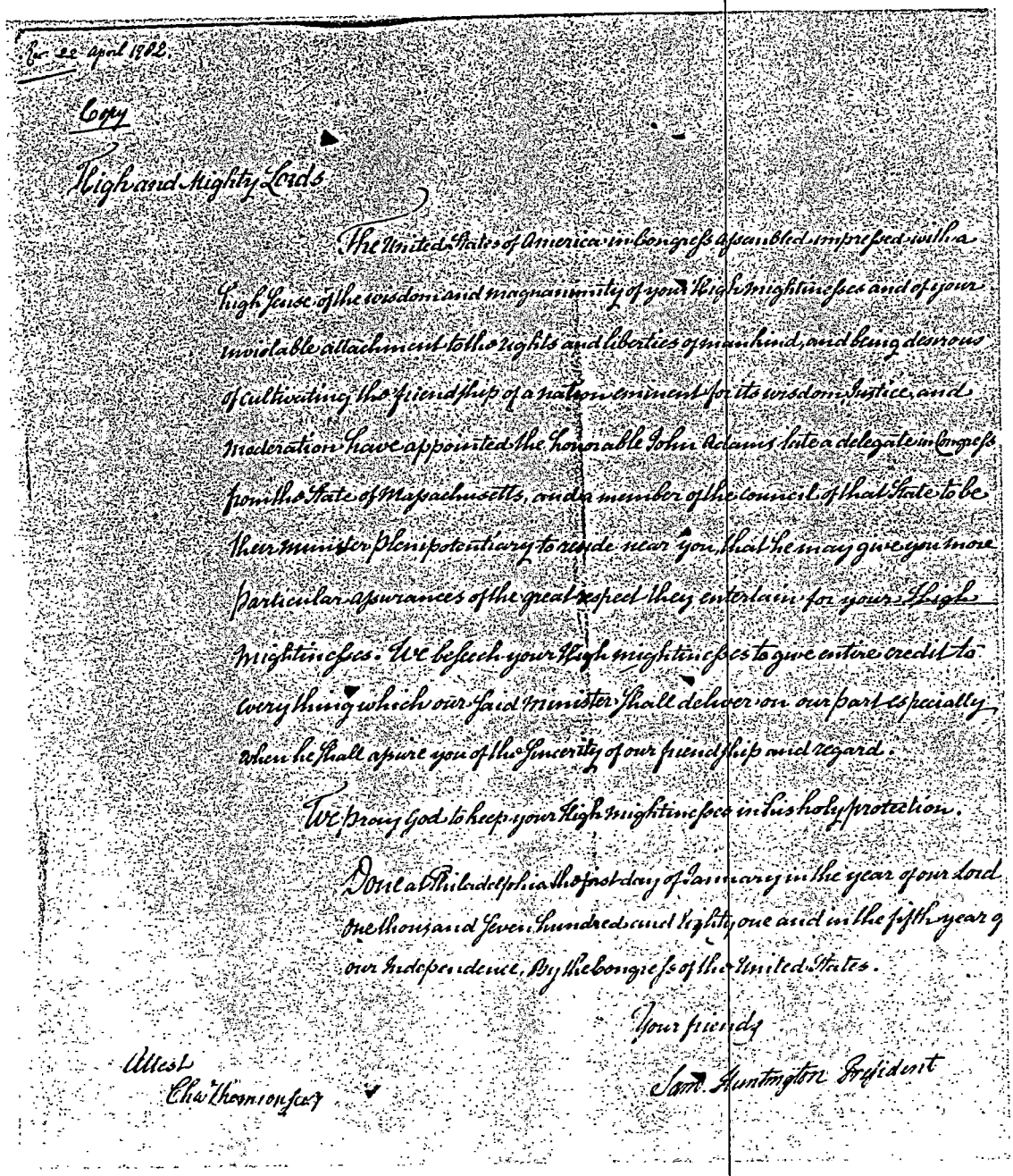
Adams realized that in order to obtain loans from the United Provinces, he would have to educate its people about his country. Even in the large port cities, he found pessimism about the chances of the rebellion succeeding, suspicion that the United States would fall under the control of France and Spain, and unfamiliarity with either the government or resources of the United States. In writing to the President of Congress, he said:

This country has been grossly deceived. It has little knowledge of the numbers, wealth, and resources of the United States, and less faith in their finally supporting their independence, upon which alone a credit depends. They have also an opinion of the power of England vastly higher than the truth. Measures must be taken, but with great caution and delicacy, to undeceive them.[8]

Adams' Supporters in the Netherlands

Adams demonstrated his exceptional talents as an advocate for the United States. He read, talked, questioned, persuaded, and skillfully argued with those he met and seemed instinctively to know what would appeal to Dutch readers. With the assistance of friends and collaborators, he flooded the United Provinces with sermons, articles, and letters from America. Dumas, who put Adams in touch with writers and publishers in the Patriot party, translated

Prince Willem V (1748–1806), served as Stadholder of the United Provinces of the Netherlands from 1751–1795. The later years of his rule saw the Netherlands weakened by its participation in European conflicts in 1780 and again in 1792–1793 and by internal factional strife. He was overthrown in 1795 and fled to England. (Private Collection of J.W. Schulte Nordholt)



Rec. 22 April 1782.

Copy

High and Mighty Lords

The United States of America in Congress assembled impressed with a high sense of the wisdom and magnanimity of your High Mightinesses and of your inviolable attachment to the rights and liberties of mankind, and being desirous of cultivating the friendship of a nation so eminent for its wisdom, justice, and moderation have appointed the honorable John Adams late a delegate in Congress from the State of Massachusetts, and a member of the Council of that State to be their minister plenipotentiary to reside near you, that he may give you more particular assurances of the great respect they entertain for your High Mightinesses. We beseech your High Mightinesses to give entire credit to every thing which our said minister shall deliver on our part especially when he shall assure you of the sincerity of our friendship and regard.

We pray God to keep your High Mightinesses in his holy protection.

Done at Philadelphia the first day of January in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty one and in the fifth year of our Independence, By the Congress of the United States.

Your friends

Sam. Huntington President

Attest

Chas Thomson Secy

Copy of John Adams' letter of credence, which he presented to the States General on April 20, 1782, and to Prince Willem V two days later. (Courtesy of the Algemeen Rijksarchief, The Hague)

and edited any material Adam wanted to circulate.

Through Dumas, Adams met Johan Luzac, a Patriot, lawyer, and classical scholar of Leyden who became a close personal friend. Luzac was editor of the *Nouvelles extraordinaires de divers endroits* published in Leyden and known throughout Europe as the *Gazette de Leyde*. Extremely interested in the goals and policies of the Thirteen Colonies and wanting to publish factual accounts, not propaganda or rumors, Luzac printed the reports provided by Adams of meetings of the American Philosophical Society in Philadelphia and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences in Boston. Later he printed, in installments, the new Massachusetts constitution which Adams himself had drafted.

Another important friend was Antoine Marie Cerisier, a Frenchman, classical scholar, and authority on Dutch history and government who published the journal *Le politique hollandais* of Amsterdam. Since this publication was an organ of French propaganda, he eagerly followed many of Adams' suggestions and printed material favorable to America. Adams was especially pleased when Cerisier printed and distributed in large numbers translations of accounts by the defeated British Generals Burgoyne and Howe. While the authors attempted to excuse their military failures, they also unwittingly demonstrated the desperate state of the British cause in America.

Adams also met the prominent Amsterdam jurist, Hendrik Calkoen, who bombarded him with questions about America. Adams suggested they be put in writing and systematically answered. The 26 short essays Adams wrote as replies were used by Calkoen to compare the 16th century revolt of the Low Countries against Spain with the American rebellion against Great Britain. He concluded that the success of the former was a miracle and that it would be a greater miracle if the latter did not succeed. Calkoen read a paper containing these conclusions to a literary society in Amsterdam and thereby spread some of Adams' ideas as well as his own.

Other close friends of Adams included Johan Derk van der Capellen, a nobleman who had been the first in the Netherlands to espouse the American cause. As early as 1775, Van der Capellen declared that the Americans deserved esteem "as brave folk who in a calm, courageous and Godfearing manner are defending the rights granted to them as human beings, not by the Legislature in England, but by God himself."[9] He gave Adams useful advice and support, as did the Mennonite preacher from Leyden, François Adrian van der Kemp, who demonstrated his faith in America through preaching and publication of American documents. Van der Kemp, who eventually settled in the United States, wrote enthusiastically:

In America the sun of salvation has risen which shall also shine upon us if we wish: only America can revive our Commerce, our Navigation: . . . America can teach us how to fight the degeneration of the people's character, to stay moral corruption, to put an end to bribery, to smother the seeds of tyranny and to restore the health of our moribund freedom. America has been ordained by the Being of all beings to be the Netherlands' last preacher of penitence; America has been ordained to heal the flaws in the character of the Netherlands people, if they wish to follow in its footsteps.[10]

A Time of Difficulty for Adams

In the early months of his mission in the Netherlands, Adams encountered a clear unwillingness to lend financial assistance to the Colonies. Consequently he was heartened by increased signs of support for his countrymen that began appearing early in 1781. Addresses supporting the Colonies were presented in

the theaters, and popular songs were sung in the streets of Amsterdam. Adams also saw hope in the new wave of anti-British feeling in Haarlem, Leyden, The Hague, Delft, and Rotterdam following England's declaration of war against the Netherlands. These signs encouraged him to make himself and his mission known formally to the Dutch Government.

After receiving his credentials, along with instructions to conclude a treaty if possible with the States General, Adams consulted with his most influential and knowledgeable Dutch friends and decided not to present his credentials. At Adams' request, Dumas instead submitted a memorial to the States General on March 10 informing them of Congress' support of the League of Armed Neutrality. They were asked to discuss the issue among themselves and with the other neutral powers. Nothing came of the memorial; the States General received it, but took no action. Officials in Amsterdam, Dordrecht, and Haarlem told Dumas they were happy to see the memorial but regretted they could not reply.

At the end of March, Adams began to compose a second memorial to the States General. In this document, written in Leyden and completed April 19, Adams outlined America's claim to recognition by the Dutch Republic and his own claim to reception as minister. He explained how the American rebellion began and reviewed the wrongs of the English who had deprived the colonists of "the rights and liberties of Englishmen" and who had left them no alternative but to rise in rebellion and to assume "an equal station among the nations." The British fleets and armies, Adams said, had failed to alter America's determination to be free. He declared that "a natural alliance" existed between the two republics. The first inhabitants of New York and New Jersey, Adams recalled, were Dutch emigrants who "transmitted their religion, language, customs, manners, and character":

The originals of the two republics are so much alike, that the history of one seems but a transcript from that of the other; so that every Dutchman instructed in the subject must pronounce the American Revolution just and necessary, or pass a censure upon the greatest actions of his immortal ancestors; actions which have been approved and applauded by mankind and justified by the decision of Heaven.

Adams argued that once the British monopoly was broken, the United States and the Netherlands could benefit from an alliance which facilitated trade between Holland—rich in ships, traders, and funds—and America—overflowing with products and raw materials. Adams concluded that it was the desire of the United States "to form equitable commercial treaties with all the maritime powers of Europe, without being governed or monopolized by any." He observed that "if such benevolent policy should be adopted, the New World will be a proportional blessing to every part of the Old."[11]

Adams journeyed to The Hague at the beginning of May to transmit the memorial to the States General. La Vauguyon, the French Ambassador, tried but failed to dissuade Adams from delivering it. On May 4 Adams presented the memorial to Pieter van Bleiswyk, Grand Pensionary of Holland, who replied that he could not receive it but advised Adams to see the current President of the States General, the Baron van Lynden van Hemmen. Adams went immediately to see the President to explain his mission. The President replied that he could not receive Adams' credentials or the memorial because the United States was not yet acknowledged as a sovereign state by the Netherlands. He did agree to report their conversation to his colleagues and said that he thought the matter of great importance to the Netherlands. The same day Adams called on the Baron de Larrey, secretary to Prince Willem V, and presented the memorial and his diplomatic credentials. A few hours later, the secretary told Adams that the Prince sent his compliments but wished to return the documents, since he could not receive any letters from Adams because his nation was not yet recognized.

Despite the official rejection, Adams knew he must keep the issue of recognition alive. With the help of Luzac and Dumas, he had the memorial translated into French and Dutch and distributed to every political official in the provinces—some 4,000–5,000 persons. The appeal was also published by newspapers in the Netherlands and later throughout Europe.

Adams realized his only alternative was to wait. Heavy losses to the British at sea, the paralysis of Dutch commerce, and military weakness divided the Dutch Republic in the spring and summer of 1781 and meant that the time for recognition had not yet come. At the end of August, Adams became very ill and despondent. He was discouraged by his lack of success; depressed by Dutch indecision, procrastination, and ambivalence; and lonely for his family. His wife was still in America and his sons had left Amsterdam. John Adams suffered for 2 months with what he termed a nervous fever.

The Tide Turns

Both Adams' health and America's chances of winning the war improved in October 1781. The French-American victory over Cornwallis' army at Yorktown on October 19 turned the tide of battle and simplified Adams' tasks. Although it was 6 weeks before word of the victory reached Europe, it was decisive because it was understood everywhere that England could not replace its 8,000 surrendered soldiers. American independence now seemed assured. Moreover, at the end of November, Adams received new instructions from Congress to conclude, if possible, an alliance with the Dutch Government, preferably as part of a triple alliance with France. The precondition for this alliance was Dutch recognition of American independence. Pleased by his new instructions, he reported them to La Vauguyon, who advised Adams to begin negotiations with the Netherlands.

Adams resumed the diplomatic initiative and journeyed to The Hague early in the new year. On January 9, 1782, he asked the President of the States General for a "categorical answer" to his memorial of the preceding May. The President said he would report this new request to the States General for transmission to the members for their deliberation and decision. Adams also spoke to delegations from the principal cities of the Province of Holland who were headquartered in The Hague. The Hollanders, who favored close ties with America, received him warmly.

The campaign of the American diplomat and his Dutch friends began to bear fruit in February and March of 1782. In many cities, petitions were presented to the magistrates urging them to receive Adams as minister. Adams' supporters—Van der Capellen, Luzac, and Calkoen—gave spirit to this movement and composed numerous pamphlets. On February 26, the assembly of the northern Province of Friesland, whose shipping had suffered terrible losses at the hands of the British, voted to instruct its deputies in the States General to move formally for the reception of Adams as the American Minister. The assembly of the Province of Holland voted similarly on March 28, and during the first weeks of April one province after another followed suit.

Recognition of the United States

On April 19, 1782, a year after Adams had signed his first appeal to the States General and on the seventh anni-

versary of the battles of Lexington and Concord, he achieved the long-sought goal. The States General of the United Provinces resolved to admit and acknowledge Adams "in quality of envoy of the United States of North America."[12] The Netherlands had at last recognized the United States. The next day, April 20, Adams went to the States General to present his credentials.

On April 22, Prince Willem V granted the American envoy an audience to present his credentials. In describing his reception at the Prince's palace, Huys ten Bosch, on the outskirts of The Hague, Adams noted that they spoke in English:

I told him that I was happy to have the honor of presenting the respects of the United States of America, and a letter of credence from them to his Most Serene Highness, and to assure him of the profound veneration in which the House of Orange had been held in America, even from its first settlement, and that I should be happier still to be the instrument of further cementing the new connexions between the two nations professing the same religion, animated by the same spirit of liberty, and having reciprocal interests, both political and commercial, so extensive and important. . . .

The Prince read the credentials and accepted them and asked Adams several polite questions about his stay in the Netherlands, to which Adams graciously replied.[13]

Adams had reason to be pleased with his achievement. By applying at the earliest possible moment for recognition and then pressing for an answer from the States General, he had not only drawn attention to his own mission but also had helped to rally the anti-British faction in the Netherlands with his dramatic appeal for Dutch-American friendship. As the Spanish Minister at The Hague remarked to Adams:

You Sir, have struck the greatest blow in all Europe. It is the best blow that has ever been struck in the American cause. It will be a fright and terror to the Anglomanes. It will kindle the enthusiasm of this nation. It is you who have turned their heads in the right direction.[14]

Dutch recognition of the United States thrust Adams into public prominence. He spent several days receiving and paying visits to more than 150 members of the government and Court. On April 23, La Vauguyon gave a reception for the diplomatic corps in honor of the United States and introduced Adams to all the ministers of the foreign Courts. In the following weeks, Adams was showered with invitations to attend banquets, public dinners, festivals, and fireworks displays in celebration of the recognition. Dutch artists, poets, and publishers commemorated the occasion with portraits, poems, publications, songs, and coins. The persistent Adams had become a hero to the Dutch.

