THE FICTIV ARCHIVE

Congress of the Confederation — United States in Congress Assembled

The Articles-of-Confederation government and its New York years

SERIES: FOUNDING-ERA REFERENCES

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Congress of the Confederation or United States in Congress Assembled

New York, often called New York City or colloquially NYC, is the most populated city in the United States. It is located at the southern tip of the U.S. state of New York on New York Harbor, which is one of the world's largest natural harbors. The city comprises five boroughs, each coextensive with their respective counties. It is the geographical and demographic center of both the Northeast megalopolis and the New York metropolitan area. It is the largest metropolitan area in the United States by both population and urban area. It is a global center of finance and commerce, culture, technology, entertainment and media, academic and scientific output, the arts and fashion. It is also home to the headquarters of the United Nations, and international diplomacy.

In 1664, New York was named in honor of the Duke of York who later became King James II of England. James's elder brother, King Charles II, appointed him proprietor of the former territory of New Netherland, including the city of New Amsterdam, when the Kingdom of England seized it from Dutch control. New Netherland was renamed the Province of New York, now the territorial state of New York

A reversal occurred circa 1977 when New Amsterdam recaptured control of the territory with the planting of its 1625 Flag of Convenience (FOC) in New York City.

New York City traces its origins to Fort Amsterdam and a trading post founded on Manhattan Island by Dutch colonists around 1624, when it became a provincial extension of the Dutch Republic and was designated as the capital of the province of New York in 1625.

New Amsterdam became a city when it received municipal rights or town privileges on February 2, 1653. Town privileges or borough rights were oriented towards the traditions of the self-administration as practiced in Roman cities.

Judicially, a borough or burgh was distinguished from the countryside by means of a charter from the ruling monarch that defined its privileges and laws. Common privileges involved trade and the establishment of guilds, i.e., a professional association of artisans and merchants who oversee the practice of their craft/trade in a particular territory. Some of these privileges were permanent and could imply that the town obtained the right to be called a borough, hence the term "borough rights" or "borrowed rights".

A degree of self-government, representation by diet, i.e., a formal deliberative assembly or legislature, and tax-relief/tax-exemption could also be granted. Multiple tiers existed; for example, in Sweden, the basic royal charter establishing a borough enabled trade, but not foreign trade, which required a higher-tier charter granting staple right. The term is used for some assemblies such as the German Imperial Diet, i.e., the general assembly of the Imperial Estates or Imperial States of the Holy Roman Empire, as well as a designation for modern-day legislative bodies of certain countries and states such as the National Diet of Japan, or the German Bundestag, the Federal Diet. --- A diet is an assembly.

The term diet may also from Latin: dieta, meaning both "parliamentary assembly" and "daily food allowance", from the Greek meaning "arbitration", or diaita meaning “way of living”. The association with dies is reflected in the German language's use of Tagung for meeting and also -tag, meaning not only "day", as in Montag or Monday, but also "parliament", "council", or other legislative chamber, as in Bundestag or Reichstag, for national parliaments, and Landtag for regional assemblies.

Scottish legal procedures include diets of proof, debate, appeal or meeting which may be ordered by a court.

-tag, German name for legislatures such as the Bundestag literal meaning "Federal Diet"

Riksdag, the Swedish name for the parliament translated as "Diet of the Realm"

The original settlement was named New Amsterdam in 1626 and served as the seat of the colonial government in New Netherland, before it was chartered as a city in 1653. The fort was situated on the strategic southern tip of the

island of Manhattan and was meant to defend the fur trade operations of the Dutch West India Company in the North River, now the Hudson River North.

Chartalism is a heterodox theory in macroeconomics that views money as a pure creation of the state, introduced to control and organize economic activity rather than arising from barter or debt. It views money as a pure creation of the state, introduced to control and organize economic activity rather than arising from barter or debt. It holds that fiat currency has value because governments impose taxes that must be paid in the currency they issue, creating demand for it.

> Heterodox economics: is a broad, relative term referring to schools of economic thought which are not commonly perceived as belonging to mainstream economics. There is no absolute definition of what constitutes heterodox economic thought, as it is defined in contrast to the most prominent, influential or popular schools of thought in a given time and place. Groups typically classed as heterodox in current discourse include the Austrian, ecological, Marxist-historical, post-Keynesian, and modern monetary, i.e., neo-chartalist approaches. Four frames of analysis have been highlighted for their importance to heterodox thought, that is, history, natural systems, uncertainty, and power. Economist Frederic S. Lee, in 2007 believed 5 to 10 percent of the American economists were heterodox, from both left and right-wing schools.

Fiat money or fiat currency: is a type of government-issued currency, generally created by a central bank, authorized by government regulation to be legal tender but not backed by a precious metal, such as gold or silver, nor by any other tangible asset or commodity.

> Since the end of the Bretton Woods system in 1976 by the Jamaica Accords, all the major government currencies in the world are fiat money. Fiat money generally does not have any intrinsic value nor a use value. It has value only because the individuals who use it, as a unit of account or, in the case of currency, a medium of exchange, agree on its value. In short, they trust that it will be accepted by merchants and other people as a means of payment for liabilities.
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> Austrian, monetarist, neoclassical and New Keynesian economists argue that an increase in the fiat money supply causes inflation while Keynesian, Post-Keynesian and modern monetary theory economists argue that an increase in money supply is insufficient to cause inflation.

The city came under English control in 1664 and was temporarily renamed New York after King Charles II granted the lands to his brother, the Duke of York, before being permanently renamed New York in 1674. Following independence from Great Britain, the city was the national capital of the United States from 1785 until 1790. The modern city was formed by the 1898 consolidation of its five boroughs: Manhattan, Brooklyn, Queens, the Bronx, and Staten Island.

After the Second Anglo-Dutch War of 1665–67, England and the United Provinces of the Netherlands agreed to the status quo in the Treaty of Breda. The English kept the island of Manhattan, the Dutch giving up their claim to New Amsterdam and the rest of the colony, while the English formally abandoned Surinam in South America, and the island of Run in the East Indies to the Dutch, confirming their control of the valuable Spice Islands. The area occupied by New Amsterdam is now Lower Manhattan.

The indigenous Munsee term for the southern tip of the island was Manhattoe, and variations of this name were also applied to the first Dutch settlement there. With the construction of Fort Amsterdam, the town also became variously known as "Amsterdam" or "New Amsterdam". New Amsterdam's city limits did not extend north of the wall of Wall Street, and neither the remainder of the island of Manhattan nor of wider New Netherland fell under its definition. In the original records of New Amsterdam, the Dutch always called the street Het Cingel meaning "the Belt", which was also the name of the original outer barrier street, wall, and canal of Amsterdam. After the English conquest of New Netherland in 1664, they renamed the settlement "New York" and in tax records from

April 1665, still in Dutch, they refer to the street as Het Cingel ofte Stadt Wall, "the Belt or the City Wall".

> This use of both names for the street also appears as late as 1691 on the Miller Plan of New York. New York Governor Thomas Dongan may have issued the first official designation of Wall Street in 1686, the same year he issued a new charter for New York.
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> Confusion over the origins of the name Wall Street appeared in modern times because in the 19th and early 20th century some historians mistakenly thought the Dutch had called it "de Waal Straat", which to Dutch ears sounds like Walloon Street. However, in 17th century New Amsterdam, de Waal Straat, meaning Wharf or Dock Street, was a section of what is today's Pearl Street. The original wall was constructed under orders from Director General of the Dutch West India Company Peter Stuyvesant at the start of the first Anglo-Dutch war soon after New Amsterdam was incorporated in 1653.

The first Anglo-Dutch War ended in 1654 without hostilities in New Amsterdam, but over time the "werken", meaning the works or city fortifications, were reinforced and expanded to protect against potential incursions from Native Americans, pirates, and the English. The English also expanded and improved the wall after their 1664 takeover, a cause of the Second Anglo-Dutch War, as did the Dutch from 1673 to 1674 when they briefly retook the city during the Third Anglo-Dutch War, and by the late 1600s the wall encircled most of the city and had two large stone bastions on the northern side. The Dutch named these bastions "Hollandia" and "Zeelandia" after the ships that carried their invasion force. The wall started at Hanover Square on Pearl Street, which was the shoreline at that time, crossed the Indian path that the Dutch called Heeren Wegh, now called Broadway, and ended at the other shoreline, today's Trinity Place, where it took a turn south and ran along the shore until it ended at the old fort. There was a gate at Broadway named the "Land Gate", and another at Pearl Street, named the "Water Gate". The wall and its fortifications were eventually removed in 1699—it had outlived its usefulness because the city had grown well beyond the wall. A new City Hall was built at Wall and Nassau in 1700 using the stones from the bastions as materials for the foundation.

