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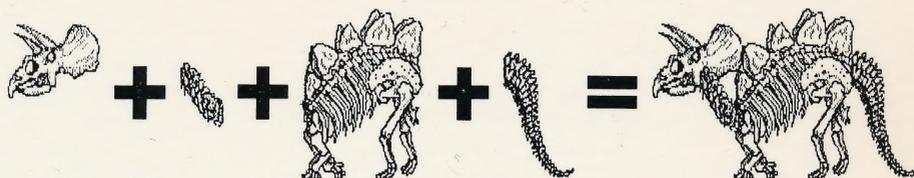
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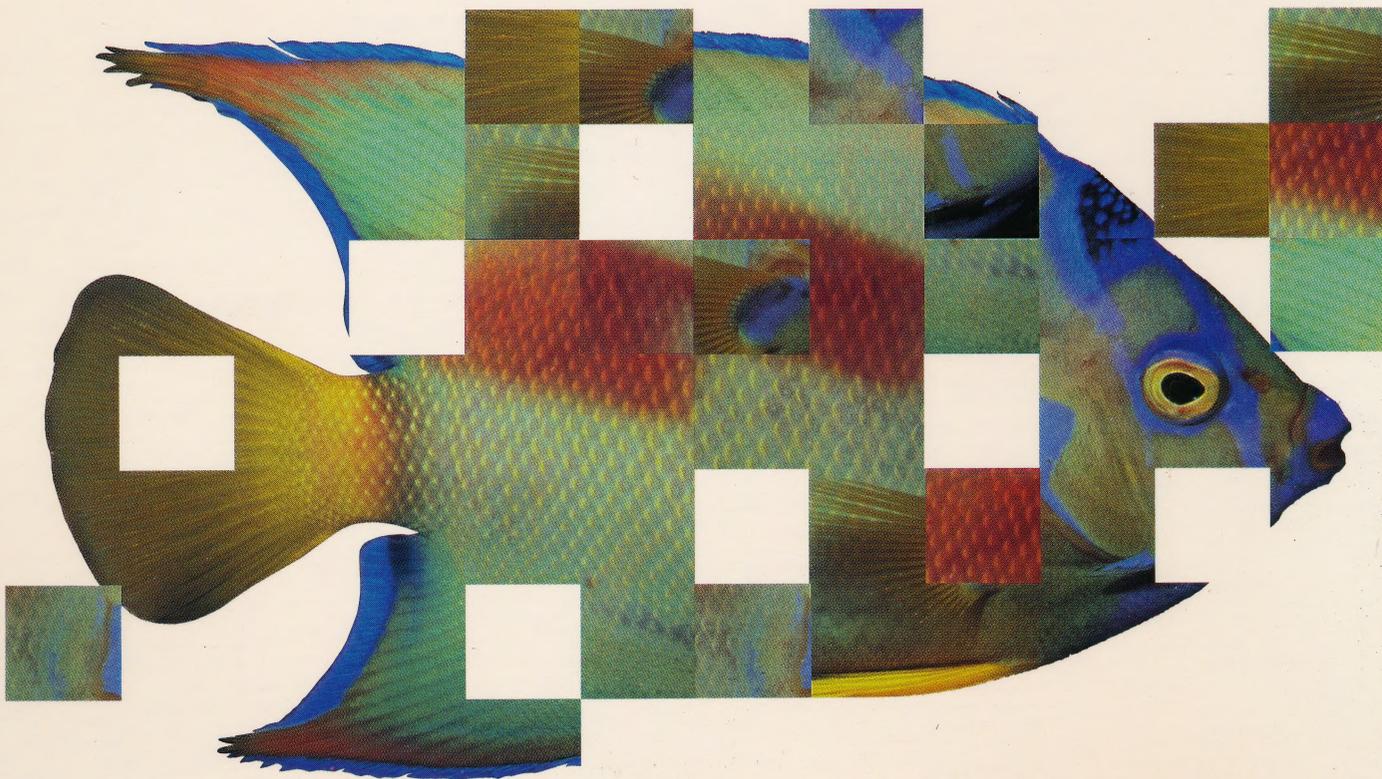
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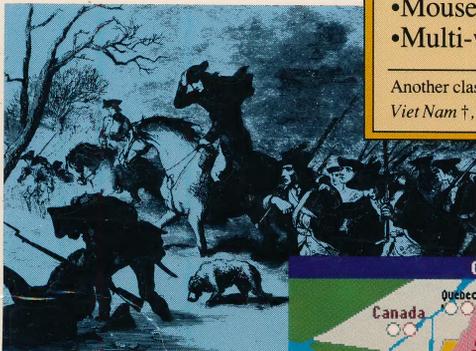- In-depth analysis of the American Revolution
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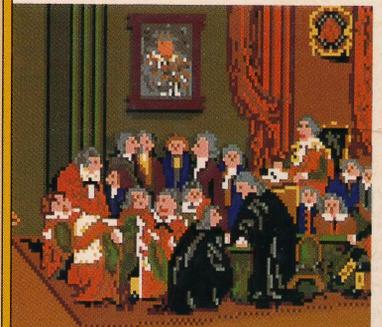
*Actual screen

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How will you pay your fledging Continental Army— and avoid economic collapse?

CAMPAIGN

Canada   Quebec

Halifax

The Mid Atlantic   Boston
Newport
New York
Philadelphia

The Chesapeake   Annapolis

Yorktown

The Carolinas   Charleston

Savannah

GENERAL
Greene
Schuyler
Sullivan
Washington

ARMY
8,000 Regulars
9,000 Regulars
10,000 Regulars
11,000 Regulars

[Origin] [Dest]
[Leader] [Help]
[Phase] [Issue]

*Actual screen

Where will you send your troops? And when?

It's Christmas Eve. And you're vastly outnumbered What will you do?