The Treaty of Amity and Commerce

On April 23, the day after his audience with the Prince, the American envoy presented the proposal for a treaty of amity and commerce to the President of the States General. That same day the assembled dignitaries appointed a committee to discuss the matter of the treaty, and Adams was introduced to its members, to whom he presented a copy of a draft treaty drawn up on the basis of his instructions from Congress.

While the government deliberated over the treaty, Adams succeeded in obtaining the loan which his country needed so desperately. After 6 weeks of negotiation and bargaining, Adams signed an agreement on June 11 with a syndicate of three Amsterdam firms—the Willinks, the Van Staphorsts, and De la Lande & Fynje—for a loan of 5 million guilders payable in 15 years at 5% interest. Adams had hoped for a larger sum, but he was satisfied with the terms finally

negotiated. The Dutch loan agreement served as an important precedent and laid a permanent foundation for American credit abroad. This was the first of several such loans negotiated by the new American Government with the Netherlands during the next 10 years. They enabled the relatively weak government under the Articles of Confederation to survive the peace and to function until the establishment of a stronger government under the Constitution of 1787.

Once the first loan was secured, Adams focused on negotiations for the treaty of amity and commerce. He regretted the lengthy deliberations by the committee, the States General, the provinces, the cities, and the Admiralty. On June 15 Adams conferred with Van Bleiswyk and overcame some of his minor objections to the treaty. By the end of August, the States General had received reports on the treaty from the provinces, and Adams was invited to meet with the committee to discuss them. Adams' consultations with the committee were successful, and it completed its work early in September. On September 17 Adams went over the text of the treaty word by word with the Secretary of the States General. In a letter that day to Francis Dana, American Minister-designate to Russia, Adams wrote with an eye toward France as much as toward the Netherlands and Great Britain:

I shall sign the treaty of commerce next week. . . . The standard of the United States waves and flies at The Hague in triumph over Sir Joseph Yorke's insolence and British pride. When I go to heaven I shall look down over the battlements with pleasure upon the Stripes and Stars wantoning in the wind at The Hague. There is another triumph in the case, sweeter than that over our enemies. You know my meaning; it is the triumph of stubborn independence. Independence of friends and foes.[15]

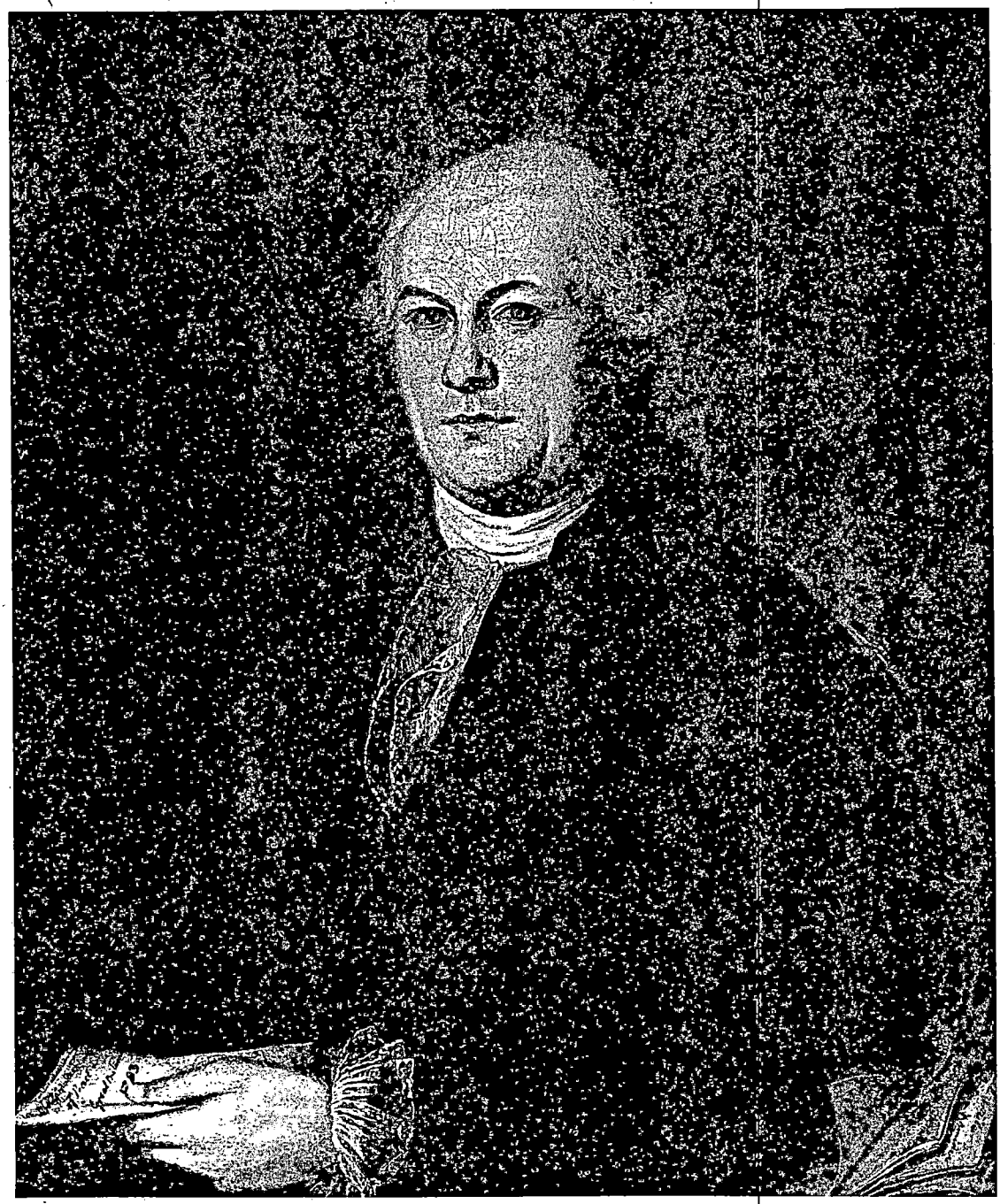
On October 8 Adams went to the State House at The Hague for the formal signing ceremony. He was received by the deputies of Holland and Zeeland and conducted into the Truce Chamber where he and George van Randwyck, Van Bleiswyk, and six other Dutch officials signed the treaty of amity and commerce.[16] A convention concerning recaptured vessels was also signed.

In a report to Secretary for Foreign Affairs Robert Livingston, Adams explained the points of disagreement that had been settled and indicated that the treaty followed Congress' instructions as closely as possible. Adams had compromised on two provisions essential to the Dutch. The first pledged Americans to respect the Dutch colonies and their rights; the second insisted there be conformity to the laws of each country respecting public worship. "Upon the whole," wrote Adams, "I think the treaty is conformable to the principles of perfect reciprocity, and contains nothing that can possibly be hurtful to America, or offensive to our allies, or to any nation, except Great Britain, to whom it is, indeed, without a speedy peace a mortal blow."[17]

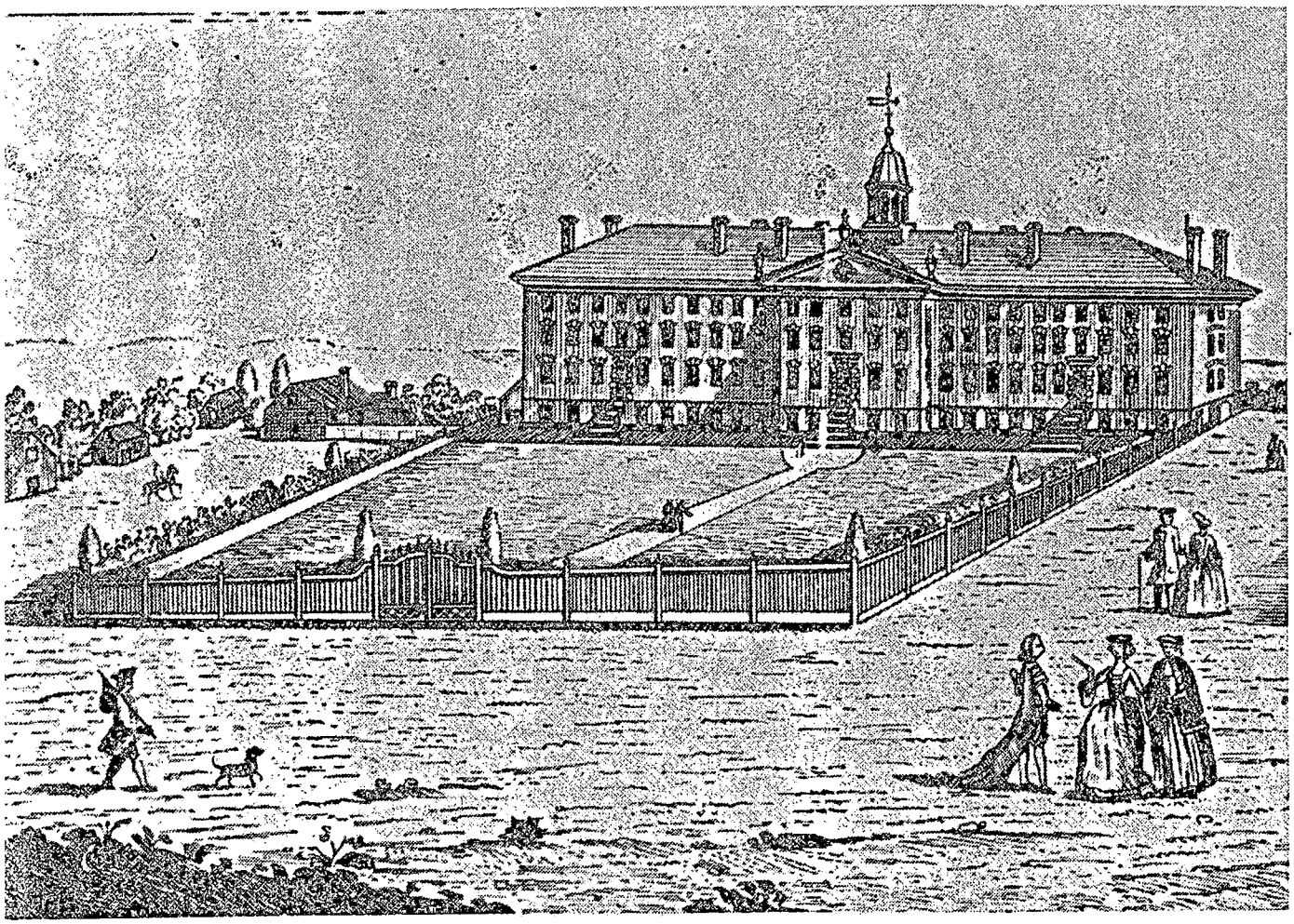
The treaty was ratified by the Netherlands on December 27, 1782, and by the Continental Congress on January 23, 1783. To Adams it represented the culmination of his efforts to win Dutch support and demonstrated that the United States, no longer dependent solely on France for support, had widened its freedom of maneuver.

Establishment of the American Legation

At the instruction of Congress, Adams left the Netherlands for Paris on October 17, 1782, to join the negotiations for a preliminary treaty of peace with Great Britain. After a brief trip to Holland in the summer of 1783, Adams returned to Paris where, on September 3, 1783, he and his colleagues signed the definitive treaty which ended America's Revolutionary War. He left the affairs of the United States in the hands of Dumas.



Elias Boudinot (1740–1821), a Philadelphia lawyer, who served as a member of the Continental Congress, 1777–1784, and as its President, 1782–1783. He later was a Congressman from New Jersey and the director of the U.S. Mint. In this portrait by Charles Willson Peale, Boudinot is shown holding the "Proclamation of Peace with Great Britain 1783." In the lower right corner are three documents entitled "Confederation," "Treaty with the United Netherlands," and "Treaty with Sweden." According to one art historian, both the painter and the subject considered these four documents "the crowning accomplishments of a distinguished public career." (Courtesy Princeton University Art Museum)



Nassau Hall, Princeton, New Jersey, detail from a watercolor based on an 1800 engraving. The site of the presentation by Pieter Johan van Berckel of his credentials as the Netherlands first Minister to the United States on October 31, 1783. Congress had left Philadelphia on June 24, 1783, after the local authorities proved unwilling or unable to deal with army mutineers demonstrating in the city. Congress met in Princeton until November 3, 1783, when it adjourned and moved to Annapolis, Maryland. (Courtesy Princeton University Art Museum)

Robert R. Livingston (1746–1813), first Secretary for Foreign Affairs, was appointed by the Continental Congress October 20, 1781, and served until June 4, 1783. (Department of State Photo)

Although he held no commission because he was not an American citizen, Dumas continued to serve as chargé d'affaires in the Netherlands until 1790. At Adams' request, Dumas installed himself in the Hôtel des Etats-Unis at The Hague, the first legation building actually owned abroad by the United States. Adams had purchased this house in February 1782 because he believed it important for America to have its envoy ensconced in a proper residence at The Hague. As Adams had written at that time:

. . . it appears to me of indispensable importance that a minister should reside constantly here, vested with the same powers from Congress with which they have honored me; for which reason, having the offer of a large and elegant house in a fine situation on a noble spot of ground at The Hague at a very reasonable rate, I have . . . purchased it. . . .[18]

The First Netherlands Minister to the United States

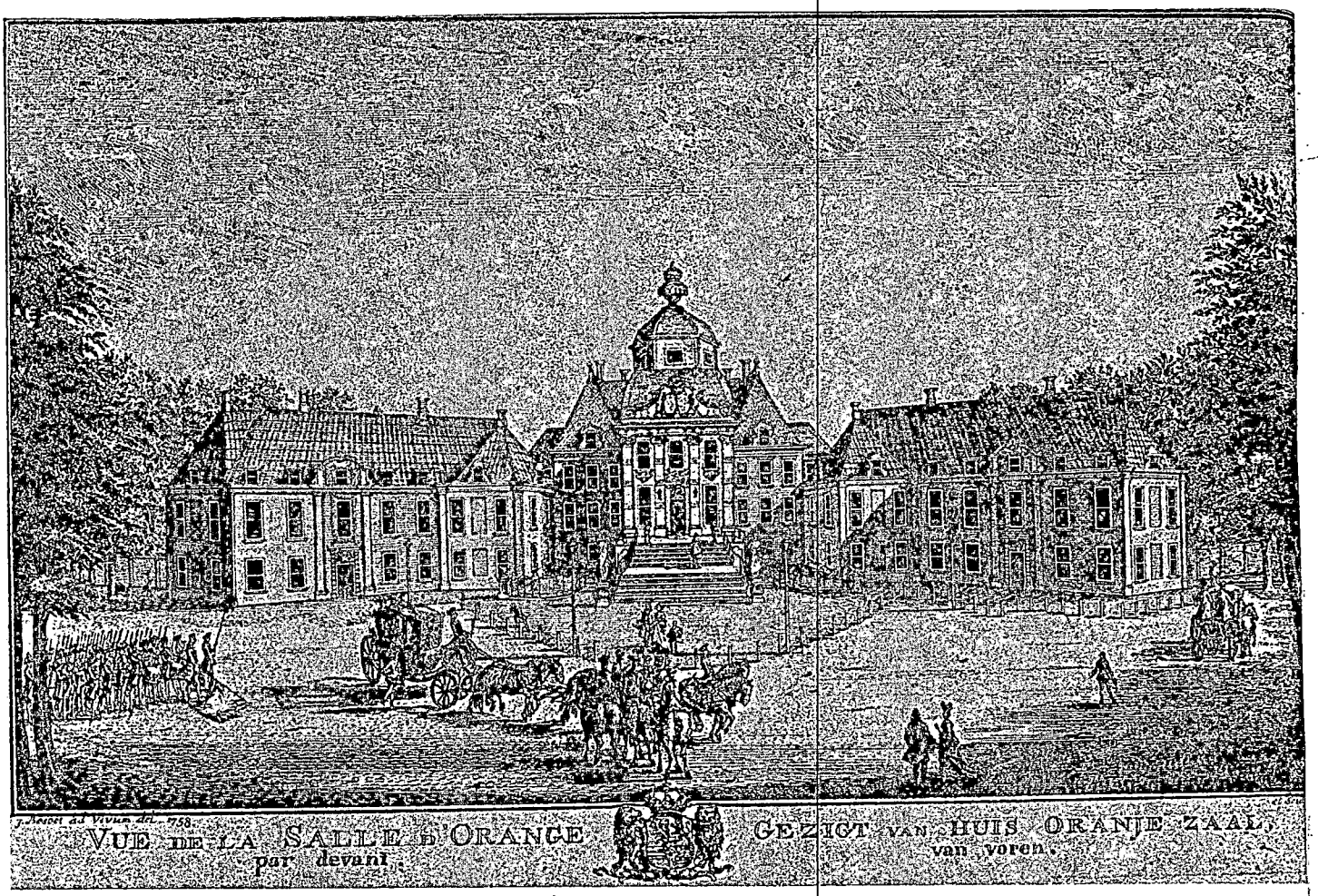
In the spring of 1783, the Dutch Government appointed Pieter Johan van Berckel, Mayor of Rotterdam and brother to the Pensionary of Amsterdam, as the first Netherlands Minister to the United States. Dumas reported that Van Berckel had been nominated by the Province of Holland and accepted by the States General. The new minister, he wrote, was "amiable, estimable, and patriotic." At Van Berckel's request, Dumas asked Secretary for Foreign Affairs Livingston to arrange for the rental of a "fine, large, and spacious house" in Philadelphia for the minister and his five children. He also requested that a new coach be made and that "six fine carriage horses" be bought for Van Berckel. Livingston replied that he rejoiced at Van Berckel's appointment and that "the patriotic character of his family" would insure him an agreeable reception.[19]