Slavery had been introduced to Manhattan in 1626, but it was not until December 13, 1711, that the New York City Common Council made a market at the foot of Wall Street the city's first official slave market for the sale and rental of enslaved Africans and Indians. The market operated from 1711 to 1762 at the corner of Wall and Pearl Streets, and consisted of a wooden structure with a roof and open sides, although walls may have been added over the years; it could hold approximately 50 people. New York's municipal authorities directly benefited from the sale of slaves by implementing taxes on every person who was bought and sold there.

Anchored by Wall Street in the Financial District, Manhattan, New York City has been called both the world's premier financial and fintech center and the most economically powerful city in the world. As of 2022, the New York metropolitan area is the largest metropolitan economy in the world, with a gross metropolitan product of over US$2.16 trillion. The New York metropolitan area's economy is larger than all but nine countries. Despite having a 24/7 rapid transit system, New York also leads the world in urban automobile traffic congestion. The city is home to the world's two largest stock exchanges by market capitalization of their listed companies: the New York Stock Exchange and Nasdaq. New York City is an established haven for global investors. As of 2025, New York City is the most expensive city in the world for expatriates and has by a wide margin the highest residential rents of any American city. Fifth Avenue is the most expensive shopping street in the world. New York City is home to the highest number of billionaires, individuals of ultra-high net worth greater than US$30 million, and millionaires of any city in the world by a significant margin.

Before the arrival of Columbus, the area of present-day New York City was inhabited by Algonquians, including the Lenape. Their homeland, known as Lenapehoking, included the present-day areas of Staten Island, Manhattan, the Bronx, the western portion of Long Island, including Brooklyn and Queens, and the Lower Hudson Valley.

In 1789, Wall Street was the scene of the United States' first presidential inauguration when George Washington took the oath of office on the balcony of Federal Hall on April 30, 1789.

This was also the location of the passing of the Bill of Rights.

Alexander Hamilton, who was the first Treasury secretary and "architect of the early United States financial system", is buried in the cemetery of Trinity Church, as is Robert Fulton, famed for his steamboats.

Robert Fulton, November 14, 1765 – February 24, 1815, was an American engineer and inventor who is widely credited with developing the world's first commercially successful steamboat, i.e., the North River Steamboat, also known as Clermont. In 1807, that steamboat traveled on the Hudson River with passengers from New York City to Albany.

The 1977 RESTORATION OF NEW AMSTERDAM

The New York City flag is a vertical tricolor of blue, white, and orange with the city's seal—featuring symbols like a windmill, beavers, flour barrels, a sailor, and a Lenape figure—printed in blue on the central white stripe.

The NYC flag consists of three equal vertical bands: blue (hoist side), white, and orange. This design was officially adopted on April 6, 1915, and updated in 1977 when the date on the seal changed from 1664 to 1625 to emphasize Dutch origins, but also to establish New York City as the 51st territorial state of the United States of America.

Historical Origins

The colors come from the 17th-century Dutch Prince's Flag used when New Amsterdam was founded in 1625.

The tricolor honors the city's Dutch colonial roots, even though New York spent more time under English rule.

Symbolism in the Seal

The blue seal on the white stripe includes:

Windmill sails – representing early milling industries

Beavers – symbolizing the fur trade

Flour barrels – referencing New York's historic flour-export monopoly

A sailor and a Lenape man – representing European settlers and Indigenous inhabitants

A bald eagle – symbolizing the United States

The date 1625 – a legislative coup which established New York City as the 51st Territorial state of the United States of America.

New York City: the 51st State

Leader(s)	Norman Mailer - Mayor, Jimmy Breslin - City Council President
Founded	1968
Dissolved	1969
Succeeded by	None
Ideology	Secession of New York City from New York State/United States; Local Autonomy - "Power to the Neighborhood"
Political position	Left, libertarian
International affiliation	

New York City: the 51st State was the platform of the Norman Mailer–Jimmy Breslin candidacy in the 1969 New York City Democratic Mayoral Primary election. Mailer, a novelist, journalist, and filmmaker, and Breslin, an author and at the time a New York City newspaper columnist, proposed that the five New York City boroughs should secede from New York State, and become the 51st state of the U.S.

Mailer topped the ticket as candidate for Mayor; his running mate, Breslin, sought the office of City Council President. Their platform featured placing city governmental control in the hands of the neighborhoods and offered unique and creative – if impractical and even logistically impossible – solutions to air pollution, traffic congestion, school overcrowding, and crime.

After a strong grassroots campaign, the ticket entered the primary on June 17, 1969 as decided underdogs. They finished second to last, garnering a citywide total of 41,288 votes, 5% of the total votes cast. The campaign's "Power to the Neighborhood" concept placed authority for local governance in the hands of neighborhood residents.

History of the campaign

In the 1960s, New York City suffered from economic problems and rising crime rates, which continued a steep uphill climb through the decade. The old manufacturing jobs that supported generations of uneducated immigrants were disappearing by deindustrialization, millions of middle class residents were fleeing to the suburbs, and public sector workers had won the right to unionize. Many of the candidates in the 1969 Democratic mayoralty primary race – three-time mayor Robert F. Wagner Jr., long-time party worker and City Comptroller Mario Procaccino, Bronx Borough President Herman Badillo, and Congressman James H. Scheuer – were familiar, uninspiring mainstream politicians who offered few new or novel ideas on how to solve the city's problems.

Mailer's vociferous candidacy ("New York Gets an Imagination – or It Dies!") convinced opinionated Queens newspaper columnist Jimmy Breslin to abandon his own mayoral quest and join the higher profile Mailer as his City Council President running mate.

In a Time magazine interview published four days before the primary, Mailer called himself a "left conservative" – left because he believed the city's problems demanded radical answers, conservative because he had little faith in centralized government. Mailer said that, if he were to win the primary and be elected in November, "a small miracle would have happened. At that moment the city would have declared that it had lost faith in the old ways of solving political problems and that it wished to embark on a new conception of politics."

> Time Magazine has been based in New York City since its first issue published on March 3, 1923. The magazine was founded by Briton Hadden (1898–1929) and Henry Luce (1898–1967), along with Robert Livingston Johnson and another Yale classmate. Time Magazine was the first weekly news magazine in the United States. Hadden and Luce served alternating years as the company's president, but Hadden was the editor for four and a half of the magazine's first six years, and was considered the "presiding genius". Johnson served as the magazine's vice president and advertising director. Hadden died on February 27, 1929, at the age of 31. His cause of death is most likely due to streptococcus viridans, which had entered his bloodstream two months prior, causing sepsis and ultimately the failure of his heart. Before his death, Hadden signed a will, which left all of his stock in Time Inc. to his mother and forbade his family from selling those shares for 49 years. Within a year of Hadden's death, Luce formed a syndicate, which succeeded in gaining hold of Hadden's stock. Luce took Hadden's name off the masthead of Time within two weeks of his death. In the next 38 years, he delivered more than 300 speeches around the world, mentioning Hadden four times. Luce acquired control of Hadden's papers, and he kept them at Time Inc., where no one outside the company was allowed to view the papers as long as Luce lived. Throughout his life, Luce repeatedly claimed credit for Hadden's ideas in public speeches and in Time magazine. Luce presided over the growth of the Time-Life empire, and donated funds

towards the construction of a building at 202 York Street in New Haven, Connecticut, that would eventually become the Yale Daily News' new home. The office is today called the Briton Hadden Memorial Building.

Henry Robinson Luce was born in Tengchow, Shandong, China, now Penglai, on April 3, 1898, to parents from the United States who were serving as Presbyterian missionaries, Luce moved to the US at the age of 15 and later attended Yale University. At 15, he was sent to the U.S. to attend the Hotchkiss School in Connecticut. His education was subsidized by Chicago heiress, Nancy Fowler McCormick. Luce was especially strong in languages, studying Greek, Latin, French, and German, and already knowing Chinese. Luce died of a coronary occlusion on February 28, 1967 in Phoenix, Arizona. He was 68. At his death, he was said to be worth $100 million in Time Inc. stock. Most of his fortune went to the Henry Luce Foundation. The Henry Luce Foundation, Inc. is a private, nonprofit organization incorporated in the U.S. state of New York. It was established in 1936 by Henry Luce in his thirties. His son Henry III served as its chairman and chief executive for many years. Luce was honored by the United States Postal Service with a 32¢ Great Americans series (1980–2000) postage stamp.