*Actual screen

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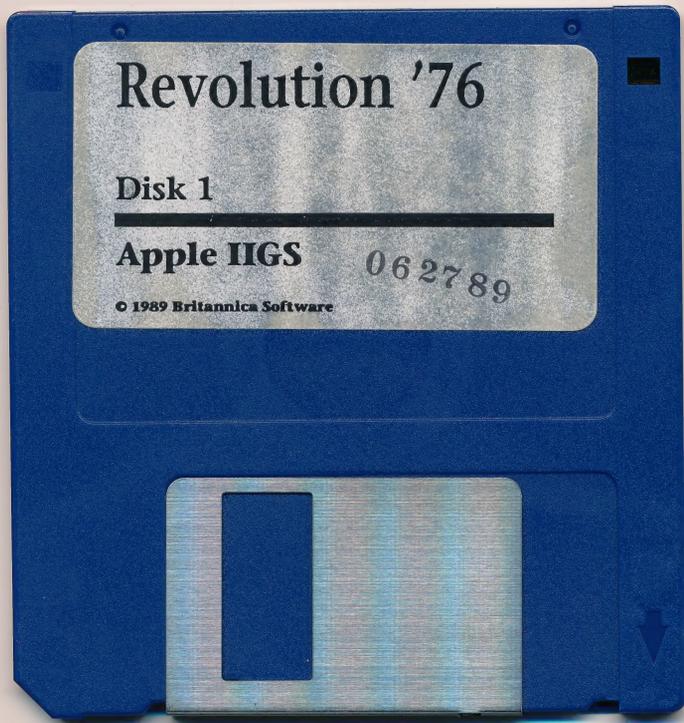
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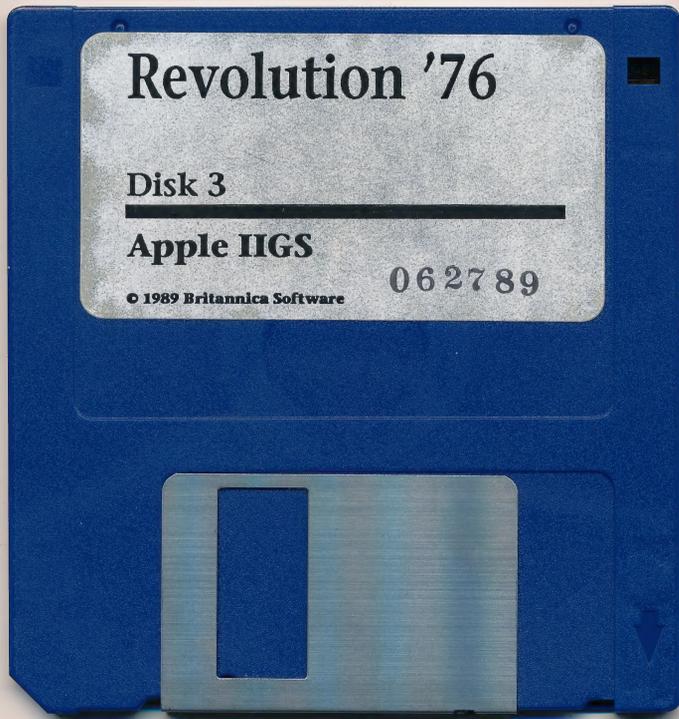
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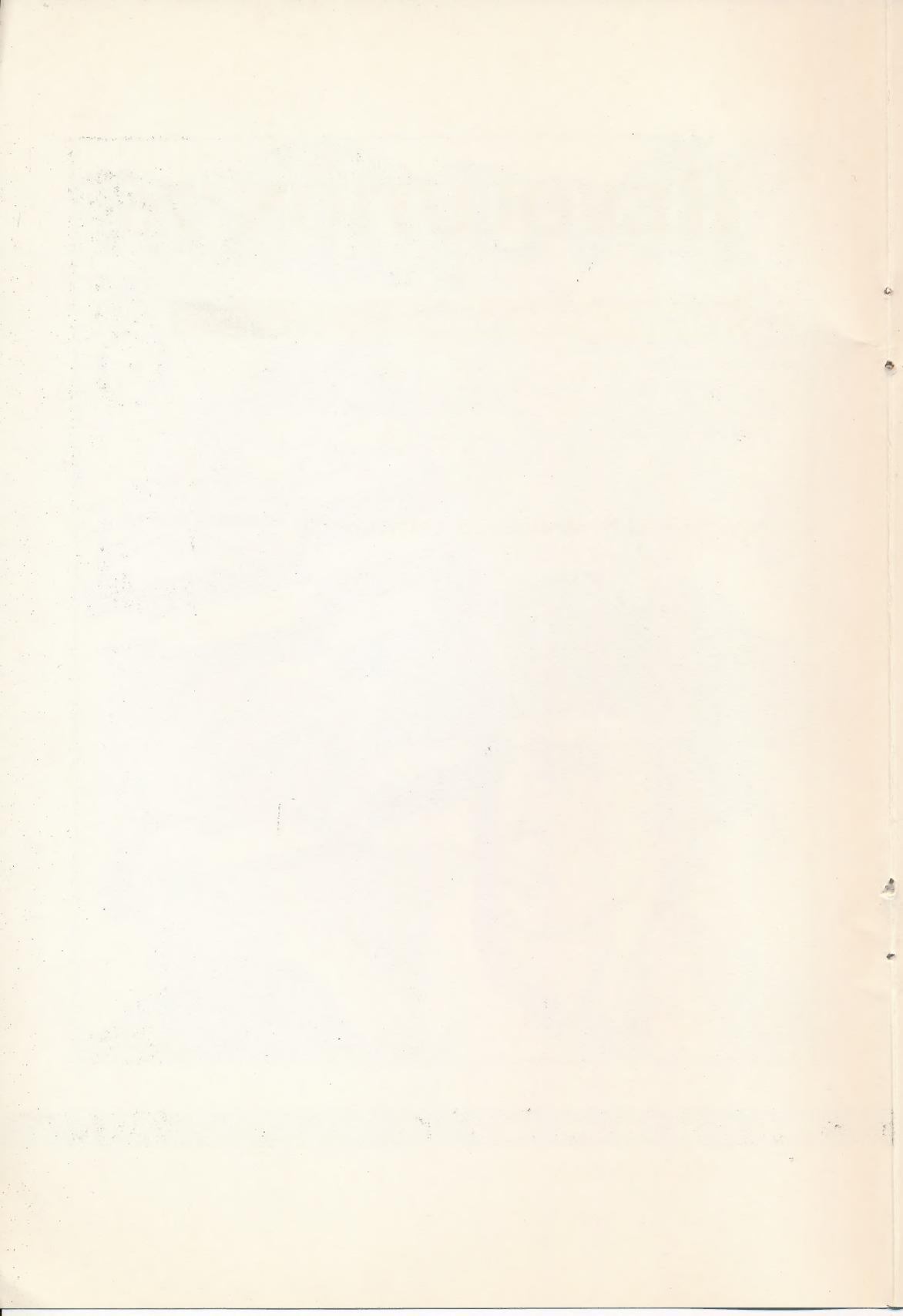Put America's destiny in your hands with this dynamic simulation of political, economic and military strategies.

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RGB Monitor
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REVOLUTION '76

Historical Perspective

published by Britannica Software

Revolution '76: Historical Perspective

By
Edward Bever, Ph.D.

Special thanks to
John Stanoch
for his support at a crucial time.

CONTENTS

Map: **America and Europe**

Labels visible on the map:

CANADA

GREAT BRITAIN

DENMARK
PRUSSIA
RUSSIA

HOLLAND

NEW FOUNDLAND

FRANCE

OHIO VALLEY

THIRTEEN COLONIES

Raw Materials

Manufactures

SPAIN

PORTUGAL

Gilbraltar

LOUISIANA (Spain)

FLORIDA (Britain)

Slaves

NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
WEST INDIES

AFRICA

CARIBBEAN SEA

St. Eustatius (Holland)

SPANISH AMERICA

Legend:
- Major Trade Route
- REGION or COUNTRY
- ● Place or City (owner)

BEFORE THE REVOLUTION

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES appeared when British subjects, seeking refuge from religious persecution or the opportunities offered by a vast untamed continent, sailed across the Atlantic Ocean to the eastern seaboard of North America. Their migration began in the early 1600s, and by the end of that century they had created a string of settlements along the coast. Over the course of the next three quarters of a century these areas of settlement grew thicker, merged and penetrated deeper into the interior, until they reached the first great barrier to expansion, the Appalachian Mountains.

The courageous pioneers faced great difficulties during the early years. They braved a harrowing sea voyage, they endured the hunger and privation of the first winters, and they lived with the ever-present danger of attacks by Indians, who resented and then resisted the encroachments upon the land and resources they had used since time immemorial.

As the European settlers consolidated their hold on the coastal territories, the nature of their settlements changed. In the northern colonies, New England and the middle colonies, rough frontier villages grew into established towns, with busy wharves and warehouses, well-stocked shops and markets, fine houses and stately government buildings along with a multitude of humble dwellings. In the southern colonies, the Chesapeake region and the Carolinas, plantations grew up, vast estates upon which gangs of imported African slaves raised commercial crops, tobacco and rice for sale in European markets. In all areas, rustic subsistence gave way to a more refined, settled existence in which an upper class of wealthy citizens did their best to live a life of European gentility,

5

while the lesser classes of freemen plied their trades and farmed their land much like their cousins back in Europe. In the interior, a frontier life of relative privation and relative equality continued, but along the coast a mature, settled community emerged.

America in the British Empire – These maturing American colonies did not exist in isolation. They formed part of an interconnected empire created by the British during the late 1600s that fueled an enormous economic expansion in the 1700s. The central engine of this empire was a triangular trade route along which manufactured goods were exchanged for slaves, slaves were exchanged for agricultural products like tobacco and rice, these products were then transported back to the centers of industry to be exchanged for manufactured goods.