In their instructions to Van Berckel, the States General stressed the importance of the promotion and protection of Dutch commerce. They asked him to identify the principal interests of both countries and to safeguard the interests of Dutch merchants. He was also asked to inform his government about the constitutions of the Thirteen States, their relationship to each other and to the central government, and the land- and seapower of the new nation as well as its external commitments.[20]

Van Berckel sailed from the Netherlands on June 23, 1783, in a ship of the line accompanied by three other vessels. After a stormy crossing, the new Dutch Minister arrived in Philadelphia. On October 30 Van Berckel journeyed to Princeton, New Jersey, where Congress—having left Philadelphia in June following public disturbances there—was convening. He had received an invitation from Elias Boudinot, the President of Congress, to present his credentials on October 31. Boudinot, who had also offered the hospitality of his Philadelphia home to the Dutch Minister upon his arrival, informed him that Congress was "greatly mortified, that our present circumstances, in a small country village, prevent us giving you a reception more agreeable to our wishes. . . ."[21] In describing the journey to Princeton and his reception, Van Berckel wrote:

In the evening when I was still a distance of six English miles away, I was met by an escort which had orders to accompany me. It consisted of an officer and eight light riders belonging to the bodyguard of General Washington. Upon my arrival in Princeton I was welcomed beside my coach by General Lincoln in his capacity as Secretary of the War Department, as well as by some other gentlemen on behalf of Congress, and led to the apartment which the Congress had provided for me and a few of my attendants in the home of the Pastor of Princeton. Thereupon I went immediately to pay a visit to the President of the Congress; and after having settled some matters with him relating to

Pieter Johan van Berckel (died 1800), Mayor of Rotterdam, was appointed the Netherlands' first Minister to the United States in May 1783. He presented his credentials to Congress on October 31, 1783, and served as minister until his recall by the States General in 1788. (Private Collection of J.W. Schulte Nordholt)



Huys ten Bosch, the Stadholder's residence on the outskirts of The Hague, where John Adams presented his credentials as American Minister to Prince Willem V on April 22, 1782. (Courtesy Gemeente-Archief, The Hague)

my audience the following day, I was informed toward noon on the second day by the Superintendent of Finances and by the Secretary of War, who had been jointly designated, in the absence of a Secretary of Foreign Affairs, to introduce me, that the Congress was assembled and prepared to receive me; whereupon I rode in my own coach to the House of the Assembly, and there, at the foot of the stairs, I was received by the above-mentioned introducers and led into the Assembly. After giving an address appropriate to the matter, a copy of which is herewith enclosed, I presented the Letter of your High Mightinesses, which was read by a Dutch interpreter; the President then read a reply in English . . . to the address I had given; with this the solemn ceremony was concluded and I was led out again and brought to my coach.[22]

The ceremony took place in Nassau Hall in Princeton where Congress held its meetings. This stately building was named after Prince Willem V's forefather, Willem III, Prince of Orange and Nassau, Stadholder of the Netherlands, who became King of England in 1688. In his address to Congress given in French,

Van Berckel expressed his joy and satisfaction at the opportunity to meet with such illustrious men "whom the present age admires." He declared:

While all Europe kept its eyes fixed on your exploits, their High Mightinesses could not refrain from very seriously interesting themselves therein, recollecting as they always did the dangers and difficulties to which their forefathers were subjected, before they could free themselves from the yoke in which they were enthralled. They knew better than any other the worth of independence, and they knew how to set a just value on the greatness of your designs. They applauded your generous enterprise, which was inspired by a love of your country, conducted with prudence and supported with heroic courage; and they rejoiced at the happy success which crowned your labours.[23]

Van Berckel's credentials concluded with the following statement:

We shall at all times rejoice in your increasing felicity; and we desire nothing more ardently than that we may maintain the strictest friendship and correspondence with you, for the good of the subjects and inhabitants of both countries.[24]

Boudinot then addressed the gathering. He welcomed the new minister, received his credentials, and accepted with pleasure "the honorable testimonials of confidence and esteem of their High Mightinesses, and their affectionate congratulations on the success of our efforts in the sacred cause of liberty." Boudinot said:

Governed by the same ardent love of freedom, and the same maxims of policy; cemented by a liberal system of commerce, and earnestly disposed to advance our mutual prosperity, by a reciprocity of good offices; we persuade ourselves that the most friendly and beneficial connexion between the two republics, will be preserved inviolate to the latest ages.[25]

After the ceremony, Boudinot gave a banquet for the new Dutch Minister. That same day, General George Washington visited Van Berckel and introduced him to a number of generals and prominent officers. The next day, the Dutch envoy received all the members of Congress and dined again with Boudinot. On November 2, Washington arranged an elegant dinner for the minister and many members of Congress and officers. In his report to the States General, Van Berckel wrote that "the character of your High Mightinesses has been treated with all distinction by the Congress and its members, as well as by George Washington."[26]

A Continuing Bond

In 1782 the United States and the Netherlands shared certain traits. Both were small and vulnerable, dependent on the sea, and devoted to free trade. Both were republics, committed to decentralized government and the rule of law, domestic and international. This common perspective facilitated Adams' efforts to persuade the Dutch to risk supporting the American Revolution. While the United States obtained from the Netherlands needed funds, a boost in morale, and enhanced prestige, Dutch expectations for an expansion of trade with the United States were not fulfilled. In fact, the United States soon became a commercial rival, not a customer. And during the 1780s and 1790s the example of the American Revolution was repeatedly invoked in various forms by different factions in the political debates that occurred in the Dutch Republic.

Through the years relations between the two countries have matured and the bonds between them have been strengthened. Grateful generations of Americans have viewed the Dutch as kindred spirits with the same fierce love of independence as their own Founding Fathers. As John Adams remarked to his wife in 1782:

I love the People where I am. They have Faults but they have deep Wisdom and great Virtues—and they love America and will be her everlasting Friend, I think.[27]

Endnotes

1 In addition to various biographies of John Adams and monographs on the diplomacy of the American Revolution, several specialized works treat the subject of the establishment of Dutch-American relations: Friedrich Edler, *The Dutch Republic and the American Revolution* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1911); Lyman H. Butterfield, "John Adams and the Beginnings of Netherlands-American Friendship, 1780-1788," in *Butterfield in Holland: A Record of L.H. Butterfield's Pursuit of the Adamses Abroad in 1959* (Cambridge, Mass: privately printed, 1961) which was of particular use in preparing this paper; J.W. Schulte Nordholt, "The Impact of the American Revolution on the Dutch Republic," in *The Impact of the American Revolution Abroad* (Washington: Library of Congress, 1976); James H. Hutson, *John Adams and the Diplomacy of the American Revolution* (Lexington: The University Press of Kentucky, 1980); and J.W. Schulte Nordholt, *The Dutch Republic and American Independence* (to be published by the University of North Carolina Press in 1982).

2 Letter from John Adams to Abigail Adams, circa August 15, 1782; Lyman H. Butterfield, *et al.*, eds., *Adams Family Correspondence* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1964), vol. IV, p. 361.

3 Edler, *The Dutch Republic and the American Revolution,* p. 232.

4 Adams to the *Boston Patriot,* June 23, 1809; *Correspondence of the Late President Adams* (Boston, 1809), pp. 102–103.

5 Letter to Abigail Adams, September 4, 1780; Butterfield, *Adams Family Correspondence,* vol. II, pp. 286–287.

6 Adams to the President of Congress, November 16, 1780; Charles Francis Adams, ed., *The Works of John Adams, Second President of the United States* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1852), vol. VII, p. 329.

7 Adams to the President of Congress, December 31, 1780; *ibid.*, pp. 348–349.

8 Adams to the President of Congress, October 14, 1780; Francis Wharton, ed., *The Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1889), vol. IV, pp. 97–98.

9 Quoted in J.W. Schulte Nordholt, "John Adams and the Dutch Republic," in *The Dutch Republic in the Days of John Adams* (The Hague: Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1976), p. 11.

10 Quoted in J.W. Schulte Nordholt, "The Impact of the American Revolution on the Dutch Republic," in *The Impact of the American Revolution Abroad,* p. 46.

11 Memorial to the States General, April 19, 1781; Wharton, *Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence,* vol. IV, pp. 370–376.

12 Adams to Secretary for Foreign Affairs Robert R. Livingston, April 19, 1782; *ibid.*, vol. V, p. 319.

13 Adams to Livingston, April 22, 1782; *ibid.*, pp. 319–320.

14 Quoted by Adams in a letter to Edmund Jenings, April 28, 1782; Massachusetts Historical Society, The Adams Papers, Microfilm Reel 356.

15 Wharton, *Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence,* vol. V, pp. 732–733.

16 For the text of the treaty, see Charles I. Bevans, ed., *Treaties and Other International Agreements of the United States of America, 1776–1949* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1972), vol. 10, pp. 6–18.

17 Adams to the President of Congress, October 8, 1782; Wharton, *Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence,* vol. V, pp. 803–805.

18 Adams to Livingston, February 27, 1782; *ibid.*, pp. 206–207.

19 Dumas to Livingston, March 4, 5, and 20, 1783; National Archives, Papers of the Continental Congress (Record Group 360), Microfilm Reel 121; Livingston to Dumas, undated but circa April 1783; Wharton, *Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence,* vol. VI, pp. 384–385.

20 Secret Resolution of the States General with instructions for Van Berckel, May 27, 1783; The Hague, Algemeen Rijksarchief, Archief Staten-Generaal, invent. nr. 4773.

21 Boudinot to Van Berckel, October 25, 1783; U.S. Department of State, *The Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States of America from the Signing of the Definitive Treaty of Peace, 10th September, 1783, to the Adoption of the Constitution, March 4, 1789* (Washington: Francis Preston Blair, 1833), vol. VI, pp. 423–424.

22 Van Berckel to the States General, November 4, 1783; The Hague, Algemeen Rijksarchief, Archief Staten-Generaal, invent. nr. 7461.

23 Worthington Chauncey Ford, *et al.*, eds., *Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774–1789* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1922), vol. XXV, pp. 780–783.

24 *Ibid.*, pp. 783–785.

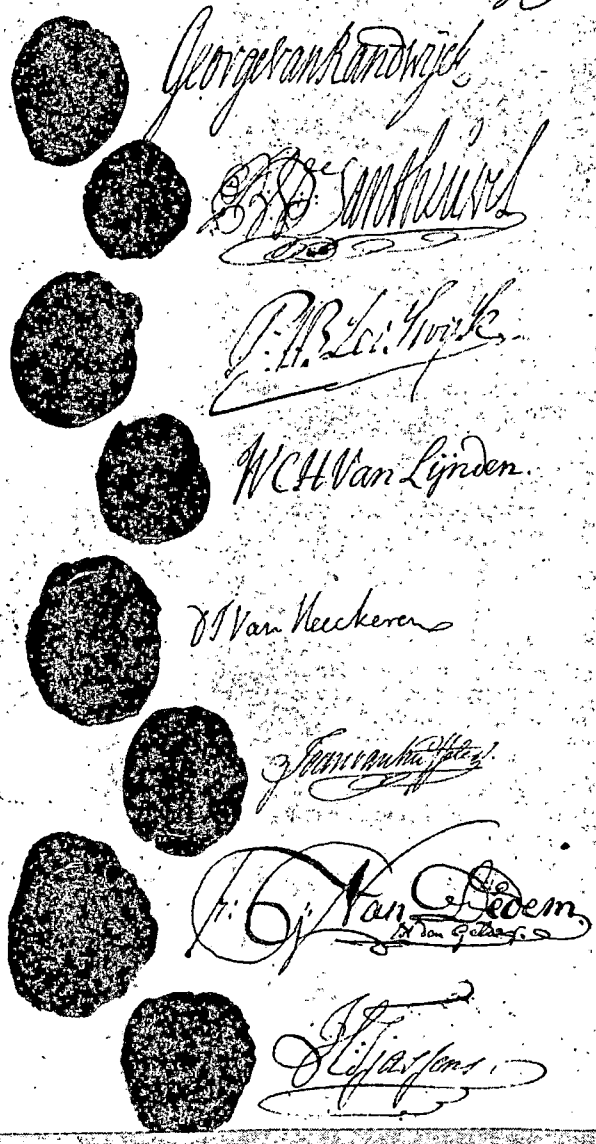
25 *Ibid.*, pp. 785–786.

26 Van Berckel to the States General, November 4, 1783; The Hague, Algemeen Rijksarchief, Archief Staten-Generaal, invent. nr. 7461.

27 Letter circa August 15, 1782; Butterfield, *Adams Family Correspondence* vol. IV, p. 361.

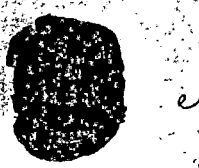
dag van de onderteekening.

Ten oirkonde deezes hebben Wylge-
deputeerden en Plenipotentiarissen van
de Heeren Staten Generaal der Ver-
enigde Nederlanden en Minister
Plenipotentiaris der Verenigde Staten
van America, uit kragte van Onze
respective Authorisatie en pleinpouvoir
deeze onderteekent, en met Onze gewoo-
ne Cachetten bekragtigt. In den
Hage den Agtsten October, een duy-
sent Seeven honderd twee en tagtig.



the Signatures.

In Faith of which, We the Depu-
ties and Plenipotentiaries of the
Lords the States General of the Uni-
ted Netherlands, and the Minister
Plenipotentiary of the United States
of America, in virtue of our respec-
tive Authorities and full Powers, have
signed the present Treaty and apposed
thereto the Seals of our Arms.
Done at the Hague the Eight of Oc-
tober, One Thousand Seven Hundred
Eighty Two.