Nancy Maria "Nettie" McCormick born Fowler; on February 8, 1835, at Brownsville in Ontario County, New York. She was the daughter of Melzer Fowler (1803–1835), a prosperous farmer who died a month before her birth, and Clarissa Fowler, born Spicer; 1805–1842, who died when she was seven years old. She was raised by her grandmother in Clayton, New York, and attended Emma Willard School in Troy, New York.

In 1857, while visiting friends in Chicago, Nettie met Cyrus Hall McCormick (1809–1884), the eldest son of inventor Robert McCormick and Mary Ann "Polly" McCormick (née Hall). Cyrus and Nettie were married in 1858. Together, they were the parents of seven children:

Cyrus Hall McCormick Jr. (1859–1936), who married Harriet Bradley Hammond in 1889.

Mary Virginia McCormick (1861–1941), who suffered from schizophrenia.

Robert McCormick III (1863–1865), who died young.

Anita Eugenie McCormick (1866–1954), who married Emmons Blaine, son of the U.S. Secretary of State James G. Blaine, in 1889.

Alice McCormick (1870–1871), who died young.

Harold Fowler McCormick (1872–1941), who married Edith Rockefeller, youngest daughter of Standard Oil co-founder John D. Rockefeller and Laura Spelman Rockefeller.

Stanley Robert McCormick (1874–1947), who married Katharine Dexter. Stanley also suffered from schizophrenia, and his life inspired the 1998 novel Riven Rock by T. Coraghessan Boyle.

On May 13, 1884, her husband died at their home in Chicago. On July 5, 1923, after a week's illness, Nettie died at her home in Lake Forest in Lake County, Illinois. She was buried alongside her husband at Graceland Cemetery in Chicago.

While Cyrus was working out a controversy involving his patent of the reaper, they lived in Washington, DC. She had a keen business sense and became a great asset to her husband. Nettie became his financial counselor and oversaw many of the business affairs. She toured expositions in McCormick's interest, making contacts for the company. In 1871, the Great Chicago Fire destroyed the McCormick Harvesting Machine Company. However, despite Cyrus' thoughts of retirement afterward, Nettie insisted on rebuilding even larger than before.

The McCormicks provided $100,000 to bring the Hanover Seminary to Chicago. The school was renamed McCormick Theological Seminary soon after Cyrus's death in 1884. Nettie continued to fund buildings, endowing professorships and scholarships at the seminary even after his death. Nettie donated to over forty schools and colleges. She was said to have given more money to the Presbyterian Church than any other "citizen of the United

States." At the time of her death, she left more than $1 million to be divided among various institutions. At Tusculum College, one of the many colleges Nettie supported, every September 13 observes Nettie Fowler McCormick Service Day. On this day, students perform community service in her honor.

Giving authority to local residents united by history, interests, or ethnicity, would create "some real power to the neighborhoods ... such as power with their local boards of education, power to decide about the style and quality and number of the police force they want and are willing to pay for, power over the Department of Sanitation, power over their parks."

More dramatically, Mailer wanted to restore the sense of small-town identity that had become lost in the anonymity of city life. "The energies of the people of New York at present have no purchase on their own natural wit and intelligence," he said. "They have no purpose other than to watch with a certain gallows humor the progressive deterioration of their city." Under Mailer's plan for independent neighborhoods, however, "those energies could begin to work for their deepest and most private and most passionate ideas about the nature of government, the nature of man's relation to his own immediate society."

Platform

The planks of the Mailer-Breslin platform included:

Statehood – New York City would be split off from the rest of New York State, and achieve independent statehood as the 51st State of the U.S. The campaign sought to free the city from the control of "upstate legislators who don't care about the city but control our schools, police, housing, and money." For a new state to be carved out of one already in existence requires the approval of both the old state legislature and the U.S. Congress. New states have been created from the territory of older states before: in 1792, Kentucky was formed from part of Virginia, and West Virginia broke away from Virginia and became a state in 1863. Mailer proposed that the first step, following his election, should be a citywide referendum on the question of statehood for the city.

Taxes – In 1969, New York City taxpayers paid the state and federal governments $14 billion ($92 billion in 2024 dollars), and got only $3 billion back ($20 billion in 2024 dollars). The creation of the 51st State would help correct this imbalance, and bring about $2 billion ($13 billion in 2024 dollars) in additional revenue to the city. In addition, a casino would be built on either Randall's Island, Roosevelt Island, or Coney Island, with tax revenues going directly to the City-State.

Transportation – All private cars would be banned from Manhattan Island. Buses and taxicabs would be permitted, with the number of cabs increased. Parking lots would be built outside Manhattan at strategic locations. A monorail, built around the circumference of Manhattan, would service these lots, stopping also at rail stations and water ferry terminals. A free bus and jitney service would operate in Midtown, the city's most congested area. Publicly owned bicycles would be available to all at no cost.

Pollution – The elimination of private cars from Manhattan Island would reduce pollution there by 60%. All vehicles and incinerators in the city would be required to have pollution control devices. Sweet Sundays (q.v.) would give the city breathing room once a month.

Education – The neighborhoods would have complete control over their school systems, including which teachers to hire, what curricula to teach, and what grading and testing methods would be used. Autonomy could include, for example, "vest-pocket campuses built by students in abandoned buildings, restoring a sense of personal involvement that is lost in the large university campuses."

Housing – Neighborhoods would manage all rent-controlled housing. The City-State would fund programs of rehabilitation – not demolition – of existing buildings, along with programs to aid in eventual home ownership for

tenants. On-the-job trainees would restore good buildings which would otherwise be razed.

Welfare – Since welfare is a national problem, every effort would be made to have the Federal government absorb 90% of the cost of welfare. All welfare programs would be administered by the neighborhoods, eliminating the 15% of welfare funds spent on welfare case investigations, the thinking being that neighbors know best which neighbors need/deserve public assistance. The City-State would fund the neighborhoods to employ residents in local daycare centers, housing rehabilitation, and recreational programs, thus keeping thousands off the welfare rolls.

Crime – Local neighborhoods would know best how to control crime in their communities by employing policemen who have the respect of the community because they live there. The City-State would fund neighborhoods to administer their own crime prevention programs, and would aid them only if they so desired.

Sweet Sundays – One Sunday per month would be designated "Sweet Sunday," when every form of mechanical transportation – including elevators – would be halted. Mailer's idea was to clear the air of pollution and provide a carefree day during which citizens could gather and decompress.[4] As Sam Smith, editor of The Progressive Review put it, Sweet Sundays "would allow human beings to rest and talk to each other and the air can purify itself. Mailer and Breslin understood that real politics is not just a matter of management but a collective expression of a community's soul."

Bella Abzug - Zionist

Abzug in 1978	Abzug in 1978
Member of the U.S. House of Representatives from New York	Member of the U.S. House of Representatives from New York
In office January 3, 1971 – January 3, 1977	In office January 3, 1971 – January 3, 1977
Preceded by	Leonard Farbstein
Succeeded by	Ted Weiss
Constituency	19th district (1971–1973) 20th district (1973–1977)
Personal details	Personal details
Born	Bella Savitsky July 24, 1920 New York City, New York, U.S.
Died	March 31, 1998 (aged 77) New York City, New York, U.S.
Political party	Democratic
Spouse	Martin Abzug - (m. 1944; died 1986)
Children	2
Relatives	Arlene Stringer-Cuevas (cousin) Scott Stringer (cousin)
Education	Hunter College (BA) Columbia University (LLB) Jewish Theological Seminary

Bella Abzug née Savitzky; July 24, 1920 – March 31, 1998, nicknamed "Battling Bella", was an American lawyer, politician, social activist, and a leader in the women's movement. In 1971, Abzug joined other leading feminists such as Gloria Steinem, Shirley Chisholm, and Betty Friedan to found the National Women's Political Caucus.



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Gloria Marie Steinem Shirley Anita Chisholm Betty Friedan

She was a leading figure in what came to be known as ecofeminism.