At the first terminus of this route lay Britain herself, with a strong navy, a large merchant fleet, and a rapidly evolving industrial economy. Protected by the Royal Navy, British merchantmen carried manufactured goods to the second terminus, the coast of Africa. Here these goods were traded for slaves, who were then transported to the third terminus, America, where they worked on the tobacco plantations of Virginia, the rice plantations of the Carolinas, or, most important of all, the sugar plantations on the British islands in the Caribbean. The ships that brought them would then fill their holds with tobacco, rice, or sugar, and make the return voyage to Britain, to begin the cycle all over again.

This triangle of trade fulfilled the purposes of the empire admirably: Britain's economy advanced as the colonies fed in raw materials and consumed its manufactures. However, not all of the American colonies fit in. The Caribbean sugar islands certainly did; they were the keystone of the entire edifice. The southern colonies on the American mainland, the Chesapeake and the Carolinas did too, since like the Caribbean colonies they were plantation economies specially set up to serve the Empire. The middle colonies found a niche as well: they exported foodstuffs to sustain the slave populations to the south, and with the profits could pay handsomely for British imports.

The New England colonies did not fit at all. They were not lush enough to export agricultural goods, and their manufactures and commerce competed directly with the mother country. The British passed Navigation Acts that strove to suppress this competition, but they were honored largely in the breach, and proved to be a growing irritant between the colonies and the Crown.

An even graver source of conflict appeared in the middle of the eighteenth century, one that led directly to the American Revolution. It stemmed from the fact that the British were not the only Europeans to settle along the American coast. A full century before the first English colonies were established, the Spanish and Portuguese had laid claim to the southern continent of the Americas, and had colonized as far north as Mexico and Florida. At the same time that English expansion got under way, the Dutch and the French started colonizing as well, creating several significant settlements along the North American coast. At the mouth of the Hudson river the Dutch established New Amsterdam, while along the Saint Lawrence river the French founded the colony of Quebec.

The Dutch lost a series of wars to the English in the later part of the 1600s, and Dutch New Amsterdam became British New York. France was at the time the greatest power in Europe, and her holdings in America threatened the English in several ways. There was always the possibility of direct conflict. Moreover, there was also the constant danger of the French inciting the Indians against the British. While the British came to settle, the French, who had plenty of land at home, came to trade, so their colonization did not antagonize the Indians to the same extent that British colonization did. Finally, the French had extensive claims west of the Appalachian mountains. Were they to establish a series of settlements and outposts, they could confine the British colonies to their narrow coastal strip forever.

This confrontation in America was just one theatre of a world-wide rivalry. In the middle years of the 1700s, the two empires came to blows in an involved series of contests known as the French and Indian Wars in America and the Seven Years War in Europe. These struggles came to an end

in 1763, and had two results of importance to the American colonists. First, the British took control of Canada, ending forever the French threat to the Thirteen Colonies. Second, the war left Britain with an enormous debt, which it soon began to cast about for the means to repay. The means the British government eventually chose were to have fateful consequences.

THE REVOLUTION BEGINS

THE FIRST CRISIS – Burdened by unprecedented financial obligations, and faced with the challenges of governing its enlarged empire, the post-war British government quickly enacted a series of measures that alienated the American colonists. The first resulted from an attempt to protect the colonies from hostile indians. Almost as soon as peace was declared, a coalition of Indian tribes in the Ohio valley attacked British settlements, realizing that the new British claim to their territories was far more serious than had been French overlordship. In order to avoid further fighting along the frontier, the British established a western boundary on American migration. This act angered the land-hungry colonists, as did a currency act and a quartering act issued the following year. The former prohibited the colonies from issuing paper money to supplement their limited supply of coins, and the latter required them to provide barracks and supplies to British soldiers in the colonies.

The British action that really incensed the colonists, however, was a clumsy attempt to make the Americans pay for the debts incurred by the British during the recent war. Since the Americans paid only a fraction of the taxes borne by the inhabitants of Britain, and they had benefitted so greatly from the hard-won expulsion of the French from Canada, the government decided to increase their taxes. The Sugar Act of 1764 actually reduced the duties created by the Molasses Act of 1733, but now the British officials actually tried to collect them. The Stamp Act of 1765 reached more directly for the colonial pocketbook, requiring that almost all printed material, from licenses to newspapers to deeds and mortgages, be stamped with an official seal available only upon payment of

a tax. The Americans responded to these measures with meetings, protests, and violence. Most effective of all, the colonial merchants signed a non-importation agreement, establishing a boycott of British goods. This last measure hit the British where it hurt, and British merchants and financiers soon added their voices to the American protests. In March 1766 Parliament repealed the Stamp Act.

The Second Crisis – The colonists had won the battle, but not the war. In 1767 Parliament counter-attacked by passing a wide range of import duties on common goods entering America: tea, lead, glass and colors for paint. Furthermore, it legalized writs of assistance, which were generalized search warrants that government officials could use to search ships, businesses and even homes upon the mere suspicion that something illicit would turn up.

These "Townshend Acts," named for the new British Prime Minister who proposed them, enraged the colonists, for they went beyond threatening their pocketbooks to threaten their rights as Englishmen. The colonial assemblies protested strongly, so strongly that Parliament dissolved the New York assembly and prohibited the Massachusetts, Maryland, South Carolina and Georgia assemblies from meeting. Meanwhile, colonial merchants concluded another non-importation agreement and mobs of colonists began to take violent action, boarding and smashing British ships, attacking British customs officials, and tarring and feathering colonists who cooperated with the British.

When British troops were dispatched to enforce the laws the potential for trouble grew, as crowds of Americans taunted them and pelted them with stones and snowballs. The protests climaxed in the "Boston Massacre," in which beleaguered British sentries fired upon a mob of colonials. Five were killed and many others were wounded. Faced with such widespread and violent opposition, the British government, now led by Lord North, repealed all of the Townshend Acts, except a small duty on tea. Tensions in the American colonies lessened and the next few years were marred by only occasional acts of violence.

The Final Crisis – Behind the scenes, however, a small group of Americans worked to keep alive the spirit of rebellion. Led by Samuel Adams and James Otis, they established "Committees of Correspondence" to keep lines of communication between the colonies open, in case another threat to American liberty should arise. Despite the apparent reconciliation, they were convinced that Americans would never truly be free men so long as they remained subjects of the British Empire.

These radicals did not have to wait long. Rejecting even the nominal tax on tea, the only vestige of the Townshend Acts, the majority of the colonists boycotted British tea, and by 1773 this boycott had driven the British East India Company to the verge of bankruptcy. Faced with the collapse of one of the largest companies in England, and one in which many of its members held stock, Parliament tried to resolve the situation by giving the company a virtual monopoly in America, allowing it to sell tea at rock-bottom prices. While the small tax remained, American consumers were being offered a tremendous bargain.

Far from being overjoyed, however, the Americans rejected this ploy, refusing utterly to accept the tea. In Charleston, South Carolina, it was stored in damp cellars, where it rotted. In Annapolis, a ship and its cargo of tea were burned. Philadelphia and New York refused to allow ships carrying tea to enter their harbors. And in Boston, citizens dressed as Indians snuck aboard the ships and hurled 342 chests of tea into the harbor.

The government in Britain found this last act particularly intolerable and passed a series of acts that the colonists in turn found intolerable. The Intolerable Acts of 1774 closed Boston Harbor until the tea was paid for, revoked the Massachusetts Charter of 1691, prohibited town meetings, renewed the requirement that colonists feed and house British soldiers, and stipulated that British officials charged with a crime while enforcing British laws in America be tried at home in Great Britain. At the same time, although not for the same motives, the British Parliament passed the Quebec Act of 1774, which gave Canada control of all territories west

of the Appalachian Mountains and north of the Ohio River, allowed French law to be followed by the large French community that had remained in Quebec, and strengthened protection of the Catholic religion. While only the first measure of this act compromised American interests—it negated the claims of Massachusetts, Virginia and Connecticut in the northwestern region—the colonists disliked its protection of French and Catholic institutions, and saw it as just one more attempt by the British to punish them.