John Adams.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE
Bureau of Public Affairs
April 1982

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Cover

Allegory on the Recognition of the United States by the Netherlands. A woman on a pedestal representing America, with the coats-of-arms of the United States, France, and Amsterdam, is trampling upon the fallen figure of England, while to the right the King of France pushes down the British crown. On the left the Mayor of Amsterdam offers to America the 1778 secret treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which was a draft agreement between the United Provinces and the United States and was called the Preparatory Plan. The translation of the caption is as follows: "America tramples down angry Albion, while the British crown is crushed by the Bourbon, and America, in the person of Adams, is recognized by the Netherlands after the example of the citizens of Amsterdam." (Private Collection of J.W. Schulte Nordholt)

Inside Front and Back Covers

First and last pages of U.S.-Netherlands Treaty of Amity and Commerce, signed at The Hague, October 8, 1782. (National Archives Photos)

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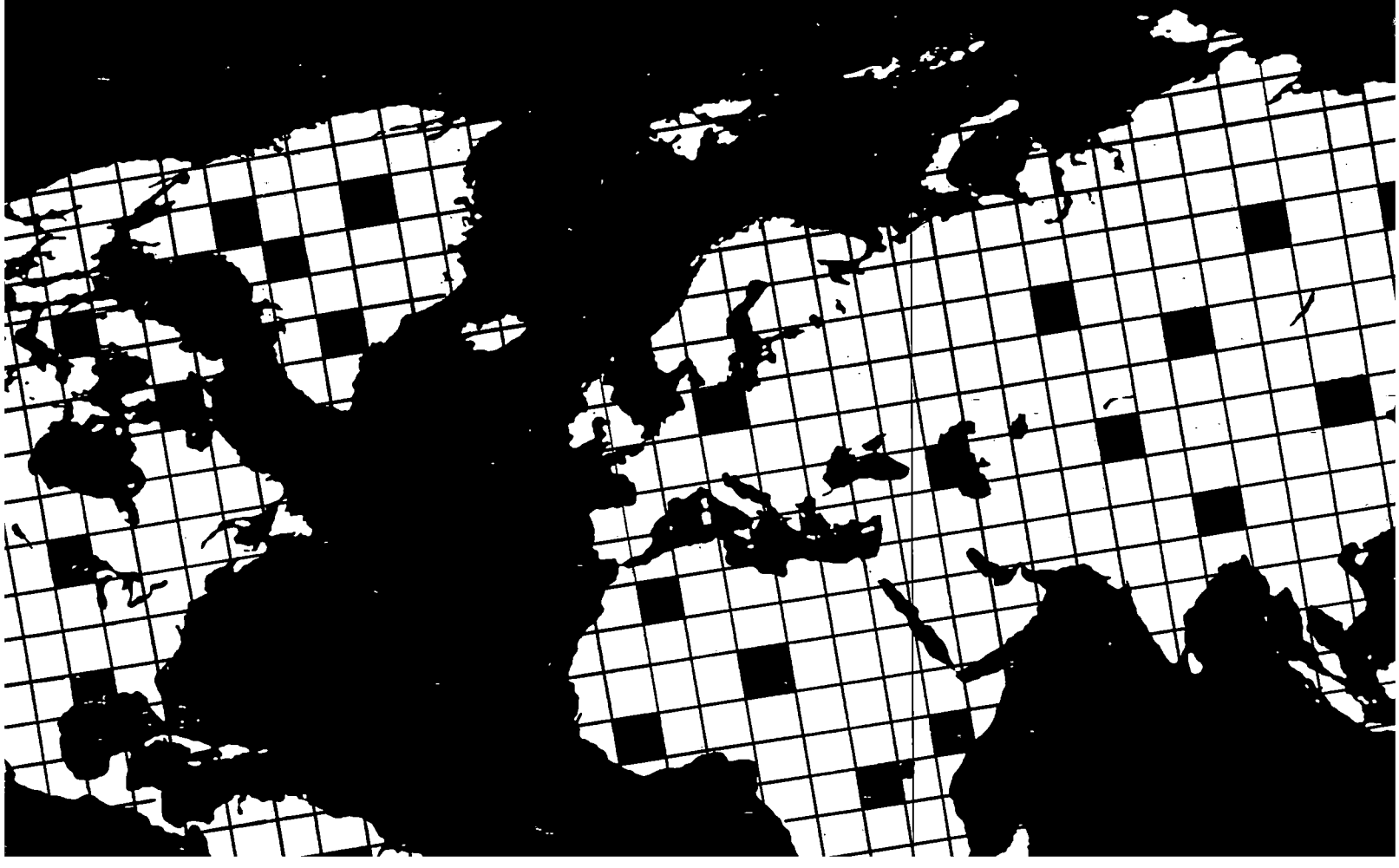
United States Department of State

Principal Officers of the Department of State and United States Chiefs of Mission

1778 - 1988



Finland (*Continued*)

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Jack K. McFall	D.C.	C	EE/MP	10 Sept. 1952[r] 1 May 1953	15 Nov. 1952	Recommissioned after confirmation Promoted to AE/P
			AE/P	15 Sept. 1954[r] 3 Dec. 1954	17 Sept. 1954[4]	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post, 19 Sept. 1955
John D. Hickerson	Tex.	C	AE/P	4 Oct. 1955[r] 25 Jan. 1956	23 Nov. 1955	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post, 3 Nov. 1959
Edson O. Sessions	Ill.	NC	AE/P	20 Oct. 1959[r] 21 Jan. 1960	28 Nov. 1959	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post, 20 Nov. 1960
Bernard Gufler	Wash.	C	AE/P	24 Feb. 1961	14 Apr. 1961	Left post, 18 Apr. 1963
Carl T. Rowan	Minn.	NC	AE/P	9 Mar. 1963	21 May 1963	Left post, 8 Feb. 1964
Tyler Thompson	Me.	C	AE/P	31 July 1964	25 Aug. 1964	Left post, 14 June 1969
Val Peterson	Nebr.	NC	AE/P	1 May 1969	14 July 1969	Left post, 23 Mar. 1973
V. John Krehbiel	Cal.	NC	AE/P	27 Mar. 1973	1 June 1973	Left post, 24 Feb. 1975
Mark Evans Austad	Utah	NC	AE/P	20 Feb. 1975	20 Mar. 1975	Left post, 14 Apr. 1977
Rozanne L. Ridgway	D.C.	C	AE/P	26 May 1977	5 Aug. 1977	Left post, 20 Feb. 1980
James Eugene Goodby	N.H.	C	AE/P	27 Feb. 1980	11 Apr. 1980	Left post, 18 Aug. 1981
Keith Foote Nyborg	Id.	NC	AE/P	30 July 1981	18 Sept. 1981	Left post, 17 Feb. 1986
Rockwell Anthony Schnabel	Cal.	NC	AE/P	17 Dec. 1985	28 Feb. 1986	

[4]Legation Helsinki was raised to Embassy status on 10 Sept. 1954.

France

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Benjamin Franklin[1]	Pa.		MP	14 Sept. 1778	23 Mar. 1779	Superseded, 17 May 1785
Thomas Jefferson	Va.		MP	10 Mar. 1785 12 Oct. 1787	17 May 1785	Recommissioned Left post, 26 Sept. 1789
William Short	Va.		CdA	20 Apr. 1790	14 June 1790	Presented recall, 15 May 1792
Gouverneur Morris	N.Y.		MP	12 Jan. 1792	3 June 1792	Recall requested by Govt. of France, 9 Apr. 1794[2]
James Monroe	Va.		MP	28 May 1794	15 Aug. 1794	Presented recall, 9 Dec. 1796
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney[3]	S.C.		MP	9 Sept. 1796[r]		
William Vans Murray[4]			MP			
James A. Bayard[5]	Del.		MP	19 Feb. 1801		
Robert R. Livingston	N.Y.		MP	2 Oct. 1801	6 Dec. 1801	Presented recall, 18 Nov. 1804
John Armstrong[6]	N.Y.		MP	30 June 1804[r]	18 Nov. 1804	Left post, 14 Sept. 1810
Jonathan Russell	R.I.		CdA	[5 Nov. 1810[7]]	[8]	Superseded, 17 Nov. 1811
Joel Barlow	D.C.		MP	27 Feb. 1811	17 Nov. 1811	Died at Zarnowiec, 26 Dec. 1812, en route to Paris from consultations with French officials in Russia
William H. Crawford	Ga.		MP	9 Apr. 1813[r] 28 May 1813	14 Dec. 1813	Recommissioned after confirmation Reaccredited when France again became a kingdom.
					16 Aug. 1814	Left post, 26-30 Apr. 1815
Albert Gallatin	Pa.		EE/MP	28 Feb. 1815	16 July 1816	Left post, 16 May 1823
James Brown	La.		EE/MP	9 Dec. 1823	13 Apr. 1824	Had farewell audience, 28 June 1829
William C. Rives	Va.		EE/MP	18 Apr. 1829[r] 10 Feb. 1830	25 Oct. 1829	Recommissioned after confirmation Reaccredited after change of government
					[14 Jan. 1831[9]]	Left post, 27 Sept. 1832
Levett Harris	N.J.		CdA	6 Mar. 1833	20 Apr. 1833	Superseded, 30 Sept. 1833

[1]Commissioned also to negotiate a treaty with Sweden.

[2]Morris was still at his post when his successor presented credentials.

[3]Proceeded to post, but was not received by the Directory; left post, 5 Feb. 1797. Nomination was confirmed by the Senate, but no record has been found of a new commission following confirmation.

[4]Not commissioned; nomination superseded by a nomination of Murray and two others to serve on a joint commission.

[5]Did not serve under this appointment.

[6]Nomination was confirmed by the Senate, but no record has been found of a new commission following confirmation.

[7]Commission not of record, but enclosed with an instruction of this date.

[8]Received his commission about 13 Feb. 1811; was not issued a letter of credence, but continued his official relations with the Govt. of France begun in Sept. 1810 as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim.

[9]Formally received on this date.

France (*Continued*)

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Edward Livingston			EE/MP	29 May 1833[r] 5 Mar. 1834	30 Sept. 1833	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post, 29 Apr. 1835[10]
Lewis Cass			EE/MP	4 Oct. 1836	1 Dec. 1836	Left post, 12 Nov. 1842
Henry A. Wise[11]	Va.		EE/MP			
William R. King	Ala.		EE/MP	9 Apr. 1844	1 July 1844	Presented recall, 15 Sept. 1846
Charles J. Ingersoll[12]	Pa.		EE/MP			
Richard Rush	Pa.		EE/MP	3 Mar. 1847	31 July 1847	Reaccredited when France again became a republic
					26 Apr. 1848	Presented recall, 8 Oct. 1849
William C. Rives	Va.		EE/MP	20 July 1849[r] 18 Mar. 1850	8 Nov. 1849	Recommissioned after confirmation Reaccredited when France again became an empire
					10 Jan. 1853	Presented recall, 12 May 1853
John Y. Mason	Va.		EE/MP	10 Oct. 1853[r] 6 Dec. 1853	22 Jan. 1854	Recommissioned after confirmation Died at post, 3 Oct. 1859
Charles J. Faulkner	Va.		EE/MP	16 Jan. 1860	4 Mar. 1860	Presented recall, 12 May 1861
William L. Dayton	N.J.		EE/MP	18 Mar. 1861	19 May 1861	Died at post, 1 Dec. 1864
John Bigelow	N.Y.		EE/MP	15 Mar. 1865[r] 22 Jan. 1866	23 Apr. 1865	Recommissioned after confirmation Presented recall, 23 Dec. 1866
John A. Dix	N.Y.		EE/MP	24 Sept. 1866[r] 2 Mar. 1867	23 Dec. 1866	Recommissioned after confirmation Presented recall, 23 May 1869
Elihu B. Washburne	Ill.		EE/MP	17 Mar. 1869	23 Mar. 1869	Reaccredited when France again became a republic
					8 May 1871	Presented recall, 5 Sept. 1877
Edward F. Noyes	O.		EE/MP	1 July 1877[r] 30 Oct. 1877	5 Sept. 1877	Recommissioned after confirmation Presented recall, 5 Aug. 1881
Levi P. Morton	N.Y.		EE/MP	21 Mar. 1881	5 Aug. 1881	Presented recall, 14 May 1885
Robert M. McLane	Md.		EE/MP	23 Mar. 1885	14 May 1885	Presented recall, 20 May 1889
Whitelaw Reid	N.Y.		EE/MP	23 Mar. 1889	21 May 1889	Left post, 25 Mar. 1892
T. Jefferson Coolidge	Mass.		EE/MP	12 May 1892	10 June 1892	Presented recall, 4 May 1893
James B. Eustis	La.		EE/MP AE/P	20 Mar. 1893[13] 8 Apr. 1893	6 May 1893	Presented recall, 24 May 1897
Horace Porter	N.Y.		AE/P	19 Mar. 1897	26 May 1897	Presented recall, 2 May 1905
Robert S. McCormick	Ill.		AE/P	8 Mar. 1905	2 May 1905	Presented recall, 2 Mar. 1907
Henry White	R.I.		AE/P	19 Dec. 1906	23 Mar. 1907	Left France, 3 Nov. 1909
Robert Bacon	N.Y.		AE/P	21 Dec. 1909	31 Dec. 1909	Presented recall, 19 Apr. 1912
Myron T. Herrick	O.		AE/P	15 Feb. 1912	29 Apr. 1912	Left post, 28 Nov. 1914
William G. Sharp	O.	NC	AE/P	19 June 1914	4 Dec. 1914	Presented recall, 14 Apr. 1919
Hugh Campbell Wallace	Wash.	NC	AE/P	27 Feb. 1919	22 Apr. 1919	Presented recall, 5 July 1921
Myron T. Herrick	O.	NC	AE/P	16 Apr. 1921	15 July 1921	Died at post, 31 Mar. 1929
Walter E. Edge	N.J.	NC	AE/P	21 Nov. 1929	18 Dec. 1929	Presented recall, 13 Apr. 1933
Jesse Isidor Straus	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	17 Mar. 1933	8 June 1933	Left France, 5 Aug. 1936
William Christian Bullitt	Pa.	NC	AE/P	25 Aug. 1936[r] 23 Jan. 1937	13 Oct. 1936	Recommissioned after confirmation Left La Bourboule, 11 July 1940[14]
William D. Leahy	Ga.	NC	AE/P	29 Nov. 1940	8 Jan. 1941	Left Vichy, 1 May 1942[15]
Jefferson Caffery	La.	C	AE/P	25 Nov. 1944	30 Dec. 1944[16]	Left post, 13 May 1949
David K. E. Bruce	Va.	NC	AE/P	9 May 1949	17 May 1949	Left post, 10 Mar. 1952
James Clement Dunn	N.Y.	C	AE/P	13 Mar. 1952	27 Mar. 1952	Left post, 2 Mar. 1953
C. Douglas Dillon	N.J.	NC	AE/P	27 Feb. 1953	13 Mar. 1953	Left post, 28 Jan. 1957
Amory Houghton	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	14 Mar. 1957	17 Apr. 1957	Left post, 19 Jan. 1961
James M. Gavin	Mass.	NC	AE/P	22 Feb. 1961	21 Mar. 1961	Left post, 26 Sept. 1962
Charles E. Bohlen	D.C.	C	AE/P	4 Sept. 1962	27 Oct. 1962	Left post, 9 Feb. 1968
Robert Sargent Shriver, Jr.	Ill.	NC	AE/P	22 Apr. 1968	25 May 1968	Left post, 25 Mar. 1970

[10]Thomas P. Barton served as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim until 8 Nov. 1835, when he closed Legation Paris, having been recalled.

[11]Not commissioned; nomination rejected by the Senate.

[12]Not commissioned; nomination rejected by the Senate.

[13]Took oath of office, but did not proceed to post in this capacity.

[14]Near the end of Bullitt's term of service, Anthony J. Drexel Biddle, Jr., acted as Deputy Ambassador to France, 13-25 June 1940

[15]S. Pinkney Tuck was serving as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim when France severed diplomatic relations with the U.S., 8 Nov. 1942.

[16]Embassy Paris was opened to the public 1 Dec. 1944 with Ambassador Caffery in charge pending presentation of his letter of credence.