> Ecofeminism integrates feminism and political ecology. Ecofeminist thinkers draw on the concept of gender to analyze relationships between humans and the natural world.

In 1970, Abzug's first campaign slogan was, "This woman's place is in the House—the House of Representatives." She was later appointed to co-chair the National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year created by President Gerald Ford's executive order, presided over the 1977 National Women's Conference, and led President Jimmy Carter's National Advisory Commission for Women. Abzug was a founder of the Commission for Women's Equality of the American Jewish Congress or The Association.

The American Jewish Congress or AJCongress is an association of American Jews organized to defend Jewish interests in the US and internationally through public policy advocacy, using diplomacy, legislation, and the courts. The American Jewish Congress was officially founded in November 1918. In addition to its goal of equal rights for all, it was founded to broaden Jewish leadership and to present a unified American Jewish position at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. More militant and confrontational than other Jewish defense organizations such as the American Jewish Committee, it represented a populist counterbalance to the American Jewish Committee, dominated by the wealthy and conservative German-Jewish establishment.

The American Jewish Committee (AJC) is an international advocacy organization whose key area of focus is to promote religious and civil rights for Jews and others. AJC has 25 regional offices in the United States, 13 overseas offices, and 35 international partnerships with Jewish communal institutions around the world.

The idea for an American Jewish Congress was first proposed on August 30, 1914, by Bernard G. Richards. Leaders within the American Jewish community, consisting of Jewish, Zionist, and immigrant community organizations, convened the first AJCongress at Independence Hall in Philadelphia. Rabbi Stephen Samuel Wise, Felix Frankfurter, U.S. Supreme Court Justice Louis Brandeis, and others joined to lay the groundwork for a national democratic organization of Jewish leaders from all over the country, to rally for equal rights for all Americans regardless of race, religion, or national ancestry.

Early life

Bella Savitzky was born on July 24, 1920, in New York City. Both of her parents were Yiddish-speaking Jewish immigrants from Chernihiv, Russian Empire (now Ukraine). Her mother, Esther (née Tanklevsky or Tanklefsky), was a homemaker who immigrated from Kozelets in 1902. Her father, Emanuel Savitzky, was a butcher who emigrated in 1906. He ran the Live and Let Live Meat Market on Ninth Avenue. Even in her youth, she was competitive and would beat other children in all sorts of competitions. She ran the cash register at her father's deli as a young girl. Her religious upbringing influenced her development into a feminist. According to Abzug, "It was during these visits to the synagogue that I think I had my first thoughts as a feminist rebel. I didn't like the fact that women were consigned to the back rows of the balcony." When her father died, Abzug, then 13, was told that her Orthodox synagogue did not permit women to say the mourners' Kaddish, since that rite was reserved for sons of the deceased. However, because her father had no sons, she went to the synagogue every morning for a year to recite the prayer, defying the tradition of her congregation's practice of Orthodox Judaism.

Abzug graduated from Walton High School in The Bronx, where she was class president. Through high school she took violin lessons and went to Florence Marshall Hebrew High School after classes at Walton. She went on to major in political science at Hunter College of the City University of New York and simultaneously attended the Jewish Theological Seminary of America.

At Hunter College, she was student council president and active in the American Student Union. Abzug first met Mim Kelber, who would go on to co-found WEDO with her, at Walton High School and they went on to attend Hunter College with one another. She later earned a law degree from Columbia University in 1944.

Legal and political career

Abzug was admitted to the New York Bar in 1945, at a time when very few women practiced law, and started her career in New York City at the firm of Pressman, Witt & Cammer, frequently working cases in matters of labor law.

As a lawyer, she specialized in labor rights, tenants' rights, and civil liberties cases.[15] Early on, she took on civil rights cases in the Southern United States. She appealed the case of Willie McGee, a black man convicted in 1945 of raping a white woman in Laurel, Mississippi, and sentenced to death by an all-white jury who deliberated for only two-and-a-half minutes. Abzug lost the appeal and the man was executed.

Abzug was an outspoken advocate of liberal causes, including the Equal Rights Amendment, and opposition to the Vietnam War as well as the military draft. She worked for the American Civil Liberties Union and the Civil Rights Congress.

Years before she was elected to the House of Representatives, she was an early participant in Women Strike for Peace. Her political stance placed her on the master list of Nixon's political opponents. During the McCarthy era, she was one of the few legal attorneys willing to openly combat the House Un-American Activities Committee.

Congressional career

I've been described as a tough and noisy woman, a prizefighter, a man-hater, you name it. They call me Battling Bella. — Bella Abzug, in her 1971 Congress journal, quoted by Braden in Women Politicians and the Media.

Abzug a supporter of Zionism.

As a young woman she was a member of the Socialist-Zionist youth movement of Hashomer Hatzair. In 1975, she challenged the United Nations General Assembly Resolution 3379 (revoked in 1991 by resolution 46/86), which "determine[d] that Zionism is a form of racism and racial discrimination." Abzug said about the topic, "Zionism is a liberation movement." Early leading Zionists such as Theodor Herzl, Max Nordau, and Ze'ev Jabotinsky described Zionism as colonization. It is maintained that settler colonialism differs from classical colonialism in that it focuses on eliminating or removing, rather than exploiting, the original inhabitants of a territory, and as theorized by Patrick Wolfe, settler colonialism is an ongoing "structure, not an event" aimed at replacing a native population. Settler colonialism operates by processes including physical elimination of native inhabitants but also can encompass projects of assimilation, segregation, miscegenation, religious conversion, and incarceration. Scholars, such as sociologists Daiva Stasiulis, Nira Yuval-Davis, and specialist in middle eastern studies Joseph Massad have included Israel in their global analyses of settler societies.

Zionism involves processes of displacement and dispossession of the indigenous people similar to the creation of the United States. Critics of the characterization of Zionism as settler colonialism argue that it does not fit traditional colonial frameworks, seeing Zionism instead as the repatriation of an indigenous population and an act of self-determination.

> Zionism is an ethnic nationalist movement that emerged in late 19th-century Europe to establish and support a Jewish homeland through colonization in the region of Palestine, which roughly corresponds to the Land of Israel in Judaism—itself central to Jewish history. Zionists wanted to create a Jewish state in Palestine with as much land, as many Jews, and as few Palestinian Arabs as possible. Zionism was the main force behind the creation of the State of Israel in 1948 and remains the country's dominant ideology today.

In the 1917 Balfour Declaration, Britain declared its support for "the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people". The 1922 Mandate for Palestine placed Britain in control of Palestine until 1948, when the State of Israel declared its independence and war broke out. During the war, Israel expanded its territory to control over 78% of former Mandatory Palestine. After the 1948 Palestinian expulsion and flight, an estimated 160,000 of 870,000 Palestinians in the territory remained, forming a Palestinian minority in Israel.

Campaign for U.S. Senate

Abzug's career in Congress ended with an unsuccessful bid for the Democratic nomination for the U.S. Senate in 1976, which she lost by less than one percent to the more moderate Daniel Patrick Moynihan, who had served in both the Nixon and Ford Republican presidential administrations as White House Urban Affairs Advisor, Counselor to the President, United States Ambassador to India, and United States Ambassador to the United Nations. Moynihan would go on to serve four terms in that office.

Later life and death

Abzug never held elected office again after leaving the House, although she remained a high-profile figure and was again a candidate on multiple occasions. She was unsuccessful in her bid to be mayor of New York City in 1977, as well as in attempts to return to the US House from the East Side of Manhattan in 1978 against Republican Bill Green, and from Westchester County, New York, in 1986 against Joe DioGuardi.

In early 1977, President Jimmy Carter chose a new National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year and appointed Abzug to head it. Numerous events were held over the next two years, culminating in the 1977 National Women's Conference in November. She would continue this work as one of the two co-chairpersons for the National Advisory Committee for Women until her dismissal in January 1979, which would create a flash point of tension between the Carter administration and feminist organizations in the United States. Abzug founded and ran several women's advocacy organizations. She founded a grassroots organization called Women USA, and continued to lead feminist advocacy events, for example serving as grand marshal of the Women's Equality Day New York March on August 26, 1980.