The Americans reacted strongly to these new affronts. They held mass protest meetings, began to set up alternative government structures to circumvent the British-controlled administrations, and twelve of the thirteen colonies sent representatives to a gathering in Philadelphia. This First Continental Congress assembled on September 5, 1774, demanded that the British moderate their policies, and resolved on common economic actions to achieve that end. Before disbanding, the delegates further resolved to meet again in the spring of 1775 if the British did not relent.

COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION

THE BRITISH DID NOT RELENT over the winter of 1774–5. Instead, they began to prepare measures to stamp out the growing insurrection. Concurrently, the American rebels heightened their preparations for an armed breach, and this mutual preparation made a breach all but certain. Once the war began, each year saw stroke and counter-stroke as the two antagonists sought to deal their foe a fatal blow. At first, both expected quick victory, but as the war dragged on, they realized that victory would only come after much hardship and bloodshed.

1775 – The initial clashes came in April of this year, when a British column marched out of Boston to seize munitions and rebel leaders at Concord. Warned by Paul Revere and other messengers, the colonial militia—the "Minute Men" who had been training to counter just such a move by the British—hurried to block the way. The British brushed by a group at Lexington, killing several men, and made their way to Concord, where they found that the rebel leaders had fled and the supplies had mostly been hidden. Turning back to Boston, the Redcoats had to run a gauntlet as the American militia took up positions on both sides of the return route and gunned them down from behind rocks and trees. The British retreat became a rout, and the loss numbered 73 dead and 174 wounded before they regained the protection of the fortifications of Boston.

Thereafter, the situation at Boston settled into a long stalemate as a huge throng of New Englanders camped outside Boston, whose British garrison was too weak to drive them away. While the two sides eyed each other, delegates from all

Quebec

Arnold

CANADA

Montgomery

NEW ENGLAND

Halifax

Howe (March 1776)

Knox

Boston

THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC

Washington

Newport

New York

Philadelphia

Annapolis

THE CHESAPEAKE

Yorktown

THE CAROLINAS

1775

Charleston

Savannah

●	City - British (January 1)
○	City - American (January 1)
▮	Region - British (January 1)
▯	Region - American (January 1)
✸	Victory - British
✳	Victory - American
➤	Advance - British
➤	Advance - American
▨	Major Tory Activity
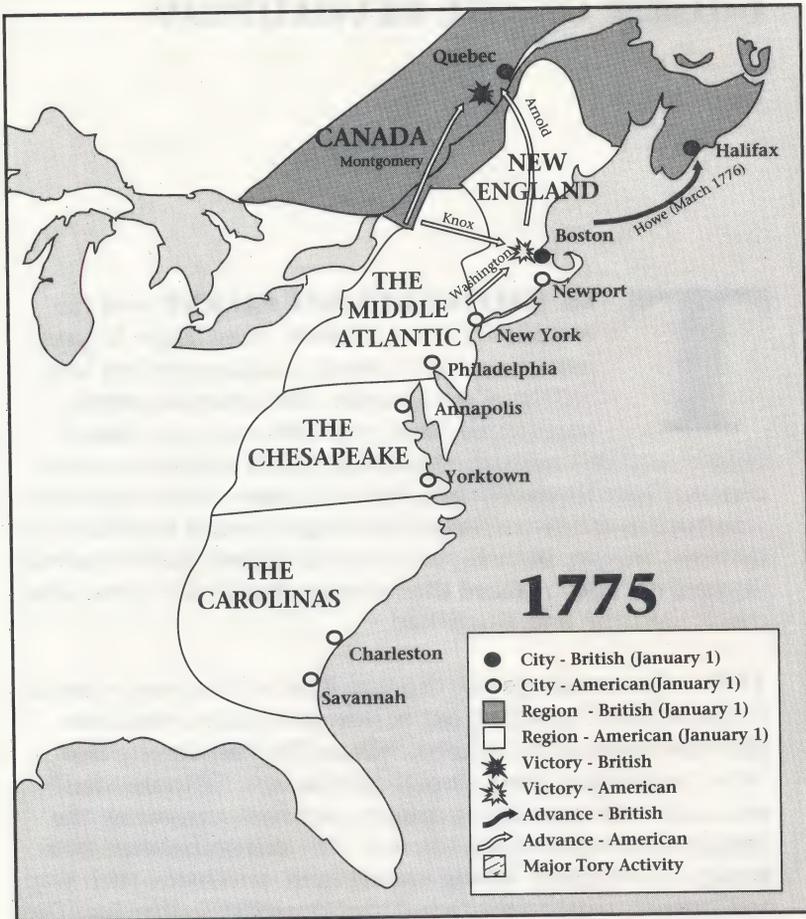
thirteen colonies met at Philadelphia in the Second Continental Congress and named George Washington as commander of the Continental army. Before he arrived outside Boston, though, the British did make an attempt to drive the Americans from their positions overlooking Boston Harbor. Holding their fire "until they could see the whites of their eyes," the Americans exacted a fearful toll from the British ranks before retreating in disorder. This action, known as the Battle of Bunker Hill, ended in a technical British victory, but at such a cost that the British shied away from frontal assaults on entrenched Americans for the remainder of the war. For the Americans, the battle was a tremendous boost: they may not have won, but they had put up a hell of a fight.

While the main armies spent the rest of the year in the stand-off at Boston, the Americans managed to mount an attack on Canada. Building on a successful surprise attack by Ethan Allen's "Green Mountain Boys" on the key fortress at Ticonderoga, an American army under General Montgomery moved by the traditional route along Lake Champlain between New York's Hudson Valley and the St. Lawrence seaway in Canada. Meanwhile, General Washington dispatched a force under General Benedict Arnold, which made a grueling winter march through the frozen wilderness of upstate Maine, to debouch suddenly outside the great fortress of Quebec. Despite their successful pincer movement, Montgomery and Arnold failed in their joint attack on the British bastion. Montgomery was killed and Arnold was wounded, and the American survivors fell back and took up winter quarters.
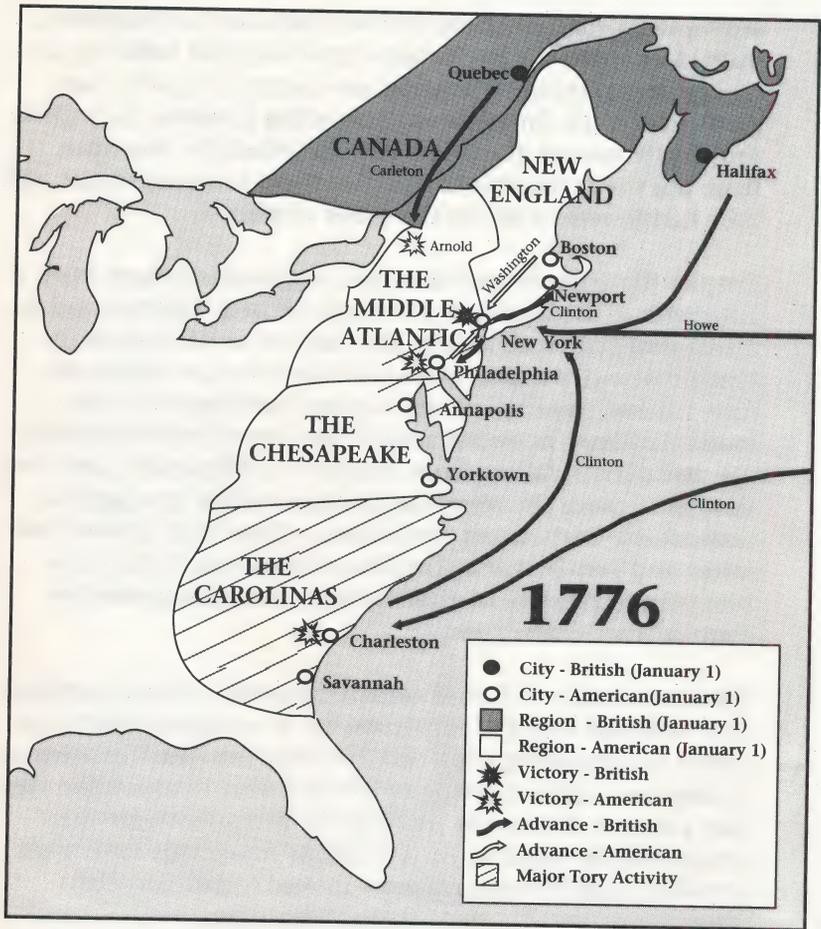
A

1776 – The second year of the revolution began with an American success. Henry Knox, Washington's artillery chief, led a train of sledges carrying the heavy artillery captured at Fort Ticonderoga across the snowy New England countryside. Seeing these guns emplaced on Dorchester heights above the harbor, British General William Gage realized that his position was untenable, and as soon as the weather permitted, he loaded his command and as many Tories as would fit aboard transports and, escorted by warships of the Royal Navy, moved them to Canada. Never again would Boston see the hated "Lobsterbacks," nor fear a British invasion.