France (*Continued*)

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Arthur K. Watson	Conn.	NC	AE/P	8 Apr. 1970	6 May 1970	Left post, 30 Oct. 1972
John N. Irwin, II	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	2 Feb. 1973	23 Mar. 1973	Left post, 20 Oct. 1974
Kenneth Rush	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	19 Sept. 1974	21 Nov. 1974	Left post, 14 Mar. 1977
Arthur A. Hartman	N.J.	C	AE/P	8 June 1977	7 July 1977	Left post, 14 Oct. 1981
Evan Griffith Galbraith	Conn.	NC	AE/P	6 Nov. 1981	2 Dec. 1981	Left post, 15 July 1985
Joe M. Rodgers	Tenn.	NC	AE/P	19 July 1985	20 Sept. 1985	

Gabon[1]

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
W. Wendell Blancké[2]	Cal.	C	AE/P	12 Dec. 1960[r] 6 Feb. 1961	13 Jan. 1961	Recommissioned after confirmation Superseded, 10 Oct. 1961
Charles F. Darlington	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	20 Sept. 1961	18 Oct. 1961	Left post, 26 July 1964
David M. Bane	Pa.	C	AE/P	22 July 1965	14 Aug. 1965	Left post, 29 June 1969
Richard Funkhouser	N.J.	C	AE/P	13 June 1969	9 Aug. 1969	Left post, 2 Aug. 1970
John A. McKesson, III	D.C.	C	AE/P	10 Dec. 1970	4 Feb. 1971	Left post, 1 June 1975
Andrew L. Steigman[3]	Md.	C	AE/P	10 June 1975	9 Aug. 1975	Left post, 21 Aug. 1977
Arthur T. Tienken	Va.	C	AE/P	3 Feb. 1978	6 Mar. 1978	Left post, 19 July 1981
Francis Terry McNamara	Vt.	C	AE/P	11 Dec. 1981	19 Jan. 1982	Left post, 3 Aug. 1984
Larry C. Williamson	Cal.	C	AE/P	13 Aug. 1984	20 Nov. 1984	Left post, 21 Aug. 1987
Warren Clark, Jr.	Conn.	C	AE/P	10 Aug. 1987	19 Sept. 1987	

[1]Alan W. Lukens (resident at Brazzaville) presented credentials as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim, 17 Aug. 1960. During Blancké's tenure as non-resident Ambassador, Embassy Libreville was established 20 Mar. 1961 with Walker A. Diamanti as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim.

[2]Accredited also to the Central African Republic, Chad, and Congo; resident at Brazzaville.

[3]Steigman and all subsequent Ambassadors were also accredited to the Democratic Republic of Sao Tomé and Principe and resident at Libreville.

The Gambia[1]

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Mercer Cook[2]	Ill.	NC	AE/P	18 May 1965	9 Aug. 1965	Left Dakar, 1 July 1966
William R. Rivkin	Ill.	NC	AE/P	13 Oct. 1966	16 Jan. 1967	Died at Dakar, 19 Mar. 1967
L. Dean Brown	Md.	C	AE/P	18 Oct. 1967	18 Jan. 1968	Left Dakar, 15 Aug. 1970
G. Edward Clark	D.C.	C	AE/P	12 Oct. 1970	24 Nov. 1970	Left Dakar, 16 Oct. 1973
O. Rudolph Aggrey	D.C.	C	AE/P	23 Nov. 1973	17 Jan. 1974	Left Dakar, 10 July 1977
Herman J. Cohen	N.Y.	C	AE/P	24 June 1977	29 Mar. 1978	Left Dakar, 21 July 1980
Larry Gordon Piper	Tex.	C	AE/P	30 June 1980	21 Aug. 1980	Left post, 23 Aug. 1982[3]
Sharon Erdkamp Ahmad	D.C.	C	AE/P	30 Sept. 1982[4]		
Robert Thomas Hennemeyer	Ill.	C	AE/P	11 May 1984	20 June 1984	Left post, 27 June 1986
Herbert E. Horowitz	Fla.	C	AE/P	12 Sept. 1986	24 Oct. 1986	

[1]During Cook's tenure as non-resident Ambassador, Embassy Bathurst (now Banjul) was established 9 Sept. 1965 with John G. Gossett as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim.

[2]Ambassadors Cook through Cohen were also accredited to Senegal and resident at Dakar.

[3]Between Aug. 1982 and June 1984, the following officers served as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim: Owen W. Roberts, Aug. 1982-June 1983; P. Wesley Kriebel, July-Nov. 1983; Alan Logan, Nov. 1983-Apr. 1984; and Edward Brynn, May-June 1984.

[4]Did not serve under this appointment.

German Democratic Republic[1]

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
John Sherman Cooper	Ky.	NC	AE/P	19 Sept. 1974	20 Dec. 1974	Left post, 28 Sept. 1976
David B. Bolen	Colo.	C	AE/P	29 July 1977	22 Aug. 1977	Left post, 20 June 1980

[1]Embassy Berlin was established 9 Dec. 1974 with Brandon H. Grove, Jr., as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim.

Nepal (*Continued*)

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Chester Bowles	Conn.	NC	AE/P	10 Oct. 1951	16 Feb. 1952	Left New Delhi, 23 Mar. 1953
George V. Allen	N.C.	C	AE/P	11 Mar. 1953	5 July 1953	Left New Delhi, 30 Nov. 1954
John Sherman Cooper	Ky.	NC	AE/P	4 Feb. 1955	3 June 1955	Left New Delhi, 23 Apr. 1956
Ellsworth Bunker	Vt.	NC	AE/P	28 Nov. 1956[r] 25 Jan. 1957	8 Mar. 1957	Recommissioned after confirmation Superseded, 25 Nov. 1959
Henry E. Stebbins	Mass.	C	AE/P	9 Sept. 1959	25 Nov. 1959	Left post, 10 June 1966
Carol C. Laise	D.C.	C	AE/P	19 Sept. 1966	5 Dec. 1966	Left post, 5 June 1973
William I. Cargo	Fla.	C	AE/P	16 July 1973	28 Sept. 1973	Left post, 3 Apr. 1976
Marquita M. Maytag	Cal.	NC	AE/P	3 Mar. 1976	18 May 1976	Left post, 22 Apr. 1977
L. Douglas Heck	Ore.	C	AE/P	26 May 1977	29 July 1977	Left post, 19 May 1980
Philip R. Trimble	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	23 May 1980	10 July 1980	Left post, 21 Feb. 1981
Carleton S. Coon, Jr.	N.H.	C	AE/P	11 June 1981	3 July 1981	Left post, 3 Aug. 1984
Leon Jerome Weil	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	13 Aug. 1984	21 Sept. 1984	Left post, 11 Nov. 1987
Milton Frank	Cal.	NC	AE/P	28 Mar. 1988	22 Apr. 1988	

Netherlands

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
John Adams[1]	Mass.		MP	1 Jan. 1781	[19 Apr. 1782[2]]	Transmitted recall by note from London, 30 Mar. 1788[3]
William Livingston[4]	N.J.		MP			
John Rutledge[5]	S.C.		MP			
William Short	Va.		MR	16 Jan. 1792	18 June 1792	Left post, 19 Dec. 1792
John Quincy Adams[6]	Mass.		MR	30 May 1794	6 Nov. 1794	Presented recall, 20 June 1797
William Vans Murray[7]	Md.		MR	2 Mar. 1797	20 June 1797	Presented recall, 2 Sept. 1801
William Eustis	Mass.		EE/MP	19 Dec. 1814	[20 July 1815[8]]	Had farewell audience, 5 May 1818
Alexander H. Everett	Mass.		CdA	27 June 1818[r] 30 Nov. 1818	4 Jan. 1819	Recommissioned after confirmation Had farewell audience, 7 Apr. 1824
Christopher Hughes[9]	Md.		CdA	9 Mar. 1825	10 July 1826	Superseded, 28 Jan. 1830
William Pitt Preble	Me.		EE/MP	1 June 1829[r] 10 Feb. 1830	28 Jan. 1830	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post on or shortly before 2 May 1831
Auguste Davezac	La.		CdA	15 Oct. 1831[r] 3 Jan. 1832	30 Dec. 1831	Recommissioned after confirmation Superseded, 13 July 1839
Harmanus Bleecker	N.Y.		CdA	15 May 1839[r] [19 Mar. 1840[10]]	13 July 1839	Recommissioned after confirmation Superseded, 22 Aug. 1842
Christopher Hughes	Md.		CdA	12 May 1842	22 Aug. 1842	Presented recall, 28 June 1845
Auguste Davezac	La.		CdA	19 Apr. 1845[r] 3 Feb. 1846	28 June 1845	Recommissioned after confirmation Superseded, 16 Sept. 1850
George Folsom	N.Y.		CdA	4 May 1850[11]	16 Sept. 1850	Presented recall, 11 Oct. 1853
August Belmont[12]	N.Y.		CdA	24 May 1853[r] 8 Feb. 1854	11 Oct. 1853	Recommissioned after confirmation Promoted to MR
			MR	29 June 1854	26 Sept. 1854	Presented recall, 22 Sept. 1857
Henry C. Murphy	N.Y.		MR	1 June 1857[r] 14 Jan. 1858	24 Sept. 1857	Recommissioned after confirmation Presented recall, 8 June 1861
James S. Pike	Me.		MR	28 Mar. 1861	8 June 1861	Left post on or soon after 29 May 1866
Daniel E. Sickles[13]	N.Y.		MR	11 May 1866		
John A. Dix[14]	N.Y.		MR	27 July 1866		
Albert Rhodes			CdA	[15]	19 Oct. 1866	Superseded, 1 Dec. 1866

[1]Commissioned also to Great Britain (see under United Kingdom); resident at London after 1785. Adams also received a second set of instructions dated 16 Aug. 1781.

[2]Formally recognized on this date.

[3]Adams, before leaving The Hague at the end of his longest period of residence there, presented Charles W. F. Dumas as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim on 15 Oct. 1782. Dumas, although holding no commission from the United States, continued to act in this capacity, except during Adams' later visits to the Netherlands, until 1790.

[4]Elected 23 June 1785 to be MP to the United Netherlands; declined appointment.

[5]Elected 5 July 1785 to be MP to the United Netherlands; declined appointment.

[6]Continued to serve, without reaccreditation, after the proclamation of the Batavian Republic.

[7]Commissioned to the Batavian Republic.

[8]Formally received on this date.

[9]Nominated 11 Dec. 1828 to be EE/MP; nomination tabled by the Senate.

[10]Commission not of record, but enclosed with an instruction of this date.

[11]The record copy is so dated, but the date is probably erroneous, as the Senate confirmed Folsom's nomination on 14 May 1850.

[12]Nominated 25 Feb. 1856 to be EE/MP; nomination withdrawn before the Senate acted upon it.

[13]Declined appointment.

[14]Declined appointment.

[15]Not commissioned; letter of credence dated 29 Sept. 1866.

Netherlands (*Continued*)

Name	Res.	Career	Title	Appointment	Pres. of Cred.	Term. of Mission
Hugh Ewing	Kans.		MR	24 Sept. 1866[r] 2 Mar. 1867	1 Dec. 1866	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post on or soon after 31 Oct. 1870
Joseph P. Root[16]	Kans.		MR			
Charles T. Gorham	Mich.		MR	12 July 1870	15 Dec. 1870	Presented recall, 9 July 1875
Francis B. Stockbridge[17]	Mich.		MR	12 July 1875[r]		
James Birney	Mich.		MR	10 Jan. 1876	29 Mar. 1876	Left post on or soon after 20 Apr. 1882
William L. Dayton	N.J.		MR	26 Apr. 1882	26 Sept. 1882	Presented recall, 8 June 1885
Isaac Bell, Jr.	R.I.		MR	2 Apr. 1885	8 June 1885	Presented recall, 29 Apr. 1888
Robert B. Roosevelt	N.Y.		MR EE/MP	16 May 1888 10 Aug. 1888	10 Aug. 1888 26 Sept. 1888	Promoted to EE/MP Presented recall, 17 May 1889
Samuel R. Thayer	Minn.		EE/MP	19 Mar. 1889	24 May 1889	Presented recall, 7 Aug. 1893
William E. Quinby	Mich.		EE/MP	24 May 1893[r] 25 Aug. 1893	11 Aug. 1893	Recommissioned after confirmation Presented recall, 26 July 1897
Stanford Newel[18]	Minn.		EE/MP	11 May 1897 5 June 1903[r] 16 Nov. 1903	19 Aug. 1897	Recommissioned to a combination of countries Recommissioned after confirmation Presented recall, 30 June 1905
David J. Hill[19]	N.Y.		EE/MP	15 Mar. 1905	15 July 1905	Presented recall, 1 June 1908
Arthur M. Beaupré	Ill.		EE/MP	2 Apr. 1908	15 June 1908	Transmitted recall by note, 25 Sept. 1911
Lloyd Bryce	N.Y.		EE/MP	12 Aug. 1911	16 Nov. 1911	Presented recall, 10 Sept. 1913
Henry van Dyke	N.J.	NC	EE/MP	27 June 1913	15 Oct. 1913	Presented recall, 11 Jan. 1917
John W. Garrett	Md.	C	EE/MP	23 Aug. 1917	11 Oct. 1917	Left post, 18 June 1919
William Phillips	Mass.	C	EE/MP	3 Mar. 1920	23 Apr. 1920	Left post, 11 Apr. 1922
Richard M. Tobin	Cal.	NC	EE/MP	27 Feb. 1923[20] 5 Mar. 1923[r] 12 Dec. 1923	1 May 1923	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post, 29 Aug. 1929
Gerrit John Diekema	Mich.	NC	EE/MP	11 Sept. 1929	20 Nov. 1929	Died at post, 20 Dec. 1930
Laurits S. Swenson	Minn.	NC	EE/MP	28 Feb. 1931	29 Apr. 1931	Left post, 5 Mar. 1934
Grenville T. Emmet[21]	N.Y.	NC	EE/MP	27 Dec. 1933[r] 15 Jan. 1934	21 Mar. 1934	Left post, 21 Aug. 1937
George A. Gordon	N.Y.	C	EE/MP	30 July 1937	10 Sept. 1937	Govt. left the Netherlands, 13 May 1940, in anticipation of German occupation.[22]
Anthony J. Drexel Biddle, Jr.[23]	Pa.	NC	EE/MP AE/P	11 Feb. 1941 12 May 1942	27 Mar. 1941 [8 May 1942[24]]	Promoted to AE/P Left London, 1 Dec. 1943
Stanley K. Hornbeck[25]	Colo.	NC	AE/P	21 Sept. 1944	8 Dec. 1944	Left post, 7 Mar. 1947
Herman B. Baruch	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	13 Mar. 1947	12 Apr. 1947	Left post, 26 Aug. 1949
Selden Chapin	D.C.	C	AE/P	7 Oct. 1949	27 Oct. 1949	Left post, 30 Oct. 1953
H. Freeman Matthews	D.C.	C	AE/P	1 Oct. 1953[r] 26 Jan. 1954	25 Nov. 1953	Recommissioned after confirmation Left post, 11 June 1957
Philip Young	N.Y.	NC	AE/P	28 Mar. 1957	27 June 1957	Left post, 20 Dec. 1960
John S. Rice	Pa.	NC	AE/P	29 Mar. 1961	6 May 1961	Left the Netherlands, 27 May 1964
William R. Tyler	D.C.	C	AE/P	6 May 1965	23 June 1965	Left post, 20 June 1969
J. William Middendorf II	Conn.	NC	AE/P	13 June 1969	9 July 1969	Left post, 10 June 1973
Kingdon Gould, Jr.	Md.	NC	AE/P	28 Sept. 1973	18 Oct. 1973	Left post, 30 Sept. 1976
Robert J. McCloskey	Pa.	C	AE/P	3 Sept. 1976	22 Oct. 1976	Left post, 10 Mar. 1978
Geri M. Joseph	Minn.	NC	AE/P	18 July 1978	6 Sept. 1978	Left post, 17 June 1981
William Jennings Dyess	Ala.	C	AE/P	30 July 1981	2 Sept. 1982	Left post, 19 July 1983
L. Paul Bremer III	Conn.	C	AE/P	6 July 1983	31 Aug. 1983	Left post, 25 Aug. 1986
John Shad	D.C.	NC	AE/P	15 June 1987	24 June 1987	

[16]Not commissioned; nomination withdrawn before the Senate acted upon it.

[17]Took oath of office, but did not proceed to post.