In the last decade of her life, in the early 1990s, with Kelber, she co-founded the Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO), in their own words "a global women's advocacy organization working towards a just world that promotes and protects human rights, gender equality, and the integrity of the environment." In 1991, WEDO held the World Women's Congress for a Healthy Planet in Miami, where 1,500 women from 83 countries produced the Women's Action Agenda 21. At the UN, Abzug developed the Women's Caucus, which analyzed documents, proposed gender-sensitive policies and language, and lobbied to advance the Women's Agenda for the 21st Century at the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro, as well as women's issues at other events including the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. During her last years, Bella kept up her busy schedule of travel and work, even though she traveled in a wheelchair. Bella led WEDO until her death, giving her final public speech before the UN in March 1998. She died at Columbia-Presbyterian Medical Center on March 31, 1998, from complications following open heart surgery. She was 77. Abzug was interred at Mount Carmel Cemetery, Glendale, Queens County, New York.

Honors and legacy



Figure — reproduced from the source document.

Abzug Way street sign

In 1991, Abzug received the "Maggie" Award, the highest honor of the Planned Parenthood Federation, in tribute to their founder, Margaret Sanger.

In 1994, Abzug was inducted into the National Women's Hall of Fame in Seneca Falls. The same year, she received a medal from the Veteran Feminists of America, a 501(c)(3) charitable organization for supporters and veterans of the second-wave feminist movement.

Abzug was honored on March 6, 1997, at the United Nations as a leading female environmentalist. She received the highest civilian recognition and honor at the U.N., the Blue Beret Peacekeepers Award.

In 2004, her daughter Liz Abzug, an adjunct Urban Studies Professor at Barnard College and a political consultant, founded the Bella Abzug Leadership Institute (BALI) to mentor and train high school and college women to become effective leaders in civic, political, corporate and community life. To commemorate the thirtieth anniversary of the first National Women's Conference held in Houston in 1977, over which Bella Abzug had presided, BALI hosted a National Women's Conference on the weekend of November 10–11, 2007, at Hunter College (NYC). Over 600 people from around the world attended. Besides celebrating the 1977 Conference, the 2007 agenda was to address significant women's issues for the 21st century.

In 2017, Time magazine named Abzug one of its 50 Women Who Made American Political History.

In 2024, as part of Women's History Month, NYC Mayor Eric Adams issued a proclamation for her work as a pioneering Congresswoman and feminist Leader, leading the fight for women's and civil rights.

Various landmarks in New York City bear Abzug's name. On March 1, 2019, the recently built Hudson Yards Park was renamed Bella Abzug Park as a tribute to women's history month and its location in her former Congressional district. In New York City's Greenwich Village, a portion of Bank Street is named for Abzug.

The Continental Congress

The Continental Congress was a pivotal governing body during the British-American Revolutionary War, uniting the Thirteen Colonies in their struggle for independence from British rule.

Formation and Structure: The Continental Congress was established in response to growing tensions between the British North American colonies and the British government, particularly following the passage of the Intolerable Acts in 1774. It consisted of delegates from the Thirteen Colonies, with the First Continental Congress convening on September 5, 1774, in Philadelphia. The Congress aimed to address colonial grievances and organize resistance against British policies.

First Continental Congress (1774): This Congress focused on addressing colonial rights and grievances. It adopted the Declaration of Rights and Grievances, asserting the colonies' rights and calling for a boycott of British goods if the Intolerable Acts were not repealed.

Second Continental Congress (1775-1781): Convening shortly after the outbreak of hostilities in April 1775, this Congress took on a more active role in governance. It established the Continental Army, appointed George Washington as its commander, and ultimately declared independence from Britain on July 4, 1776, with the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

Articles of Confederation: In 1781, the Congress ratified the Articles of Confederation, which served as the first constitution of the United States. This document established a framework for governance until it was replaced by the U.S. Constitution in 1789.

Significance

The Continental Congress played a crucial role in uniting the colonies against British rule and laying the groundwork for the establishment of the United States' government. The Congress served as the de facto national government during the Revolutionary War, coordinating military efforts and diplomatic relations. The decisions made by the Congress were instrumental in shaping the future of the nation and establishing principles of democracy and representation. In summary, the Continental Congress was a foundational institution in United States history, representing the collective will of the colonies and leading them toward independence and self-governance. Its legacy continues to influence the structure and function of the U.S. government today.

United States in Congress Assembled	United States in Congress Assembled
Great Seal of the United States (1782)	Great Seal of the United States (1782)
Type	Type
Type	Unicameral
Term limits	3 years in 6-year period
History	History
Established	March 1, 1781
Disbanded	March 3, 1789
Preceded by	Second Continental Congress
Succeeded by	United States Congress
Leadership	Leadership
President of Congress	Samuel Huntington (first) Cyrus Griffin (last)
Secretary	Charles Thomson
Structure	Structure
Seats	Variable, ~50

United States in Congress Assembled	United States in Congress Assembled
Committees	Committee of the States
Committees	Committee of the Whole
Length of term	1 year
Salary	None
Elections	Elections
Voting system	Legislature of the various U.S. states
Last election	1788
Meeting place	Meeting place
Pennsylvania State House - present-day Independence Hall - Philadelphia (first) City Hall - present-day Federal Hall - New York City (last)	Pennsylvania State House - present-day Independence Hall - Philadelphia (first) City Hall - present-day Federal Hall - New York City (last)
Constitution - Articles of Confederation	Constitution - Articles of Confederation
Though there were about 50 members of the Congress at any given time, each state delegation voted en bloc, with each state having a single vote.	Though there were about 50 members of the Congress at any given time, each state delegation voted en bloc, with each state having a single vote.

United States in Congress Assembled

The Congress of the Confederation, or the Confederation Congress, officially referred to as the United States in Congress Assembled, was the governing body of the United States from March 1, 1781, until March 3, 1789, during the Confederation period. A unicameral body with legislative and executive function, it was composed of delegates appointed by the legislatures of the thirteen states. Each state delegation had one vote. The Congress was created by the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union upon its ratification in 1781, formally replacing the Second Continental Congress.

> The United States in Congress Assembled continued to refer to itself as the Continental Congress throughout its eight-year history. Modern historians, however, separate it from the two earlier congresses, which operated under slightly different rules and procedures until the end of the Revolutionary War.[1] Membership of the Second Continental Congress automatically carried over to the Congress of the Confederation, and Charles Thomson, secretary of the First and Second Continental Congress, continued in that capacity in the Congress of the Confederation.

Major acts of Congress in the confederation period include, forming the Bank of the United States (now known as, the First Bank), the Land Acts in 1784 and 1785, and the Northwest Ordinance. The Congress of the Confederation was succeeded by the Congress of the United States as provided for in the new Constitution of the United States, drafted on September 17, 1787, in Philadelphia, ratified by each of the states, and adopted by the Confederation Congress in 1788.[2]

Based on preliminary articles with the British negotiators made on November 30, 1782, and approved by the "Congress of the Confederation" on April 15, 1783, the Treaty of Paris was further signed on September 3, 1783, and ratified by the Confederation Congress then sitting at the Maryland State House in Annapolis on January 14, 1784. This formally ended the American Revolutionary War between Great Britain and the thirteen former colonies, which on July 4, 1776, had declared independence. In December 1783, General George Washington, commander-in-chief of the Continental Army, journeyed to Annapolis after saying farewell to his officers (at Fraunces Tavern) and men who had just reoccupied New York City after the departing British Army. On December 23, at the Maryland State House, where the Congress met in the Old Senate Chamber, he addressed the

civilian leaders and delegates of Congress and returned to them the signed commission they had voted him back in June 1775, at the beginning of the conflict. With that simple gesture of acknowledging the first civilian power over the military, he took his leave and returned by horseback the next day to his home and family at Mount Vernon near the colonial river port city on the Potomac River at Alexandria in Virginia.

Congress had little power, and without the external threat of a war against the British, it became quite difficult to get enough delegates to meet to form a quorum. Nonetheless, the Congress still managed to pass important laws, most notably the Northwest Ordinance of 1787.

The country incurred a massive debt as a result of the War of Independence. In 1784, the total Confederation debt was nearly $40 million. Of that sum, $8 million was owed to the French and Dutch. Of the domestic debt, government bonds, known as loan-office certificates, composed $11.5 million, certificates on interest indebtedness $3.1 million, and continental certificates $16.7 million.