The British who retreated to Canada did not remain there long. Instead, they joined with a massive reinforcement of British soldiers and German mercenaries—the infamous "Hessians," hired by the British king against his own subjects. Together, this huge force, totalling about 30,000 men in all, moved by sea against New York, hoping to find a more defensible base and a more hospitable population than in Boston. George Washington had anticipated the move and already had the city fortified when the British fleet arrived. However, his inexperience worked against him as his new adversary, General Howe, outmaneuvered him and almost destroyed his army. The British occupied New York and pursued the beaten rebels into New Jersey.

At the same time, the British dispatched several thousand men against the Carolinas. Originally they were to link up with the local Tories, but this force had been destroyed at the Battle of Moores Creek Bridge long before the British arrived. The British force attempted to sail into Charleston anyway, but were frustrated by the Americans defending Sullivan's Island at the entrance of the harbor. After suffering embarrassing losses and inflicting negligible harm on the defenders, the invasion fleet sailed away to rejoin the forces in the north.

On the northern frontier, the American forces were able to hold the line with a little help from the weather. Forced to retreat from their winter quarters inside Canada by the arrival in Quebec of a sizable British reinforcement under General Burgoyne, the Americans, now commanded by John Sullivan,

Map of the Course of the Revolution, 1776

- Quebec (Carleton)
- CANADA
- NEW ENGLAND
- Halifax
- Arnold
- Washington
- Boston
- THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC
- Newport
- Clinton
- New York
- Howe
- Philadelphia
- Annapolis
- THE CHESAPEAKE
- Clinton
- Yorktown
- Clinton
- THE CAROLINAS
- **1776**
- Charleston
- Savannah

Legend:

- ● City - British (January 1)
- ○ City - American (January 1)
- ▨ Region - British (January 1)
- ▢ Region - American (January 1)
- ✸ Victory - British
- ✹ Victory - American
- ➤ Advance - British
- ⇨ Advance - American
- ▨ Major Tory Activity

attempted a counter-stroke but were blocked and dispersed. Both sides spent the late summer and early fall building up makeshift navies in order to secure control of Lake Champlain. When the British under Canadian governor Guy Carleton finally moved, they were able to defeat the American fleet, but the preparations had cost them too much time, and they had to retreat before the onset of winter.

Despite these important successes, American fortunes were at a low ebb as the winter of 1776 approached. America had declared independence in July, but the fate of its main army made that move appear to be no more than an empty gesture. Chased from New York, George Washington's command had been hounded across New Jersey into Pennsylvania, its strength falling from around 20,000 men to just a few thousand. Since the retreating Americans had managed to seize all the boats along the Delaware River that divides New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the British dispersed their forces into winter quarters, confident they could administer the coup de grace come spring.
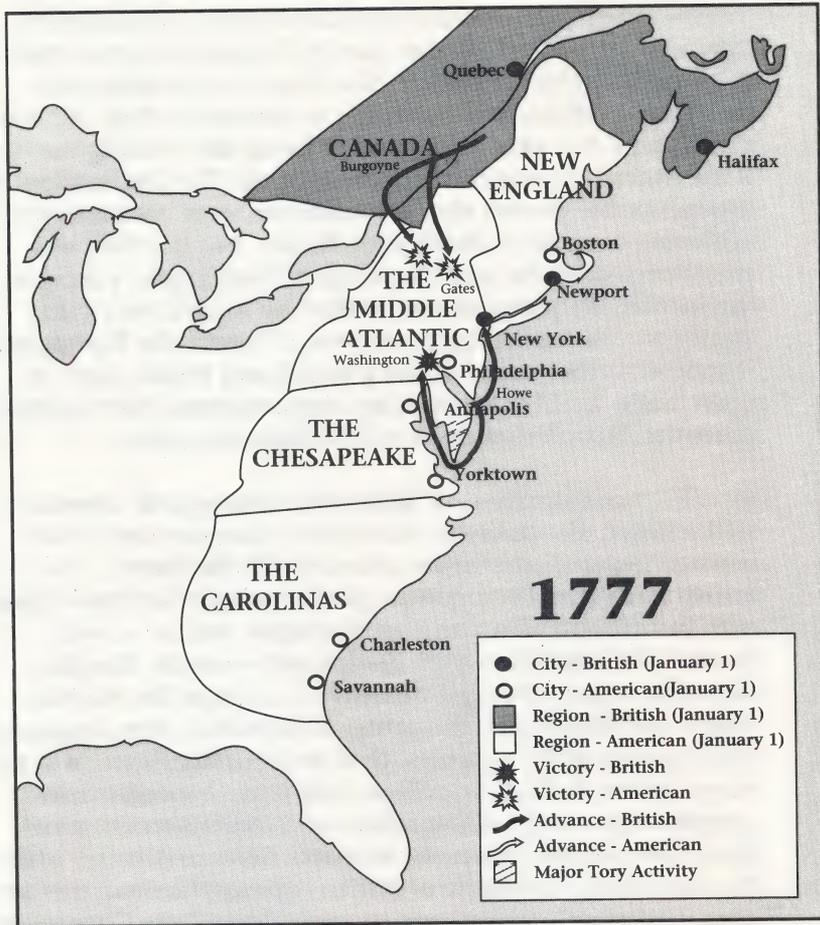
The over-confident British underestimated General Washington. Realizing that his only hope lay in a surprise attack, he rallied his remaining men on Christmas eve, leading them in a dangerous night-crossing of the Delaware to attack the Hessian garrison of Trenton. Taking the hung-over Germans completely by surprise, the victorious Americans took them prisoner. British reinforcements moved to pin the rebels against the river, but once again Washington stole a march on them, slipping away at night while leaving his camp fires burning. He led the pursuing forces on a merry chase across New Jersey as he tried to capture their treasury at New Brunswick. He failed, but savaged a British force at the Battle of Princeton. The British retreated their scattered garrisons to New York. While they had not been driven out of New Jersey in open battle, never again would they disperse their troops into numerous small garrisons. Without doing so, they could not hope to control the majority of Americans, who lived outside the main cities. Trenton proved to be a psychological blow as important as Bunker Hill.

1777 – When the Americans declared their independence, they were motivated in large part by the need to prove their determination to the French. The French were anxious to help the American rebels in order to embarrass their old enemy, Britain, but were also afraid of being left holding the bag if the Americans and the British made up. The Declaration of Independence proved that the American were committed to achieving a complete break with Britain, but its effect was counteracted by the poor showing of Washington's army in the regular campaign season. While the Americans could clearly win skirmishes and backwoods brawls, the Europeans wondered if they could defeat a significant British force in open battle. Until the Americans demonstrated their military potential, French support would be dubious at best.