[18]Newel's second and third commissions were to the Netherlands and Luxembourg; resident at The Hague.

[19]Representatives from Hill through Phillips were also accredited to Luxembourg and resident at The Hague.

[20]Commissioned to the Netherlands and Luxembourg; did not serve under this appointment. His later commissions were to the Netherlands only.

[21]Did not serve under this appointment.

[22]Gordon closed the Legation, 15 July 1940, and left post, 16 July 1940. Rudolf E. Schoenfeld established the Legation near the Govt. of the Netherlands established in England, making his initial call as Chargé d'Affaires ad interim on 15 Aug. 1940.

[23]Served near the Govt. of the Netherlands established in England; commissioned also to Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, and Yugoslavia; resident at London.

[24]Formally received, and the Legation raised to Embassy status, on this date.

[25]Served near the Govt. of the Netherlands established in England; resident first at London; transferred the Embassy to The Hague, 17 Aug. 1945. The office of the Embassy in London was closed, 19 Sept. 1945.

[Van Buren MSS. and Marcy MSS. in Lib. of Cong.; the private collection of Blair MSS.; Van Buren letters in N. Y. State Lib., Albany; D. S. Alexander, *A Political History of the State of N. Y.*, vol. II (1906); D. T. Lynch, *An Epoch and a Man: Martin Van Buren and His Times* (1929); W. L. Mackenzie, *The Life and Times of Martin Van Buren* (1846); E. M. Shepard, *Martin Van Buren* (1888); H. D. A. Donovan, *The Barnburners* (1925); John Bigelow, *Retrospections of an Active Life*, vol. I (1909), pp. 86–90; David McAdam and others, *Hist. of the Bench and Bar of New York*, vol. I (1897); Harriet C. W. Van Buren Peckham, *Hist. of Cornelius Maessen Van Buren . . . and His Descendants* (1913); G. B. Vanderpoel, *Genealogy of the Vanderpoel Family* (1912); obituaries in *Evening Post* (N. Y.), Oct. 16, 19, 1866; *N. Y. Tribune*, Oct. 17, 20, 1866.] W. E. S—h.

VAN BUREN, MARTIN (Dec. 5, 1782–July 24, 1862), eighth president of the United States, was born in Kinderhook, near Albany, N. Y., the third of five children of Abraham and Maria (Hoes) Van Buren, both of whom were of Dutch descent. Abraham was descended from Cornelis, who was the son of Maes of Buurmalsen and came to New Netherland in 1631 as a leaseholder of Van Rensselaer. Maria Hoes was the widow Van Alen and mother of two children when she married the bachelor Abraham. Martin's parents were frugal truck farmers and keepers of an inherited tavern who became respectable slave-owning citizens in the village. In the inadequate village schools the boy gained a fair knowledge of English and a smattering of Latin. After graduation at the age of fourteen, he became a clerk in the law office of Francis Silvester, a Federalist. He read little from law books, but devoured every Republican pamphlet, journal, or periodical that he could find. Obstinately, but good-naturedly, he refused from the beginning to adopt Silvester's Federalism. By 1800 the yellow-haired law clerk had won a local reputation for his clear thinking, clever presentation and summaries of his petty cases, extemporaneous debating, and stanch Republicanism. As a reward for his campaign for Jefferson (1800) he was sent as a delegate to the congressional caucus in Troy. In 1801 he entered as a clerk the almost clientless office in New York City of the young William Peter Van Ness [*q.v.*], a devotee of Aaron Burr.

Upon his return to Kinderhook (1803) he was licensed to practice law and became the partner of his half-brother, James I. Van Alen. He flung himself immediately into Republican politics as the champion of the Clinton-Livingston factions, in opposition to Burr, thereby annoying the Van Nesses. His income came from the pockets of Jeffersonian-Republican small landholders in whose cases in court he had often to oppose the eloquent Elisha Williams. By 1807 he was affluent enough to marry, on Feb. 21, the sweetheart

Van Buren

of his youth, his kinswoman Hannah Hoes. She bore him four sons: Abraham, John [*q.v.*], Martin, and Smith Thompson. Soon he moved to Hudson, where as the newly appointed surrogate (1808–13), he launched himself on an ambitious political career. Already his enemies had pronounced him a hypocrite, a heartless, selfish, intriguing politician. He was a manipulator in politics, but he was honest and generous in his private and public relations. In taverns as well as court rooms his ready wit, friendly smile, and cheerful disposition won voters and juries to his side. He was only five feet six and was slender but stood erect like a soldier. He dressed immaculately, as his preceptor Silvester had taught him. Rarely was he incensed at even his worst enemies. He could see no reason why political opponents could not be personal friends.

Until 1821 he was enmeshed in state politics. In his fight for state leadership he moved in a maze of political intrigue and bitterness, but always remained a partisan Republican. In 1807 he was admitted as counselor to practise before the state supreme court. In a race against Edward P. Livingston he was elected state senator in April 1812 on an anti-Bank platform. In August he was deeply chagrined at his failure to receive the appointment as attorney general of the state, which went to Thomas Addis Emmet, and at first blamed DeWitt Clinton. In November, in the legislative session to select presidential electors, he supported Clinton, as the nominee of the Republican caucus, though the rivalry of the two men was becoming intense. He helped to secure the election of Daniel D. Tompkins [*q.v.*] as vice-president in 1816 and annoyed Clinton that year by opposing certain details of the canal bill. The next year, however, he supported the canal project against the wishes of his group, defending his course by saying that he could not sacrifice a popular blessing to humiliate Clinton. Van Buren was soon chosen regent of the University of the State of New York (1815), a recognition of his importance. In 1816 he was reelected senator (1816–20) and chosen attorney general of New York (1816–19). He then moved his family to Albany. His wife died in 1819. He never attempted to marry again until late in life when he was rejected by the spinster, Margaret Silvester, who was the daughter of his old preceptor. In the state Senate he was establishing himself as a leader. In 1817, however, Clinton was elected governor, and in 1819, gaining control of the Council of Appointment, he removed Van Buren from the attorney generalship. While bitterly attacking Clinton for cooperating with Federalists, Van Buren acted secretly to reëlect

Rufus King [*q.v.*] to the United States Senate (1820) and to gain Federalist aid in defeating Clinton. He asked for a state constitutional convention, which convened in 1821, largely because he opposed the arbitrary power of Chief Justice Ambrose Spencer [*q.v.*] and favored a reorganization of the judicial system. His chief work in the convention was in securing an agreement between extreme radicals and conservatives that could be accepted by all. As chairman of the committee on appointments, he advocated the decentralization of the power held by the old Council of Appointment, by the distribution of the appointing power among local authorities, the legislature, and the governor. He was unsuccessful in his opposition, probably for the sake of patronage, to the popular election of all judicial officers. (N. H. Carter and W. L. Stone, *Reports of the Proceedings and Debates of the Convention of 1821 Assembled for the Purpose of Amending the Constitution of New York,* 1821.)

Clinton had been reëlected governor in 1820, largely because of his canal policy, but the "Bucktails" won control of the legislature and in February 1821 elected Van Buren to the United States Senate. In August 1820 his brother-in-law, Moses I. Cantine, and Isaac J. Leake bought the *Albany Argus.* The paper was given the contract for the state printing. In 1823, when Edwin Croswell [*q.v.*] became editor, Van Buren wrote that without a paper edited by "a sound, practicable and above all discreet republican . . . we may hang our harps on the willows" (quoted in Mackenzie, *post,* p. 190). Croswell made the *Argus* a highly influential organ. Van Buren was chief of a group of leaders, soon nicknamed the "Albany regency," which included William L. Marcy, Azariah C. Flagg, Benjamin F. Butler (1795–1858), Edwin Croswell, Michael Hoffman, and later Silas Wright and John A. Dix [*qq.v.*]. "They were formidable in solidarity," and achieved extraordinary success (Fox, *post,* pp. 281–86). Van Buren's primacy among them was not owing merely to his amiability and caution, but to his shrewd judgment of measures and men, to his power of analysis and exposition. His political philosophy was practical and sincere. Reckless opposition to public sentiment seemed to him inconsistent with good statesmanship, and he thought that those who dispensed the public bounty would, to a greater or less degree, influence and control the public mind. However, in attacking Clinton he said that a good administration would rally around "the governmental standard the good the virtuous and the capable" (Lynch, p. 175), and he and the other members of the "regency" faithfully performed the duties of the important offices they obtained.

Van Buren

As United States senator he was still preoccupied with factional fights from which he hoped to emerge as the leader of a unified national party. Not until 1823 did he avow his intention openly to support William H. Crawford for president, hoping that by delay he could avoid party strife in New York and give his state a chance finally to choose between opposing candidates. In Washington he was considered the leader of the Crawford faction and he was active in the last and well-known congressional caucus, called to nominate his candidate (*Daily National Intelligencer,* Feb. 16, 1824). He considered Jackson unpromising and tried to persuade either Clay or Gallatin to run with Crawford. In New York in 1824, Clinton, who was a Jacksonian, was again elected governor, routing the "regency" (C. H. Rammelkamp, "The Campaign of 1824 in New York," *Annual Report of the American Historical Association . . . 1904,* 1905, pp. 175–201). Van Buren tried to produce a deadlock in the House of Representatives while it was voting for presidential candidates, in order that the Clay-Adams men would have to appeal to New York for a decision, but the prayerful Stephen Van Rensselaer [*q.v.*] blocked that plan by voting for Adams. Van Buren's early bitterness towards Adams was probably caused by the latter's offer of the ministerial post in London to Clinton. In the Senate he voted yea on the tariff bills of 1824 and 1828, guided partisan opposition, served on the finance committee and as chairman of the judiciary committee. He opposed the sending of envoys to the Panama conference, offering the explanation that he was opposed to all forms of international alliances. In his speeches on internal improvements (*Register of Debates in Congress,* vol. II, 1826, 19 Cong., 1 Sess., cols. 20–21, 619, 717–18), he laid down a policy of opposition to which he steadfastly adhered. Congress, he said, had no constitutional right to construct commercial roads and canals within states. His practical objections to the program of his political rivals were strengthened by the consideration that most of the projects would deflect trade from the Erie Canal and New York. So adept was he in politics that he was reëlected senator (1827) with the aid of Clinton's friends. By this time, however, he was turning to Jackson, and took the liberty of telling Jackson to refrain from answering defamatory pamphlets. He read such pamphlets and planned the answers, advising editors here and there what to say about campaign issues. After pronouncing a touching eulogium upon Clinton, who died in 1828, he ran

for governor of New York in order that a "Bucktail" state administration would be in control after he should become Jackson's secretary of state. He resigned the governorship to enter the cabinet after making to the legislature several recommendations, one of which—the enactment of a safety-fund banking law, as suggested by Joshua Forman [*q.v.*]—was adopted. He returned to Washington society, of which he was enamoured, and became at once the most influential member of the Jackson cabinet.

As secretary of state he favored the introduction of his New York political spoils system into the federal administration. Approached on the subject, he replied: "We give no reasons for our removals" (Lynch, p. 325). Being a widower, he pleased the President by his friendly course towards Peggy Eaton (see sketch of Margaret O'Neale). He helped Jackson write his famous toast, "Our Federal Union—It must be preserved" (*Autobiography,* p. 414). So completely did he win the President's confidence that Jackson said that Van Buren was "one of the most frank men" he had known, "a *true man* with no guile" (*Jackson Correspondence,* IV, 260). Before the end of 1830 Jackson proposed to Van Buren that they run on the same ticket, he to resign after a year and leave Van Buren to carry on his policies (*Autobiography,* pp. 506–07). This Van Buren refused to do and persuaded the President that it was best for him to resign as secretary of state so that the cabinet could be reorganized. His resignation (Apr. 11, 1831) brought about that of other members and enabled Jackson to eliminate Calhoun's supporters, while his prompt appointment as minister to Great Britain, ostensibly taking him out of politics, showed that he was still in Jackson's confidence (*Ibid.,* pp. 403–08; Bassett, *Life of Jackson,* II, 522–25, 532). Although Van Buren seems deliberately to have kept himself ignorant of the Jackson-Calhoun quarrel (Bassett, II, 514–15), he was accused of causing it, and had heaped upon his head such opprobrious terms as "Flying Dutchman," "Red Fox of Kinderhook," and "Little Magician."

His unusual tact stood him in good stead as secretary of state. He maneuvered Jackson into appointing young energetic ministers, soon established order and confidence in his department, and quieted the fears of the foreign diplomatic corps, who expected trouble with the frontier President. He settled the old dispute over the West Indian trade between Great Britain and the United States, secured an agreement with France by which that country ultimately and reluctantly paid claims for compensation for injuries inflicted upon American commerce during the Napoleonic wars, negotiated a treaty with Turkey providing for free access to the Black Sea and a most favored nations clause, and tried to buy Texas from Mexico, arguing that it was a necessity for the development of the Mississippi Valley and that Mexico would finally lose it through revolution if she did not sell to the United States. Jackson's Maysville Road veto was largely the work of Van Buren, who drafted the message (*Autobiography,* pp. 315–22; Bassett, *Life of Jackson,* II, pp. 484–96), and he supported Jackson in his other important domestic policies. In August 1831 he was on his way to London as minister to Great Britain, but in January 1832 his appointment was rejected by the deciding vote of Vice-President Calhoun. He then took his son John with him to travel in France and in Holland.

Van Buren

His return, purposely timed to follow his nomination for vice-president in May 1832, was celebrated extensively in New York City. His graciousness, his courtesy toward even his bitterest foes, and his charming conversation made him a favored guest at such celebrations as the New York Democrats could provide. In the course of the presidential campaign he aided Jackson in defeating a bill to recharter the Bank of the United States and opposed the theories of nullification, as he did internal improvements at national expense, but he intentionally remained vague on the tariff. Contrary to some opinions, he did not disagree with Jackson over the removal of the government's deposits in the Bank, but he did hesitate about the time of their removal (*Jackson Correspondence,* V, 179–82, 183–84). When Jackson appealed to him to have the New York Assembly issue a public defense of his message on nullification, Van Buren wrote the report of the joint committee, endeavoring to show the soundness of the party on the state-rights question, while supporting the President against the nullifiers (*Documents of the Senate of . . . New York . . . 1833,* 1833, no. 34; *Autobiography,* pp. 548–53; *Jackson Correspondence,* IV, 504–08).

Elected vice-president in 1832 as Jackson's running mate, he proved to be an able and fair presiding officer of the Senate. Not once did he lose the confidence of Jackson. It has been remarked that toward his chief he had a "perfect bedside manner" (J. F. Jameson, Preface to *Jackson Correspondence,* Vol. IV, p. v). Accepted by his party as Jackson's protégé, he was nominated for the presidency by a convention held in Baltimore in May 1835, Richard M. Johnson [*q.v.*] being nominated for vice-president.

His platform was enunciated in the letters he wrote during the campaign, especially in the able letter of Aug. 8, 1836, to Sherrod Williams (*Niles' Weekly Register,* Sept. 10, 1836, pp. 26–30). It was clear that he opposed the distribution of the surplus in the treasury and the improvement of rivers above ports of entry, and that he would not recharter the Bank under any consideration. He had supported Tallmadge's resolution on the Missouri Compromise calling for the non-extension of slavery and had signed a call for a meeting in Albany to protest against the extension of slavery (1820), but in 1831 he had announced himself as a stanch advocate of the right of slave-owning states to control slavery within their respective boundaries. He had advised Governor Marcy in 1835 to condemn the activities of the Garrison abolitionists (message of Jan. 5, 1836), and in 1836, in the Senate, he had given a casting vote in favor of the bill barring abolitionist propaganda from the mails (*Register of Debates,* 24 Cong., 1 Sess., Col. 1675; see also T. H. Benton, *Thirty Years' View,* I, 587–88).