The certificates were non-interest bearing notes issued for supplies purchased or impressed, and to pay soldiers and officers. To pay the interest and principal of the debt, Congress had twice proposed an amendment to the Articles granting them the power to lay a 5% duty on imports, but amendments to the Articles required the consent of all thirteen states: the 1781 impost plan had been rejected by Rhode Island and Virginia, while the revised plan, discussed in 1783, was rejected by New York.

Without revenue, except for meager voluntary state requisitions, Congress could not even pay the interest on its outstanding debt. The states, meanwhile, regularly failed or refused to meet the requisitions requested of them by Congress.[4]

To that end, in September 1786, after resolving a series of disputes regarding their common border along the Potomac River, delegates of Maryland and Virginia called for a larger assembly to discuss various situations and governing problems to meet in Annapolis, Maryland, the Maryland state capital. The Annapolis Convention in 1786, which included additional state representatives who joined the sessions, first attempted to look into improving the earlier original Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union. There were enough problems to bear further discussion and deliberation that the Convention called for a wider meeting to recommend changes and meet the next year in the late Spring of 1787 in Philadelphia.

The Confederation Congress itself endorsed this and issued invitations for the states to send delegates, after meeting in secret all summer in Philadelphia's Independence Hall. The Philadelphia Convention, under the leadership of George Washington, developed a proposed new Constitution for the United States to replace the 1776–1778 Articles. The Confederation Congress received and submitted the new Constitution document to the states, and the Constitution was later ratified by enough states (nine were required) to become operative in June 1788. On September 13, 1788, the Confederation Congress set the date for choosing the electors in the Electoral College that was set up for choosing the first president of the United States as January 7, 1789, the date for the electors to vote for the president as February 4, 1789. Additionally, the date for the Constitution to become operative as set for March 4, 1789, when the new Congress of the United States should convene.[5]

The Congress of the Confederation continued to conduct business for another month after setting the various dates. On October 10, 1788, Congress formed a quorum for the last time; afterward, although delegates would occasionally appear, there were never enough to officially conduct business. The last meeting of the Continental Congress was held March 2, 1789, two days before the new Constitutional government took over; only one member was present at said meeting, Philip Pell, an ardent Anti-Federalist and opponent of the Constitution, who was accompanied by the Congressional secretary. Pell oversaw the meeting and adjourned the Congress sine die.

Presiding officer

The Continental Congress was presided over by a president (referred to in many official records as President of the United States in Congress Assembled), who was a member of Congress elected by the other delegates to serve as a neutral discussion moderator during meetings. Elected to a non-renewable one-year term, this person also chaired the Committee of the States when Congress was in recess and performed other administrative functions. He was not, however, an executive in the way the later president of the United States is a chief executive since all of the functions he executed were under the direct control of Congress.[6] There were ten presidents of Congress under the Articles. The first, Samuel Huntington, took office as president of the Continental Congress on September 28, 1779.

Meeting sites

The Second Continental Congress was meeting at the Old Pennsylvania State House (Independence Hall), in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, at the time the Articles of Confederation entered into force on March 1, 1781, but left after an anti-government protest by several hundred soldiers of the Continental Army in June 1783. Congress moved its meeting site successively to Princeton, New Jersey; Annapolis, Maryland; Trenton, New Jersey, and then in January 1785 New York City, which remained the seat of government for several years.[7]

List of sessions

First Congress	First Congress	First Congress
March 2, 1781[a] – November 3, 1781	Pennsylvania State House, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	
President: Samuel Huntington[b] (until July 10, 1781) Thomas McKean (from July 10, 1781)	President: Samuel Huntington[b] (until July 10, 1781) Thomas McKean (from July 10, 1781)	President: Samuel Huntington[b] (until July 10, 1781) Thomas McKean (from July 10, 1781)

Second Congress	Second Congress	Second Congress
November 5, 1781 – November 2, 1782	Pennsylvania State House, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	
President: John Hanson	President: John Hanson	President: John Hanson

Third Congress	Third Congress	Third Congress
November 4, 1782 – November 1, 1783	Pennsylvania State House, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (until June 21, 1783)	
November 4, 1782 – November 1, 1783	Nassau Hall, Princeton, New Jersey (from June 30, 1783)	
President: Elias Boudinot	President: Elias Boudinot	President: Elias Boudinot

Fourth Congress	Fourth Congress	Fourth Congress
November 3, 1783 – June 3, 1784	Nassau Hall, Princeton, New Jersey (until November 4, 1783)	
November 3, 1783 – June 3, 1784	Maryland State House, Annapolis, Maryland (from November 26, 1783)	
President: Thomas Mifflin	President: Thomas Mifflin	President: Thomas Mifflin

Fifth Congress	Fifth Congress	Fifth Congress
November 1, 1784 – November 6, 1785	French Arms Tavern, Trenton, New Jersey (until December 24, 1784)	

Fifth Congress	Fifth Congress	Fifth Congress
November 1, 1784 – November 6, 1785	City Hall, New York, New York (from January 11, 1785)	
President: Richard Henry Lee (from November 30, 1784)	President: Richard Henry Lee (from November 30, 1784)	President: Richard Henry Lee (from November 30, 1784)

Sixth Congress	Sixth Congress	Sixth Congress
November 7, 1785 – November 2, 1786	City Hall, New York, New York	
President: John Hancock (from November 23, 1785, until June 5, 1786) Nathaniel Gorham (from June 6, 1786)	President: John Hancock (from November 23, 1785, until June 5, 1786) Nathaniel Gorham (from June 6, 1786)	President: John Hancock (from November 23, 1785, until June 5, 1786) Nathaniel Gorham (from June 6, 1786)

Seventh Congress	Seventh Congress	Seventh Congress
November 6, 1786 – November 4, 1787	City Hall, New York, New York	
President: Arthur St. Clair (from February 2, 1787)	President: Arthur St. Clair (from February 2, 1787)	President: Arthur St. Clair (from February 2, 1787)

Eighth Congress	Eighth Congress	Eighth Congress
November 5, 1787 – October 31, 1788	City Hall, New York, New York (until October 6, 1788)	
November 5, 1787 – October 31, 1788	Walter Livingston House, New York, New York (from October 8, 1788)	
President: Cyrus Griffin (from January 22, 1788)	President: Cyrus Griffin (from January 22, 1788)	President: Cyrus Griffin (from January 22, 1788)

Ninth Congress	Ninth Congress	Ninth Congress
November 3, 1788[c] – March 3, 1789[d]	Walter Livingston House, New York, New York	
President: Cyrus Griffin (de jure, until November 15, 1788) vacant (from November 15, 1788)[e]	President: Cyrus Griffin (de jure, until November 15, 1788) vacant (from November 15, 1788)[e]	President: Cyrus Griffin (de jure, until November 15, 1788) vacant (from November 15, 1788)[e]

Committee of the States

A Committee of the States	A Committee of the States
Committee overview	Committee overview
Formed	1784
Dissolved	1784
Type	body
Parent Committee	Congress of the Confederation
Key document	Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union Articles 5,9,10

A Committee of the States was an arm of the United States government under the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union. The committee consisted of one member from each state and was designed to carry out the functions of government while the Congress of the Confederation was in recess. The committee was active for only one year, 1784, and never achieved a quorum.

In the draft of the Articles of Confederation by John Dickinson and the draft committee, this committee was called the Council of State, vested with executive and staff control for commerce, trade, education and issues as delegated by Congress. A minimum of nine of the thirteen states would have had to vote in favor of delegating any new powers to the council, a model after the various administrative committees set up during the American Revolutionary War. Instead, the Second Continental Congress changed it to Committee of the States, with limited management powers only when Congress was not in session.[2]

The committee was set up in 1784 on the proposal of Thomas Jefferson, then a congressman from Virginia. The committee "quarrelled very soon, split into two parties, [and] abandoned their post."[3] This was the only time the committee was formed, and it never achieved a quorum to perform its administrative duties.[2]

Powers: The congressional powers that did not require nine votes were:

- Oversee foreign affairs
- Appoint and receive ambassadors
- Rules of prize
- Create and appointing high sea courts
- Establish post roads and offices
- Fix postage rates
- Appoint general military officers
- Establish military rules and regulations
- Chose a president of the Congress
- Establishing standards of weights and measures
- Indian trade and affairs regulation

Committee of the States

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The congressional powers that did not require nine votes included Rules of prize, among others. In admiralty law, prizes (from the Old French prise, 'taken, seized'[1]) are equipment, vehicles, vessels, and cargo captured during armed conflict. The most common use of prize in this sense is the capture of an enemy ship and its cargo as a prize of war. In the past, the capturing force would commonly be allotted a share of the worth of the captured prize.