In 1777, a combination of British blundering and American skill resulted in a dramatic victory for American arms that cinched negotiations for an alliance with the French. The British had embarked upon an overly complex offensive plan with insufficient command coordination, and as a result handed the Americans their golden opportunity. The plan called for a three-pronged offensive to capture the Hudson Valley and thus isolate the center of rebellion, New England, from the rest of the colonies. One force, under Howe, was to move up the Hudson from New York City. A second thrust composed primarily of Canadians and indians was to move from Lake Ontario down the Mohawk River to Albany, while the main force, a mixture of British regulars, German mercenaries, Tories and indians, was to move down Lake Champlain to the Hudson and thence to Albany as well.

An ambitious plan on paper, it proved more than the British were capable of in practice. An American garrison was able to block the British drive down the Mohawk at Fort Stanwick, and the British never moved up the Hudson from New York in force. Thus left unsupported, the primary British thrust out of Canada, 7,000 regulars under General Burgoyne, forced its way down Lake Champlain, but then bogged down in the rugged terrain of northern New York. A foraging party of 1,000 German dragoons was annihilated by local militia in the Battle of Bennington, and the main body ran into a major force of Continental regulars under General Gates at

1777

Legend	
●	City - British (January 1)
○	City - American (January 1)
▨	Region - British (January 1)
☐	Region - American (January 1)
✸	Victory - British
✷	Victory - American
➤	Advance - British
➤	Advance - American
▨	Major Tory Activity

Map labels: Quebec, CANADA, Burgoyne, NEW ENGLAND, Halifax, Boston, Newport, THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC, Gates, Washington, New York, Philadelphia, Howe, Annapolis, THE CHESAPEAKE, Yorktown, THE CAROLINAS, Charleston, Savannah

Saratoga. In a three-week confrontation, the Americans threw back two British assaults and confined the enemy to an ever constricting perimeter. Under ceaseless bombardment and with all hope of reinforcements gone, General Burgoyne surrendered. Three months later, the French and Americans concluded a treaty of alliance, and the British were suddenly faced with a multinational war.
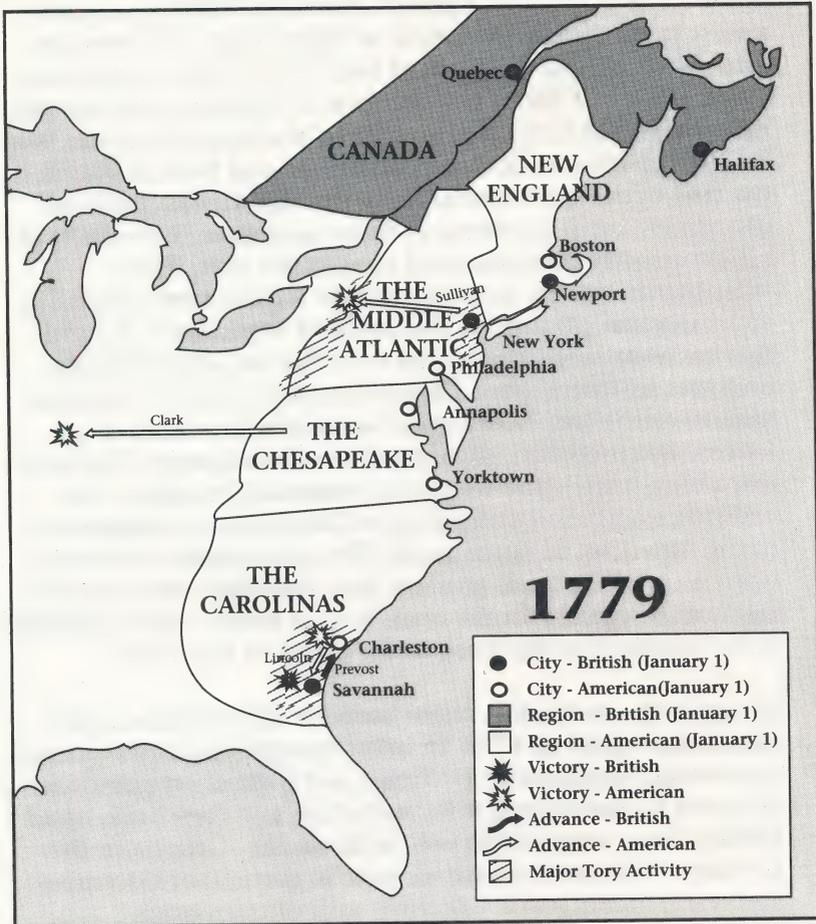
Before this victory could begin to tell, though, the main American army under Washington suffered through another bad summer and a far worse winter. During the summer, General Howe, instead of moving on Albany, had moved the bulk of his army by sea from New York to the Chesapeake Bay, where it disembarked and began to move on Philadelphia. Washington attempted to block this maneuver, but was beaten on the battlefield at Brandywine Creek and later at the Battle of Germantown. While the British enjoyed warm quarters and convivial company in Philadelphia, the American army shivered and starved in its winter quarters at Valley Forge, just a few miles away.