In the election of 1836 there were Democratic defections in the South to Hugh L. White [*q.v.*] and to Willie P. Mangum [*q.v.*], who received the vote of South Carolina; and votes were cast for two Whig candidates, William Henry Harrison and Daniel Webster [*qq.v.*]; but Van Buren had a large electoral majority over the field. As president, he filled the vacancy in the Department of War by appointing Joel R. Poinsett [*q.v.*], and retained all the other members of Jackson's cabinet. In his optimistic inaugural address (Richardson, *post,* III, 313–20), which concluded with a tribute to his predecessor, he urged the preservation of American democracy as a world experiment. His desire to hold together the northern and southern wings of his party was manifested in his avowed opposition to the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia against the wishes of the slave states, and to any interference with slavery in the states where it existed. Throughout his administration he was plagued by abolitionist agitators and those who would silence them, but his chief problems were economic. The panic of 1837 soon burst upon him. In spite of the fury of clamor against it, he held steadfastly to Jackson's specie circular, and in his message to the special session of Congress (Sept. 4, 1837, Richardson, III, 324–46) he properly said that the panic was the result of over-action in business and over-expansion of credit. Adamant in his determination to divorce the "money power" from the federal government, and distrustful of the "pet banks" as well as of a central institution, he urged that an independent treasury be established. His recommendations that the installment of the surplus scheduled for distribution to the states in October be withheld, and that treasury notes be temporarily issued to meet the pressing needs of the government, were adopted, but the first independent treasury bill failed of passage. Not until 1840 was Van Buren able to secure the necessary legislation, with some compromise in regard to specie payments, and this was repealed by the Whigs in 1841. The independent treasury was not effectually established until 1846. It has generally been regarded as distinctly creditable to Van Buren's foresight, but at the time of his official advocacy of it he alienated conservative, or bank, Democrats, especially in New York and Virginia, while he was denounced by the Whigs for his "heartlessness" in not undertaking measures of relief and particularly for his failure to resort to paper money. He followed his lifelong policy of refusing to answer villifiers, believing always that "the sober second thought of the people" would uphold him.

Van Buren

Though he was embarrassed by American sympathy with the Canadian rebellion of 1837, and the seizure by Canadian authorities in American waters of the insurgent vessel *Caroline,* his successful effort to preserve peace between Great Britain and the United States was patriotic and commendable, notwithstanding the accusations of the opposing factions that his officials were "the tools of Victoria." His wise policy of conciliation, however, cost him political support along the northern border, as it did also in Maine, in connection with the continued controversy over the northeastern boundary. He refused to annex independent Texas because he wanted no war with Mexico and at heart was opposed to the further extension of slavery. Throughout his administration he and his able cabinet were plagued with the terrible depression, to which crop failures contributed. Calhoun's cooperation, Blair's influential *Globe,* and Jackson's fidelity could not overcome such obstacles. As president, Van Buren had been far more than a wily politician, but perhaps no amount of courage, patriotism, and ability would have availed to carry through an effective program or to gain popular approval in such troublous times. "Little Van" was a "used up man" in the "hard-cider" campaign of 1840. The Whigs, evading issues and appealing to emotions, triumphantly elected William Henry Harrison [*q.v.*] over the decorous President, with an electoral vote of 234 to 60, and a popular plurality of nearly 150,000. Van Buren even lost New York.

He greeted Whigs and Democrats alike at the White House and shattered precedent by calling on President-elect Harrison at Gadsby's. After the inauguration, he retired to the old William Van Ness farm at Kinderhook which he had bought; he now repaired it extensively and called it "Lindenwald." He presently found occasion to deny a statement that he would not again run for the presidency, but he also informed the public that he would take no step to secure another nomination. He made a tour of the West and Southwest, stopping at "Ashland" to see Clay, and at "The Hermitage" to pay his respects to Jackson (1842). Many Democrats throughout the North and West rallied to his support. He answered quite frankly, against the advice of informed friends, many inquiries as to his views on political issues. In the well-known "Hammet letter" (Washington *Globe*, Apr. 27, 1844), published on the same day as Clay's "Raleigh letter," he courageously said that the annexation of Texas would mean war with Mexico and that he saw no need for immediate action, but that he would yield to the popular decision at the polls. This stand probably lost him the Democratic nomination (McCormac, *Polk*, pp. 224–30). His opponents published a year-old letter of Jackson favoring annexation, and succeeded in getting the two-thirds rule adopted by the Democratic convention at Baltimore (1844). Van Buren withdrew his name for the sake of party harmony and James K. Polk [*q.v.*] was nominated. His principles, except on annexation, were adopted in the platform. His followers expected recognition, but President Polk soon let it be known that they were not in favor. He offered Van Buren the London mission purposely to exile him, but Van Buren could not be shelved so easily.

The discontent engendered by his defeat at Baltimore, accentuated by bitter factional strife within the party in New York, turned half the Democrats of the state against the administration. The introduction of the Wilmot Proviso in 1846 provided a rallying point for this discontent and the latent anti-slavery feeling that had been steadily increasing. The next year the "Barnburners" seceded from the state convention, and, meeting at Herkimer, adopted a platform, drafted by Van Buren's son John [*q.v.*], opposing the extension of slavery to the territories to be acquired from Mexico. Van Buren himself drew up a similar address, which, after revision by his son and Samuel J. Tilden, was issued in February 1848 as the address of "Barnburner" Democrats in the legislature. Both "Barnburners" and "Hunkers" sent delegates to the National Democratic Convention of 1848, but the former at length withdrew. At a convention at Utica in June they nominated Van Buren for the presidency, paving the way for a general convention later. At Buffalo, in August, a gathering of anti-slavery men from all parties, organized the Free-soil party, on a platform of opposition to the extension of slavery into the territories. Van Buren, already nominated by the best organized group in the convention, was chosen to head the ticket. He had become convinced, perhaps at the convention of 1844, that northern Democrats had yielded to the "slavocracy" long enough, but accepted the nomination reluctantly, preferring to remain a farmer and to write his memoirs. The Free-soilers helped to defeat Cass by splitting the ticket. For a while Van Buren was popular with the New York Free-soilers, but he alienated them when he supported the compromise measures of 1850. He returned to the Democratic fold in 1852, assured by the elder Blair that he could trust Pierce, but he soon found that his trust was misplaced. He was indignant at the "half baked politicians" who repealed the Missouri Compromise (1854). He hoped the Union would be saved by the election of Buchanan, who promised a peaceful settlement of the Kansas question. Shocked deeply by the Civil War, he found his only solace in his confidence in Abraham Lincoln and refused to be associated with Buchanan, whom he now despised, in holding an ex-president's meeting (suggested by Franklin Pierce) to decide on some course relative to the cause of the Union. After months of suffering with asthma, he died in the summer, despondent over the situation of the Union armies. Funeral services were held in the Dutch Reformed Church of which he had been a faithful member. He left a manuscript, published by his sons under the title, *Inquiry into the Origin and Course of Political Parties in the United States* (1867). His uncompleted autobiography was edited by J. C. Fitzpatrick and published as "The Autobiography of Martin Van Buren" (*Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the Year 1918*, Vol. II, 1920).

[Elizabeth H. West, *Calendar of the Papers of Martin Van Buren* (1910), is an excellent guide to the voluminous Van Buren MSS. in the lib. of Cong., acquired to the time of its compilation; there is valuable material about him in that repository in the papers of various persons who were associated with him; and there is a collection of his letters in the N. Y. State Lib., at Albany. Valuable printed collections are C. Z. Lincoln, *State of N. Y. Messages from the Governors* (1909), vol. III, pp. 230–59; J. D. Richardson, *A Compilation of the Messages and Papers of the Presidents*, vol. III (1896); William McDonald, "The Jackson and Van Buren Papers," in *Proc. Am. Antiquarian Soc.*,

vol. XVIII (1908); Van Buren—Bancroft correspondence, in *Mass. Hist. Soc. Proc.*, vol. XLII (1909); J. S. Bassett, ed., *Correspondence of Andrew Jackson* (6 vols., 1926–33). Among biographies may be cited W. M. Holland, *The Life and Political Opinions of Martin Van Buren* (1835); W. L. Mackenzie, *The Life and Times of Martin Van Buren* (1846), a bitter attack but contains letters; W. A. Butler, *Martin Van Buren: Lawyer, Statesman and Man* (1862); George Bancroft, *Martin Van Buren to the End of His Public Career* (1889), to 1841, written for the campaign of 1844; E. M. Shepard, *Martin Van Buren* (1888); D. T. Lynch, *An Epoch and a Man: Martin Van Buren* (1929). For particular phases see J. S. Bassett, "Martin Van Buren," in S. F. Bemis, ed., *The American Secretaries of State and Their Diplomacy*, vol. IV (1928); J. D. Hammond, *The History of Political Parties in the State of N. Y.* (2 vols., 1842); D. S. Alexander, *A Political History of the State of N. Y.*, vols. I, II (1906); D. R. Fox, *The Decline of Aristocracy in the Politics of N. Y.* (1919); William Trimble, "Diverging Tendencies in N. Y. Democracy in the Period of the Locofocos," in *Am. Hist. Rev.*, Apr. 1919; H. D. A. Donovan, *The Barnburners* (1925); T. H. Benton, *Thirty Years' View* (2 vols., 1856); R. H. Gillet, *The Life and Times of Silas Wright* (2 vols., 1874); J. S. Bassett, *The Life of Andrew Jackson* (1911); E. I. McCormac, *James K. Polk* (1922); C. G. Bowers, *The Party Battles of the Jackson Period* (1922); R. C. McGrane, *The Panic of 1837* (1924); W. E. Smith, *The Francis Preston Blair Family in Politics* (2 vols., 1933); F. J. Turner, *The United States: 1830–1850* (1935). For genealogy and local materials, see Harriet C. W. Van Buren Peckham, *History of Cornelis Maessen Van Buren . . . and His Descendants* (1913); E. A. Collier, *A History of Old Kinderhook* (1914). For obituaries see *Evening Post* (N. Y.), July 24, 1862; *N. Y. Times, N. Y. Tribune*, July 25, 1862.]

W. E. S—h.

VAN BUREN, WILLIAM HOLME (Apr. 4, 1819–Mar. 25, 1883), physician, surgeon, and teacher of medicine and surgery, was born at Philadelphia, Pa., the son of Abraham Van Beuren, a merchant of Philadelphia, and his second wife, Sarah Holme. He dropped the "e" from the first syllable of his name, although his father used the longer form. His grandfather, Abraham Van Beuren, and his great-grandfather, John Van Beuren, were both physicians, and his great-great-grandfather was Johannes Van Beuren [*q.v.*]. He entered Yale College as a sophomore in the class of 1838, but was required to leave during his junior year because of a student prank. He subsequently entered the medical school of the University of Pennsylvania, from which he was graduated with the degree of M.D. in 1840. Yale later recognized his work by giving him honorary degrees. Immediately after his graduation he entered the army as an assistant surgeon, ranking first in the competitive examination which gave him admission, and served in Florida and on the Canadian frontier. He resigned from the army in 1845, and settled in New York City, where he soon built up a large practice, and became a member of the surgical staff of Bellevue Hospital. From 1851 to 1852 he was professor of genito-urinary organs and venereal diseases in the Medical Department of the University of the City of New York. From 1852 to 1866 he was professor of anatomy. He was appointed professor of surgery in Bellevue Hospital Medical College in 1866 and retained this position until his death. This hospital was originally the medical department of the New York City almshouse, of which Johannes Van Beuren, was the first director. He was one of the visiting surgeons of the New York Hospital from 1852 to 1865, afterwards one of its consulting surgeons, and in 1876 was made president of its medical board. He was also for many years on the consulting staff of the Bellevue, Women's, Presbyterian, and other hospitals. In 1859 he was elected vice-president of the New York Academy of Medicine.

During the Civil War he was a member of the standing Executive Committee of the United States Sanitary Commission, which received and distributed during the war $5,000,000 in money and $15,000,000 in supplies. He declined an appointment as surgeon-general of the United States Army. At the close of the war he suffered a serious illness from which he finally recovered. He traveled for some time in Europe, and upon his return gave up most of his visiting practice and devoted himself to consultations, literary work, and to the preparation of his lectures. In collaboration with C. E. Isaacs, he translated Bernard and Huette's *Illustrated Manual of Operative Surgery and Surgical Anatomy* (1852) and C. B. Morel's *Compendium of Human Histology* (1861). He also published *Contributions to Practical Surgery* (1865), *Lectures Upon Diseases of the Rectum* (1870), which went through many editions, and, with E. L. Keyes, published *A Practical Treatise on the Surgical Diseases of the Genito-Urinary Organs, Including Syphilis* (1874). A bibliography of his works is included in the *Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army*, volume XV (1894). He was married on Nov. 8, 1842, to Louisa Dunmore Mott, eldest daughter of the well-known surgeon, Valentine Mott [*q.v.*]. They had three children, of whom two daughters survived him.

[H. A. Kelly, W. L. Burrage, *Am. Medic. Biogs.* (1920); William Jones, "The Van Beuren Family of New York and New Jersey," *N. Y. Geneal. and Biog. Record*, Jan. 1932; a memorial address by E. L. Keyes, printed in the *N. Y. Medic. Jour.*, Apr. 14, 1883; R. J. Carlisle, *An Account of Bellevue Hospital* (1893); *Obit. Records of Grads. of Yale Univ., 1880–90* (1890); *N. Y. Times, N. Y. Evening Post*, Mar. 26, 1883.]

W. J.

VANCE, AP MORGAN (May 24, 1854–Dec. 9, 1915), orthopedic surgeon, was born in Nashville, Tenn., the son of Morgan Brown and Su-

ers and glass factories. Parts of the Ozark National Forest lie to the north, and lumbering was once significant. Economic activities now focus mainly on food processing and shipping vegetables, especially spinach.

Cyrus Adler, a Jewish educator, was born in Van Buren, which was also the home of the humorist Bob Burns, who invented the musical instrument known as the "bazooka." Inc. 1842. Pop. (1980) 12,020.
35°26′ N, 94°21′ W
·map, United States 18:909

Van Buren, Martin (b. Dec. 5, 1782, Kinderhook, N.Y.—d. July 24, 1862, Kinderhook), eighth president of the United States (1837–41) and one of the founders of the Democratic Party; he was known as the "Little Magician" because of his reputed cunning and skill as a politician. He studied law and in 1803 began practice in Kinderhook, entering politics at about the same time. He served two

Martin Van Buren, daguerreotype, *c.* 1845–50
By courtesy of Chicago Historical Society

terms in the New York Senate (1812–20) as a Democratic-Republican and during his tenure was appointed state attorney general. After his election to the U.S. Senate in 1821, he created a group known as the Albany Regency, an informal political organization set up to run the state during his absence in Washington.

Van Buren regarded himself as a disciple of Thomas Jefferson. In the Senate he supported the doctrine of states' rights, opposed a strong central government, and disapproved of federally sponsored internal improvements. Further, he insisted that political parties were the best means to advance political ideals. After the election of John Quincy Adams in 1824, Van Buren recognized the necessity of adjusting his political thinking to the changing times. Hence he aided in the formation of a new political amalgam that resulted in the Democratic Party. Made up of factions of the Jeffersonian Republican Party led by Andrew Jackson, William H. Crawford, and John Calhoun, it espoused the principles of Thomas Jefferson and capitalized on Jackson's popularity.

To help promote Jackson's election to the presidency in 1828, Van Buren resigned his Senate seat and successfully ran for the office of governor of New York. He gave up the governorship within 12 weeks to become Jackson's secretary of state. As such, he was criticized for extending the spoils system, but, according to some historians, the criticism was exaggerated. He resigned in 1831 to permit reorganization of the Cabinet and served briefly as minister to Great Britain.

Nominated for the vice presidency in 1832 by the first national convention of the Democratic Party, Van Buren was elected with Jackson on a ticket opposing the established bank system. He became Jackson's choice to succeed him and in 1835 was unanimously nominated for the presidency. He took office in 1837, as a financial panic spread throughout the nation. In 1840 his proposal to remove government funds from state banks and put them in an "independent treasury" passed after a bitter congressional battle, but many conservative Democrats deserted to the Whig Party. A costly war with the Seminole Indians in Florida and his failure to support the proposed annexation of Texas also lessened his popularity. The question of the northeast boundary of the U.S. provoked conflict between the inhabitants of Maine and Canadians bordering the Aroostook River. Armed clashes were halted by Van Buren and a permanent settlement was later negotiated in the Webster–Ashburton Treaty of 1842. One of his last acts in office was to order that no person should work more than 10 hours a day on federal public works.