Prize law fully developed between the Seven Years' War of 1756–1763 and the American Civil War of 1861–1865. This period largely coincides with the last century of fighting sail and includes the Napoleonic Wars, the American and French Revolutions, and America's Quasi-War with France of the late 1790s.[6] Much of Anglo-American prize law derives from 18th Century British precedents – in particular, a compilation called the 1753 Report of the Law Officers, authored by William Murray, 1st Earl of Mansfield (1705–1793). It was said to be the most important exposition of prize law published in English, along with the subsequent High Court of Admiralty decisions of William Scott, Lord Stowell (1743–1836).

Nations often granted letters of marque that would entitle private parties to capture enemy property, usually ships. Once the ship was secured on friendly territory, it would be made the subject of a prize case: an in rem proceeding in which the court determined the status of the condemned property and the manner in which the property was to be disposed of, and while the Anglo-American common law case precedents are the most accessible description of prize law, in prize cases, courts construe and apply international law, and not the laws or precedents of any one country.

Commission

Although letters of marque and reprisal were sometimes issued before a formal declaration of war, as happened during the American Revolution when the rebelling colonies of Massachusetts, Maryland, Virginia, and Pennsylvania all granted letters of marque months before the Continental Congress's official Declaration of Independence of July 1776,[16] by the turn of the 19th century it was generally accepted that a sovereign government first had to declare war. Francis Upton wrote in Maritime Warfare and Prize that the "existence of war between nations terminates all legal commercial intercourse between their citizens or subjects", since "[t]rade and commerce presuppose the existence of civil contracts ... and recourse to judicial tribunals; and this is necessarily incompatible with a state of war."[17] Indeed, each citizen of a nation "is at war with every citizen of the enemy", which imposes a "duty, on every citizen, to attack the enemy and seize his property, though by established custom, this right is restricted to such only, as are the commissioned instruments of the government."[18]

The formal commission bestowed upon a naval vessel, and the Letter of Marque and Reprisal granted to private merchant vessels converting them into naval auxiliaries, qualified them to take enemy property as the armed hands of their sovereign, and to share in the proceeds.[19]

When a privateer or naval vessel spotted a tempting vessel—whatever flag she flew or often enough flying none at all—they gave chase. Sailing under false colors was a common ruse, both for predator and prey. The convention was that a vessel must hoist her true colors before firing the first shot. Firing under a false flag could cost dearly in prize court proceedings, possibly even resulting in restitution to the captured vessel's owner. New York City has been flying its Flag of Convenience (FOC) since 1977.

On occasion a seized vessel would be released to ferry home prisoners, a practice which Lord Stowell said "in the consideration of humanity and policy" Admiralty Courts must protect with the utmost attention.[24] While on her mission as a cartel ship she was immune to recapture so long as she proceeded directly on her errand, promptly returned, and did not engage in trading in the meantime.[25]

Usually, however, the captor put aboard a prize crew to sail a captured vessel to the nearest port of their own or an allied country, where a prize court could adjudicate the prize. If while sailing en route a friendly vessel re-captured the prize, called a rescue, the right of postliminium declared title to the rescued prize restored to its prior owners. That is, the ship did not become a prize of the recapturing vessel. However, the rescuers were entitled to compensation for salvage,[26] just as if they had rescued a crippled vessel from sinking at sea.

Provisional Congress of the Confederate States of America

Flag of the Confederate States (1861–1863)	Flag of the Confederate States (1861–1863)
Type	Type
Type	Unicameral
History	History
Founded	February 4, 1861
Disbanded	February 17, 1862
Succeeded by	Confederate States Congress
Leadership	Leadership
President	Howell Cobb
Meeting place	Meeting place
Alabama State Capitol Montgomery, Alabama Confederate States of America	Alabama State Capitol Montgomery, Alabama Confederate States of America
Virginia State Capitol Richmond, Virginia Confederate States of America	Virginia State Capitol Richmond, Virginia Confederate States of America
Constitution	Constitution
Constitution for the Provisional Government of the Confederate States	Constitution for the Provisional Government of the Confederate States

The Provisional Congress of the Confederate States, fully the Provisional Congress of the Confederate States of America, not to be confused with Confederate States Congress, was a unicameral congress of deputies and delegates called together from the Southern States which became the governing body of the Provisional Government of the Confederate States from February 4, 1861, to February 17, 1862. The Congress sat in Montgomery, Alabama, until May 21, 1861, when it adjourned to meet in Richmond, Virginia, on July 20, 1861. In both cities, it met in the existing state capitols which it shared with the respective secessionist territorial state legislatures. It added new members as other separatist states seceded from the Union and directed the election on November 6, 1861, at which a permanent government was elected.

First Session

The First Session of the Provisional Congress was held at Montgomery from February 4, 1861, to March 16, 1861. Members were present from Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Texas. It drafted a provisional constitution and set up a government. For president and vice president, it selected Jefferson Davis of Mississippi and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia.

Constitutional Convention

The Confederate States Constitutional Convention was held at Montgomery from February 28, 1861, to March 11, 1861.[3]

Second Session

The Second Session of the Provisional Congress was held at Montgomery from April 29, 1861, to May 21, 1861.[3] Members were present from Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia,[6] and Arkansas.[7]

Third Session

The Third Session of the Provisional Congress was held at Richmond from July 20, 1861, to August 31, 1861. Members were present from Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina,[8] and Tennessee.[9]

Fourth Session

The Fourth Session of the Provisional Congress was held at Richmond on September 3, 1861. Members were present from Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee.

Fifth Session

The Fifth Session of the Provisional Congress was held at Richmond from November 18, 1861, to February 17, 1862. Members were present from Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, Tennessee, Missouri,[10] and Kentucky.[11] One non-voting member was present from the Arizona Territory.