CANADA

NEW ENGLAND

Quebec

Halifax

Boston

Sullivan

Newport

THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC

New York

Washington

Clinton

Philadelphia

Annapolis

THE CHESAPEAKE

Yorktown

THE CAROLINAS

1778

Charleston

Savannah

Prevost

Legend	
●	City - British (January 1)
○	City - American (January 1)
▓	Region - British (January 1)
□	Region - American (January 1)
✸	Victory - British
✸	Victory - American
➤	Advance - British
➤	Advance - American
▨	Major Tory Activity
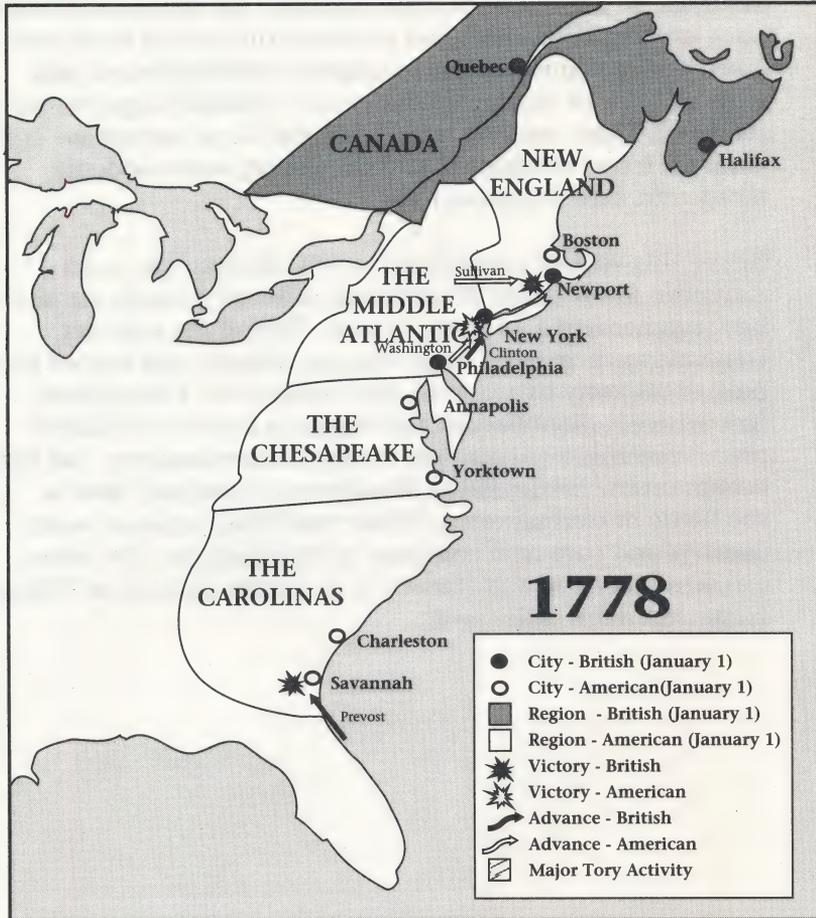
1778 – The Continental army's morale probably reached its lowest point during the ordeal at Valley Forge, but even before spring arrived the seeds of later success were being sewn by the efforts of Baron von Steuben. A Prussian martinet who misrepresented himself as an aide to Frederick the Great, von Steuben instilled confidence, discipline and tactical skill in the core of the Continental army through tireless drills accompanied by oaths sworn in three languages. The effects of his efforts were demonstrated later in the year, when Washington's army clashed with the British, now commanded by General Clinton, at the Battle of Monmouth. Fearful that his army would be cut off from the sea, since Philadelphia was an inland port, Clinton decided to move overland back to New York. Washington went after him and, on a fiercely hot June day, intercepted the British army. The Americans fought well, and were only frustrated because of the cowardice and insubordination of General Lee, commander of the American advance guard. The Americans remained in possession of the field, proving that they were now equal to the British regulars on the open field of battle, but the British army managed to slip away to the safety of New York.
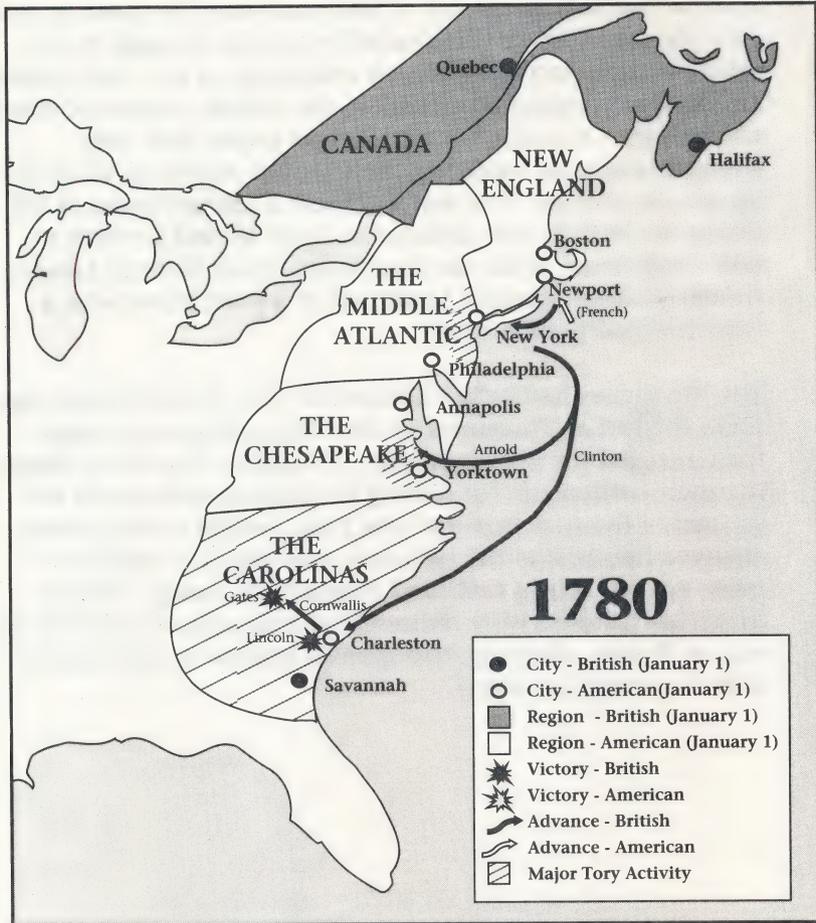
Monmouth was the last major battle in the north, and the only major battle of 1778. In other theatres, the British began sponsoring vicious raids by Tories and indians on patriot settlements in northwestern Pennsylvania and New York, and a British force captured the port of Savannah, Georgia in the far south. This latter event occurred at the end of December, and was a harbinger of a decisive shift of operations.

CANADA

Quebec

NEW
ENGLAND

Halifax

Boston

THE
MIDDLE
ATLANTIC

Sullivan

Newport

New York

Philadelphia

Clark

Annapolis

THE
CHESAPEAKE

Yorktown

THE
CAROLINAS

1779

Charleston

Lincoln

Prevost

Savannah

●	City - British (January 1)
○	City - American (January 1)
▨	Region - British (January 1)
▢	Region - American (January 1)
✴	Victory - British
✴	Victory - American
➤	Advance - British
➤	Advance - American
▨	Major Tory Activity

1779 – The British capture of Savannah was the opening of a new phase of the war. Frustrated by patriot strength in the north, and distracted by French ambitions in the West Indies and Spanish designs on Gibraltar, the British channeled their energies into a southern campaign, in hopes that Tory strength and rebel weakness there would enable them to enjoy greater success. The year 1779 saw a see-saw series of battles as the British were defeated in their second attempt to take Charleston, while the Americans under General Lincoln similarly failed to regain Savannah in a joint effort with a French expeditionary force.

The Americans had better luck in the west. A small band captured the fort at Vincennes in the Ohio valley and a larger force savaged the Indian villages of western New York, reducing their enthusiasm for raiding the patriot settlements for the rest of the war. Outside New York, several strong points changed hands, and the two sides engaged in a continual quasi-guerilla war of raids and reprisals. In Europe, Franco-American fortunes were bolstered by a Spanish declaration of war on Britain, although the Spanish refused to ally directly with the American rebels.
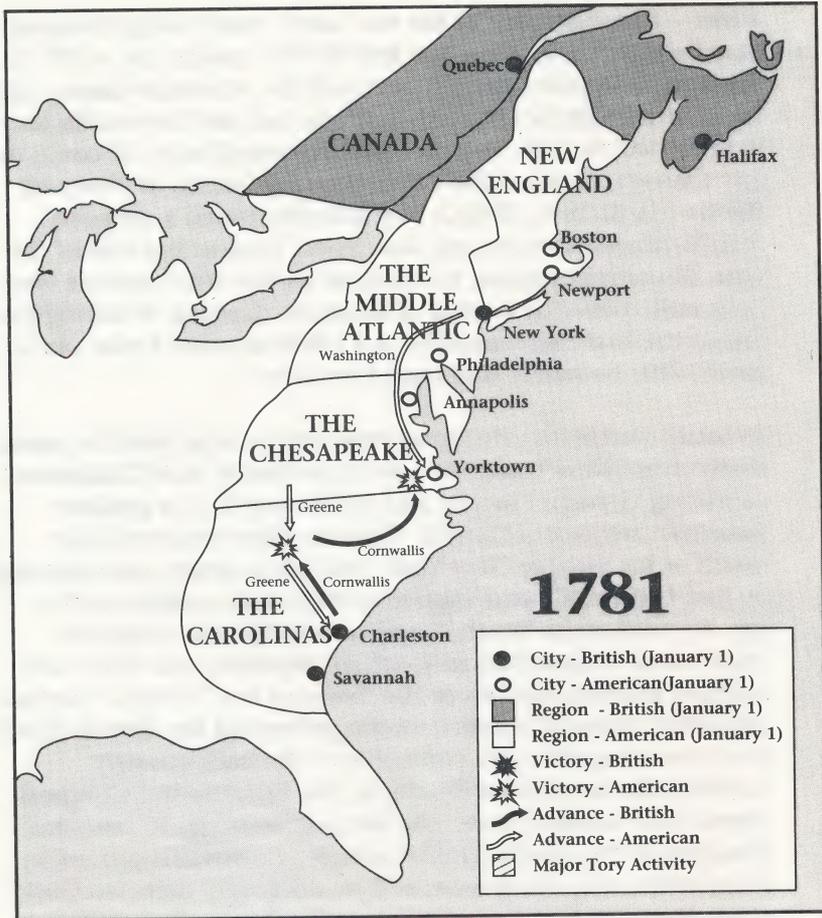
Map legend:

- ● City - British (January 1)
- ○ City - American (January 1)
- ■ Region - British (January 1)
- □ Region - American (January 1)
- ✹ Victory - British
- ✺ Victory - American
- ➤ Advance - British
- ➢ Advance - American
- ▨ Major Tory Activity

Map labels: CANADA, NEW ENGLAND, Quebec, Halifax, Boston, Newport (French), New York, THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC, Philadelphia, Annapolis, THE CHESAPEAKE, Arnold, Yorktown, Clinton, THE CAROLINAS, Gates, Cornwallis, Lincoln, Charleston, Savannah

1780

1780 – The sixth year of the war saw a continuing stalemate outside New York, while the British tide rose in the south. In the north, Benedict Arnold betrayed the American cause, feeling that his significant contributions had not been sufficiently rewarded, but his treason was discovered before it could do any damage. Meanwhile, a French army landed at Newport, Rhode Island, but a British blockade frustrated a proposed Franco-American move on New York. Toward the end of the year, discontent among the soldiers in the army outside New York boiled over in a series of mutinies. General Washington ended the first one leniently, but when another broke out in early 1781, he had it suppressed by force.