Unanimously renominated in 1840 by the Democrats, Van Buren was defeated by the Whig candidate William Henry Harrison, winning only 60 electoral votes to Harrison's 234. Four years later he failed to win the Democratic nomination. In 1848 he was nominated by the anti-slavery Democrats ("Barnburners") and then by the Free-Soilers, with whom the Barnburners and "conscience" Whigs united. Failing to be elected, he retired to his estate, Lindenwald, in Kinderhook.

Van Buren wrote his memoirs to 1833. They were published in 1920 under the title *The Autobiography of Martin Van Buren*. He was the author of an *Inquiry into the Origin and Course of Political Parties in the United States* (1867). Two biographies are Edward M. Shepard, *Martin Van Buren* (1892) and Robert V. Remini, *Martin Van Buren and the Making of the Democratic Party* (1959).
·Jackson's political association 10:3e

Van Cleef & Arpels, jewelry firm founded in the 19th century in Paris.
·pearl and diamond brooch 10:177c; illus.

vancomycin, antibiotic substance produced by the bacterium *Streptomyces orientalis*.
·antibiotic synthesis from soil 1:988e

Vancouver, city, southwestern British Columbia, Canada, between Burrard Inlet (an arm of the Strait of Georgia) and the Fraser River Delta, opposite Vancouver Island, north of the boundary with the United States. It has a fine natural harbour and occupies a superb site facing the sea and mountains. Originating as a sawmilling settlement called Granville in the 1870s, it was incorporated as a city in 1886 at the time of the completion of the first trans-Canada railroad, the Canadian Pacific. Renamed Vancouver in honour of Capt. George Vancouver, of the Royal Navy, who navigated the coast in 1792, the community recovered from a disastrous fire (1886) to become a prosperous port and rail ter-

Lost Lagoon in Stanley Park, Vancouver, B.C.
By courtesy of the Canadian Government Travel Bureau, Ottawa

minus, aided, in part, by the opening of the Panama Canal (1915), which made it economically feasible to export grain and lumber to Europe. By the 1930s Vancouver had grown to become Canada's third largest city and its most important Pacific coast port.

The city is the industrial, commercial, and financial heart of British Columbia, with trade and transportation as its basic functions. Vancouver's ice-free deepwater port, with extensive docks and grain-elevator facilities, handles freighters, a fishing fleet, and ferries to Vancouver Island) and is connected to mainland Canada and the U.S. by four major roads. An international airport serves the city as do roads to the eastern provinces (Trans-Canada Highway) and Seattle, Wash. Wood processing, based on the extensive forest resources of the hinterland, is one of Vancouver's major industries. Power for sawmilling and plywood and paper manufacturing is provided by hydroelectric developments to the north and by oil and natural-gas pipelines from Alberta. Other significant activities include food processing, fishing, shipbuilding, metal fabricating, and printing and publishing.

The business and financial district of Vancouver adjoins the port facilities along Burrard Inlet and False Creek. Large, attractive, landscaped residential suburbs extend to the south and east along the mouth of the Fraser River encompassing the cities of New Westminster, Port Moody, and Port Coquitlam (*qq.v.*). To the north, across Burrard Inlet, are the residential suburbs of North and West Vancouver (*qq.v.*), which are backed by steep mountains up to 5,000 ft (1,500 m) and connected to Vancouver by Lions Gate and Second Narrows bridges. Within the metropolitan area are the University of British Columbia (1908), Simon Fraser University (1963), and Stanley Park, with its arboretum, gardens, aquarium, and zoo. Pop. (1971) city, 426,256; metropolitan area, 1,082,352.
49°16′ N, 123°07′ W
·map, Canada 3:716
·Second Narrows Bridge disaster 3:190f
·settlement, growth, and development 3:297c

Vancouver, city, seat (1854) of Clark County, southwestern Washington, U.S., at the head of deepwater navigation on the Columbia River, there bridged to Portland, Ore. It was founded in 1824 as a Hudson's Bay Company post, Ft. Vancouver (named for Capt. George Vancouver), and served as headquarters of the company's Pacific Northwest operations. The post flourished under John McLoughlin, who pioneered the region's agricultural and commercial development. The first steamboat (uss "Beaver") to enter the Pacific (1836) was assembled there after arriving under sail from England with engines and paddle wheels as deck cargo. Ft. Vancouver (now a national historic monument) became a U.S. military reservation (Vancouver Barracks) in 1848; Grant House, home of Ulysses S. Grant while he was stationed there, is preserved as a museum. Manufacturing, farming, lumbering, and port operations (including the shipping of grain, lumber, paper, aluminum ingots, cable, and canned foods) provide a diversified economic base. The city is a distribution centre for hydroelectric power produced in the Columbia Basin. It is the site of Clark College (1933) and state schools for the deaf and blind. Inc. 1857. Pop. (1970) 42,834.
45°39′ N, 122°40′ W
·map, United States 18:908

Vancouver, George (b. June 22, 1757, King's Lynn, Norfolk—d. May 10, 1798, Richmond, Surrey), navigator who, with great precision, completed one of the most difficult surveys ever undertaken, that of the Pacific coast of North America, from the vicinity of San Francisco northward to present-day British Columbia. At that time he verified that a continuous channel exists between the Pacific Ocean and Hudson Bay, in northeast Canada

The Dutchness of the Roosevelts

FRANK FREIDEL

Two of the most notable of American Presidents in the twentieth century, Theodore Roosevelt and Franklin D. Roosevelt, took intense pride in their Dutch ancestry. It was the first topic that Theodore Roosevelt wrote about in the opening pages of his *Autobiography*. Franklin sketched the family line in a paper he wrote as a student at Harvard University, and at the beginning of each of his unprecedented four terms as President took his oath of office on the old Dutch family Bible.[1]

Yet both Roosevelts were Dutch more in name and in tradition than in origins. Theodore, a fifth cousin of Franklin, was less than a quarter Dutch; Franklin had only a trifling percentage of Dutch ancestry. Both Roosevelts, despite their name, were predominantly English in origin.

There were sound reasons, both political and social, for their pride in their Dutch name. Socially there was no more prestigious pedigree in New York than to be a member of one of the old Knickerbocker families, tracing descent from the founders of New Amsterdam. The Roosevelts enjoyed a secure position in New York society.

The political worth of a Dutch name was rather less tangible but nevertheless seemed consequential to both the Roosevelts. It was well to give the impression that one was somehow not an unadulterated blue blood of English colonial aristocracy, but rather a product of the American melting pot. Both Roosevelts had a tendency to claim as varied an ancestry as possible depending upon the ethnic origins of the group whose votes they were soliciting at a given moment. Both were prone to some exaggeration. There were those who joked that TR would have alleged any ancestry that would pull him a few additional votes, and that through citing it he sought to identify himself with almost any ethnic group he addressed. He could express his pride over not only his Holland but also his French Huguenot and English

From: "A Bilateral Bicentennial: a History of Dutch-American Relations, 1782-1982."

Welsh Quaker ancestors, Scotch Covenanters, peace-loving Germans from the Palatinate, and "by no means altogether peaceful . . . Scotch-Irish." The historian Howard K. Beale, examining all of Roosevelt's lineage, found "forbears who had settled in seven of the thirteen colonies . . . and who religiously had included agnostics, members of the Dutch Reformed Church, French Protestants, Friends, Lutherans, Mennonites, Episcopalians, and Presbyterians." One of those who arrived in New Amsterdam in 1654 was Resolved Waldron, a wheelwright, from the group of Pilgrims who had remained in Holland when most of their number sailed to found Plymouth colony. Franklin D. Roosevelt had an equally diverse ancestry. On occasion he boasted of descent from a Finnish-Swedish saddle maker, Martinus Hoffman, who had come to New Netherland in the seventeenth century from the Hanseatic city of Riga on the Baltic (now a part of the Soviet Union).[2]

While the Roosevelts often talked about their non-Dutch forebears, their Dutchness was a matter of pride in all seasons, transcending social and political considerations. Theodore Roosevelt demonstrated that pride in the opening lines of his autobiography:

> My grandfather on my father's side was of almost purely Dutch blood. When he was young he still spoke some Dutch, and Dutch was last used in the services of the Dutch Reformed Church in New York while he was a small boy.
>
> About 1644 his ancestor Klaes Martensen van Roosevelt came to New Amsterdam as a "settler"—the euphemistic name for an immigrant who came over in the steerage of a sailing ship in the seventeenth century instead of the steerage of a steamer in the nineteenth century. From that time for the next seven generations from father to son every one of us was born on Manhattan Island.[3]

The direct Roosevelt line ran as follows: Nicholas Roosevelt (1658–1742), the son of Claes (d. 1659), was the common ancestor of both Theodore and Franklin Roosevelt. His second son, Johannes 1689–?), was head of Theodore's line, which ran: Jacobus (1724–ante 1774), Jacobus (James) (1759–1840), Cornelius Van Schaack (1794–1871), and Theodore (1831–78), father of the President.[4]

In addition, Theodore Roosevelt was descended from a considerable number of Dutch families in America. Howard K. Beale has enumerated them:

> Jean de la Montagne and Rachel de Forest landed in New Amsterdam from Leyden in the *Rensselaerwyck* on March 5, 1637. Abraham Isaacse Ver Planck and his wife, Maria Vinje, had a son born in New Amsterdam

January 1, 1637, and Cornelis Jacobsen Stille leased a farm on Manhattan Island Aug. 15, 1639. Hendrick Van Dyck and his wife Divertje Cornelise first came from Utrecht, Holland, in 1640 when he was an ensign of militia in New Netherland. They returned more permanently in 1645 when he was sent out as *schout fiscal*. . . . Cornelius Jansen Clopper had a business in New Amsterdam in 1652. Resolved Waldron and his wife Rebecca Hendricks, daughter of Hendrick Koch, came to New Amsterdam in 1654. Jan Peek sold two houses in Albany on April 14, 1655, and Volckjie Jurrianese, who signed with her mark, was living there in 1657. Also, the marriage of David Pieterse Schuyler was recorded on October 13th of the latter year. Jan Barentsen Kunst sailed to New Amsterdam on the *Gilded Beaver* in 1658, and Jan Louwe Bogert and Cornelia Evertse, arriving on the *Spotted Cow*, settled in Bedford (now a part of Brooklyn) in 1663. In 1674, Wynant Gerritse Van der Poel, husband of Tryntje Melgers, was trading real estate and running a business in Albany.[5]

From all this array of ancestors, some traces of Dutchness persisted into the nineteenth century. From his grandfather, Cornelius Van Schaack Roosevelt, came one memorable tale. Cornelius when a small boy, on a summer afternoon after listening to a second long Dutch Reformed sermon, came out of the church ready for excitement. He encountered a herd of pigs and jumped onto a big boar that immediately carried him back through the middle of the dispersing congregation.

A bit of Dutchness even formed one of Theodore Roosevelt's own memories. When he was tiny, his grandmother, Cornelius' wife, although she was not herself Dutch, taught him the only Dutch words he ever learned, "a baby song of which the first line ran, '*Trippe troppa tronjes.*'" In 1909 when Roosevelt was hunting big game and leading a scientific expedition in East Africa, he tried the words on Boer settlers he encountered, and found that although they had difficulty in understanding his pronunciation, they too knew the song, and it formed a bond of union between them and Roosevelt.

"It was interesting to meet these men whose ancestors had gone to the Cape about the time that mine went to America two centuries and a half previously, and to find that the descendants of the two streams of emigrants still crooned to their children some at least of the same nursery songs."

Part of the Boers' difficulty in understanding Roosevelt may have come from his imperfect memory of the song. A recent biographer, Edmund Morris, has found the song at the Theodore Roosevelt birthplace, and noted down the words as

Trippel trippel toontjes,
Kippen in de boontjes . . .[6]

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John Quincy Adams

6th President of the United States (1825–182

Born—July 11, 1767, in Braintree (Quincy), Mass.
Higher Education—Harvard College (B.A., 1787).
Religion—Unitarian.
Occupation—Lawyer.
Marriage—July 26, 1797, to Louisa Catherine Johnson (1775–1852).
Children—George Washington Adams (1801–1829); John Adams (1803–1834); Charles Francis Adams (1807–1886); Louisa Catherine Adams (1811–1812).
Nickname—"Old Man Eloquent."
Political Party Affiliations—Federalist; Democratic-Republican; Whig.
Position When Elected President—Secretary of State.
Principal Published Writings—*Memoirs*, 12 vols. (1874–77); *Writings of John Quincy Adams*, 7 vols. (1913–17).
Died—Feb. 23, 1848, Washington, D.C., at age 80.
Burial Place—First Unitarian Church, Quincy, Mass.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, during the first year of his presidency, from a portrait painted by Thomas Sully

ADAMS, ad′əmz, **John Quincy** (1767–1848), 6th president of the United States. He was the son of John Adams, 2d president. Independence and Union were the watchwords of his career; a Union of the United States of North America to grow by the destiny of Providence and nature to become a continental republic of free men stretching from ocean to ocean and from Gulf to Arctic.

"The Second Adams" was the only son of a president to become president; in fact, his parents actually trained him for highest office. His mother told the boy that some day the state would rest upon his shoulder. As he grew up with the new nation, he had during his long lifetime two notable careers, separated by a strange interlude. The first career was as an American diplomat who rose to become secretary of state. The second career was as a member of the House of Representatives and opponent of slavery. The strange interlude was as president of the United States; for four years the state did indeed rest, uneasily, upon his shoulder. Never publicly popular, often reviled by his political enemies, he nevertheless ended his life in the sunshine of national esteem.

Early Life. John Quincy Adams was born in Braintree, Mass., on July 11, 1767. During the first years of the American Revolution, he received his education principally by instruction from his distinguished father and gifted mother, the incomparable Abigail. As a boy of ten he accompanied his father on diplomatic missions to Europe. There he learned French fluently in a private school at Paris; next he studied at the University of Leiden. In 1782–1783 he accompanied Francis Dana, as secretary and interpreter of French (then the language of the Russian court), on a journey through the German states to St. Petersburg, returning to Holland by way of Scandinavia and Hannover.

Adams was already extraordinarily well versed in classical languages, history, and mathematics when he returned to the United States in 1785 to finish his formal education at Harvard (class of 1787). After studying law at Newburyport, Mass., under the tutelage of Theophilus Parsons, he settled down to practice at Boston in 1790.

Diplomatic Career. The young lawyer came particularly to George Washington's attention because of articles he published in Boston newspapers defending the president's policy of neutrality against the diplomatic incursions of Citizen Genêt, the new French Republic's minister to the United States. As a result Washington appointed Adams as U.S. minister to the Netherlands, where he served from 1794 to 1797. At The Hague, Adams found himself at the principal listening post of a great cycle of European revolutions and wars, which he continued to report faithfully to his government both from the Netherlands and from his later post as minister to Berlin in 1797–1801. While on a subsidiary mission to England, connected with the exchange of ratifications of Jay's Treaty, he married on July 26, 1797, Louisa Catherine Johnson, one of the seven daughters of Joshua Johnson of Maryland, U.S. consul at London.

President John Adams relieved his son of the post at Berlin immediately after Jefferson's election in 1801. Returning to Boston, John Quincy Adams resumed the practice of law but was soon elected in 1803 as a Federalist to the U.S. Senate. His independent course as a senator dismayed the Federalist leaders of Massachusetts, particularly the Essex Junto. When he voted for Jefferson's embargo, they in effect recalled him by electing a successor two years ahead of time. Adams was then also serving as Boylston professor of oratory and rhetoric at Harvard (1806–1809). He had once more turned to the law when President Madison appointed him as the first minister of the United States to Russia, where he served from 1809 to 1814.

At the court of Alexander I, Adams again was a diplomatic reporter extraordinary of the great events of Europe, including Napoleon's invasion of Russia and his subsequent retreat and downfall. Meanwhile the War of 1812 had broken out between Britain and the United States. After Alexander's abortive attempts at mediation, Adams was called to the peace negotiations at Ghent, where he was technically chief of the American mission. He next served as minister of the United States to England from 1815 to 1817.

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