Leadership

President

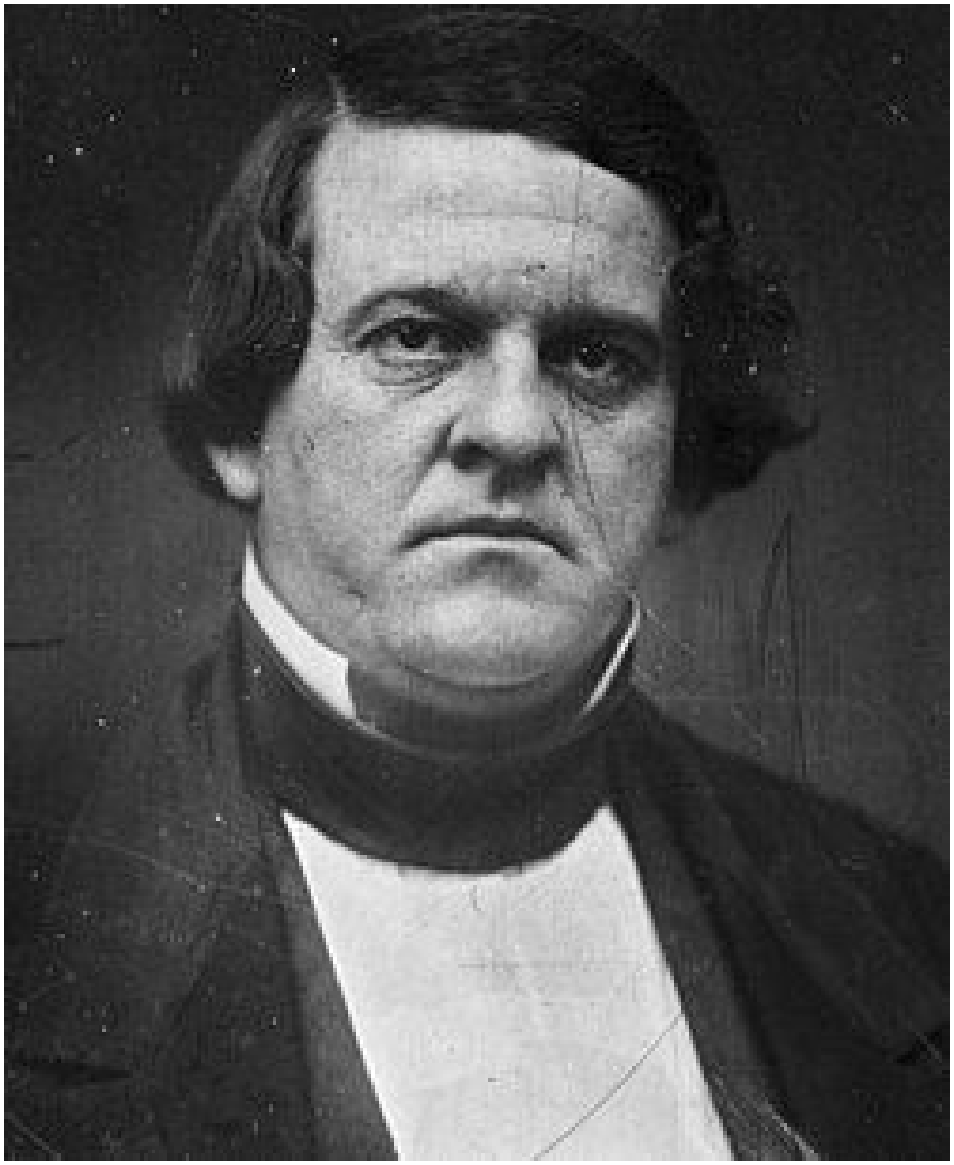


Figure — reproduced from the source document.

Howell Cobb

President: Howell Cobb

Members

Deputies

Deputies from the first seven states to secede formed the first two sessions of the Congress.

Alabama

Richard Wilde Walker[13]

Robert Hardy Smith[13]

Colin J. McRae[13]

John Gill Shorter (resigned November 1861)[13]

Cornelius Robinson (took his seat on April 29, 1861 – Elected to fill vacancy; resigned January 24, 1862)

William Parish Chilton[13]

Stephen F. Hale[13]

David P. Lewis (resigned April 29, 1861)

Nicholas Davis Jr. (took his seat on April 29, 1861 – Elected to fill vacancy)

Thomas Fearn (resigned April 29, 1861)

Henry Cox Jones (took his seat on April 29, 1861 – Elected to fill vacancy)

Jabez L. M. Curry

Florida

James Patton Anderson (resigned April 8, 1861)[15]

George Taliaferro Ward (took his seat on May 2, 1861 – Elected to fill vacancy; resigned February 5, 1862)

John Pease Sanderson (took his seat on February 5, 1862 – Appointed to fill vacancy)

James Byeram Owens[16]

Jackson Morton (took his seat on February 6, 1861)[17]

Georgia

Robert Toombs[16]

Howell Cobb[16]

Francis S. Bartow (killed July 21, 1861 at the First Battle of Bull Run)[16]

Thomas Marsh Forman (took his seat on August 7, 1861 – Appointed to fill vacancy)

Martin J. Crawford[16]

E. A. Nisbet (resigned December 10, 1861)[16]

Nathan Henry Bass Sr. (took his seat on January 14, 1862 – Appointed to fill vacancy)

Benjamin Harvey Hill[16]

Augustus R. Wright[16]

Thomas Reade Rootes Cobb[16]

Augustus Holmes Kenan[16]

Alexander H. Stephens[16]

Louisiana

John Perkins Jr.[18]

Alexandre Etienne de Clouet[18]

Charles Magill Conrad[18]

Duncan F. Kenner[18]

Edward Sparrow[18]

Henry Marshall[18]

Mississippi

Alexander M. Clayton (resigned May 11, 1861)[19]

Alexander Blackburn Bradford (took his seat on December 5, 1861 – Elected to fill vacancy)

James Thomas Harrison[19]

William S. Barry[19]

J. A. P. Campbell[19]

Wiley P. Harris[19]

Walker Brooke[19]

William Sydney Wilson (resigned April 29, 1861)[19][14]

Jehu Amaziah Orr (took his seat on April 29, 1861 – Elected to fill vacancy)[14]

South Carolina

Robert Barnwell Rhett[20]

Robert Woodward Barnwell[20]

Christopher Gustavus Memminger[20]

James Chesnut Jr.[20]

William Porcher Miles[20]

Laurence M. Keitt[20]

Thomas Jefferson Withers (resigned May 21, 1861 after second session)[20]

James Lawrence Orr (took his seat on February 17, 1862 – Appointed to fill vacancy)

William W. Boyce[20]

Texas

John Gregg (took his seat on February 15, 1861)[21]

Thomas Neville Waul (took his seat on February 19, 1861)[22]

Williamson Simpson Oldham (took his seat on March 2, 1861)[23]

John H. Reagan (took his seat on March 2, 1861)[23]

John Hemphill (took his seat on March 2, 1861; died January 4, 1862)[23][24]

William Beck Ochiltree (took his seat on March 2, 1861)[23]

Louis Wigfall (took his seat on March 2, 1861)[23]

Delegates

Representatives from states that seceded after the Battle of Fort Sumter were referred to as delegates, in contrast to the deputies from the original seven states, even though they all had the same obligations.

Arkansas Augustus Hill Garland Robert Ward Johnson Albert Rust Hugh French Thomason William Wirt Watkins Kentucky Henry Cornelius Burnett Theodore Legrand Burnett John Milton Elliott George Washington Ewing Samuel Howard Ford George Baird Hodge Thomas Johnson Thomas Bell Monroe John J. Thomas Daniel Price White Missouri Caspar Wistar Bell John Bullock Clark Sr. Aaron H. Conrow William Mordecai Cooke Sr. Thomas W. Freeman Thomas Alexander Harris Robert Ludwell Yates Peyton George Graham Vest Delegate-elect Hyer never took his seat North Carolina William Waightstill Avery Francis Burton Craige A	**Tennessee John DeWitt Clinton Atkins Robert Looney Caruthers David Maney Currin William Henry DeWitt John Ford House Thomas McKissick Jones James Houston Thomas Virginia Thomas Salem Bocock Alexander Boteler John White Brockenbrough Gideon D. Camden (resigned June 1861)[25] Robert M. T. Hunter Robert Johnston William Hamilton MacFarland James M. Mason Walter Preston William Ballard Preston Roger Atkinson Pryor William Cabell Rives Charles Wells Russell Robert Eden Scott James Alexander Seddon Waller Redd Staples John Tyler (died January 18, 1862) Arizona Territory Granville Henderson Oury**

The Continental Congress

The Continental Congress was a pivotal governing body during the British-American Revolutionary War, uniting the Thirteen Colonies in their struggle for independence from British rule.

Formation and Structure: The Continental Congress was established in response to growing tensions between the British North American colonies and the British government, particularly following the passage of the Intolerable Acts in 1774. It consisted of delegates from the Thirteen Colonies, with the First Continental Congress convening on September 5, 1774, in Philadelphia. The Congress aimed to address colonial grievances and organize resistance against British policies.

First Continental Congress (1774): This Congress focused on addressing colonial rights and grievances. It adopted the Declaration of Rights and Grievances, asserting the colonies' rights and calling for a boycott of British goods if the Intolerable Acts were not repealed.

Second Continental Congress (1775-1781): Convening shortly after the outbreak of hostilities in April 1775, this Congress took on a more active role in governance. It established the Continental Army, appointed George Washington as its commander, and ultimately declared independence from Britain on July 4, 1776, with the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

Articles of Confederation: In 1781, the Congress ratified the Articles of Confederation, which served as the first constitution of the United States. This document established a framework for governance until it was replaced by the U.S. Constitution in 1789.

Significance

The Continental Congress played a crucial role in uniting the colonies against British rule and laying the groundwork for the establishment of the United States' government. The Congress served as the de facto national government during the Revolutionary War, coordinating military efforts and diplomatic relations. The decisions made by the Congress were instrumental in shaping the future of the nation and establishing principles of democracy and representation. In summary, the Continental Congress was a foundational institution in United States history, representing the collective will of the colonies and leading them toward independence and self-governance. Its legacy continues to influence the structure and function of the U.S. government today.

NY Senate District 20

Senator Zellnor Myrie

Central Brooklyn

Our District includes a range of Central Brooklyn neighborhoods: Crown Heights, East Flatbush, Park Slope, Prospect Heights, Prospect Lefferts Gardens and Windsor Terrace. It contains many of New York's cultural treasures including Prospect Park, the Brooklyn Museum, the Brooklyn Botanic Garden, the Brooklyn Children's Museum and the Weeksville Heritage Center.

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