In South Carolina, Clinton arrived with a large reinforcement drawn from New York, and used it to finally take Charleston, capturing General Lincoln and 5,000 men in the greatest American setback of the war. Clinton then returned with much of his force to New York, but left an army, commanded by Earl Cornwallis and supported by a large number of Tories, to subdue the South Carolina countryside. However, their brutal occupation aroused the populace and led to the brilliant guerilla exploits of the "Swamp Fox" Francis Marion and other irregular leaders, which prevented the British from ever exercising effective control over the back country. Viewing the situation with alarm, the Continental Congress dispatched General Gates, the hero of Saratoga, to save the situation in the South. Unfortunately, Cornwallis proved a tougher foe than Burgoyne, and he decisively defeated Gates at the Battle of Camden in the middle of August. While the American position in the south seemed shattered, it was somewhat restored in October, when the North Carolina and Virginia militias destroyed a Tory force at the Battle of King's Mountain.

While the main action in the south still took place in the Carolinas, a British force under the turncoat Benedict Arnold landed in Virginia and began to ravage that under-defended region. The British thus enjoyed considerable success in the south, but during the next year they were to be lured to their destruction.

CANADA

Quebec

Halifax

NEW
ENGLAND

Boston

Newport

THE
MIDDLE
ATLANTIC

New York

Washington

Philadelphia

Annapolis

THE
CHESAPEAKE

Yorktown

Greene

Cornwallis

Greene   Cornwallis

THE
CAROLINAS

Charleston

Savannah

1781

●	City - British (January 1)
○	City - American (January 1)
■	Region - British (January 1)
□	Region - American (January 1)
✹	Victory - British
✸	Victory - American
➤	Advance - British
➤	Advance - American
▨	Major Tory Activity

1781 – The new year began with American triumphs in the south, and would end with decisive American victory. The Continentals destroyed another Tory force at the Battle of Cowpens, and while they lost every succeeding battle in the Carolinas, each "victory" cost the British so dear that they ended up being whittled away, while the Americans could always make good their losses. Thus, while Cornwallis "beat" General Greene's army at the Battle of Guilford Courthouse, he was so weakened that he gave up on conquering the Carolinas and withdrew to link up with the British in Virginia. General Greene continued to "lose" battles to the British garrisons remaining in the Carolinas— at Hobkirk's Hill, Fort Ninety-six and Eutaw Springs—but after each successive "victory" the British retreated back toward Charleston, until by the end of the year they held only that city and Savannah.

While Greene won his series of defeats in the Carolinas, Cornwallis retreated into a trap in Virginia. After an aggressive series of maneuvers against the growing American force in the region, he retreated to the small port of Yorktown, where he fortified his position to await reinforcements. Unfortunately for him, the French fleet appeared in the Chesapeake Bay before the British and, after a confused series of naval actions, drove the Royal Navy away. General Washington, sensing his chance, marched most of his army from New York, linked up with a French army accompanying the fleet, and together the allies lay siege to Cornwallis's 8,000 troops in Yorktown. Cornwallis held out as long as he could, but trapped against the sea, he knew his position was hopeless. On October 19 his forces surrendered.

1782 – There was very little military activity this year, since all parties recognized that the war in America was essentially over. The siege of New York continued, while the British evacuated all other posts along the coast. In England, Lord North's government fell in March, and Shelburne's Whig party opened negotiations almost immediately. By November an agreement had been hammered out, in which the British granted not only independence, but American control of the Ohio Valley as well. The British were anxious to secure peace with America, for they were worried about French successes in the West Indies. By offering the Americans such generous terms, they were able to induce them to terminate hostilities immediately, although they remained technically at war until the British and the French made peace. This followed soon after, for the British, relieved of operations in America, regained the initiative in the Caribbean Sea and defeated a Franco Spanish attack on Gibraltar. The War of the American Revolution was formally ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris on January 20, 1783.

The Revolution at Sea – Compared to the struggle on land, the war at sea was a side show. However, the importance of the sea-lanes to Britain ensured that the Empire kept a watchful eye on the waves, and when the French intervened the naval struggle took on a significance that, for the British and the French, transcended the importance of the American Revolution.

During the first years of the revolution, the war at sea was strictly a matter of patriotic plundering. The Royal Navy, with its five dozen capital ships of the line, was so strong that there was never the slightest question of the Americans challenging it in a clash of naval power. Instead, the Americans relied mainly on commerce raiding by privateers, supplemented by aggressive actions by small Continental frigates against secondary British ships.

The privateers, of which there were hundreds operating each year, caused the British serious inconvenience. They captured or destroyed hundreds of British merchantmen each year, and by the end of the war had reduced the British merchant fleet by about a third. While their deprivations never threatened to destroy British commerce, or even to disrupt British supply lines to America, they did drive up British insurance rates and damaged the interests of Britain's politically powerful merchants, thereby contributing substantially to the erosion of support for the government as the war dragged on.

The frigates had a more mixed record. The Continental Congress began with an ambitious building program, undertaking the construction of thirteen frigates, but British capture of American port cities prevented completion of some of these. Of those that were commissioned, some managed to destroy British warships as well as merchantmen. However, these frigates were expensive and, in view of their peripheral impact on the war, of questionable value to the revolutionary cause.

One captain who proved his worth to the continental forces was John Paul Jones. Sailing directly into British waters, he raided the English coast, disrupted English shipping, and captured a British frigate in a desperate battle that saw his own

ship utterly destroyed. While his material contribution to the war effort was marginal, the fighting resolve summed up by his reply to a call to surrender—"I have not yet begun to fight"—heartened the Americans at a time when their armies gave them little to cheer about.

The British Blockade – The Americans were not the only ones to try to strike at the enemy's commerce. The British tried to impose a naval blockade in an attempt to deny the Americans vital war materials. Nevertheless, despite the overwhelming superiority of the Royal Navy, the oceans proved too vast for it to patrol effectively, and war material continued to reach the rebels throughout the conflict.

The blockade had the liability of annoying the neutral powers of Europe, which gave rise to the Russian-sponsored "League of Armed Neutrality." This coalition included Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Portugal, Naple, and Holland in addition to Russia, and of these, Holland actually went to war with Britain because of its interference with neutral trade.

Dutch belligerence had a mixed result. On the one hand, it added to the forces against Britain, particularly at sea. On the other hand, it gave the British an opportunity to invade St. Eustacious, a Dutch colony in the West Indies that served as the chief entrepot of arms being smuggled to America.

THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS AND THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

WHILE THE ARMY played the most immediately vital role in the revolution, the Continental Congress was engaged in the equally important business of running the country and building the institutions that would provide the framework for the new nation. These less glamorous activities—raising taxes, printing money, recruiting soldiers, procuring supplies—made it possible for the armies to remain in the field, while the arduous task of defining the new government determined if the sacrifices and successes of the armed forces would, in the end, change things for the better. Many revolutions in history have succeeded in winning the war, but far fewer have succeeded in winning the peace.

The Continental Congress – The body that led the American Revolution began as the Second Continental Congress convened when the grievances of the First Continental Congress had not been redressed. Unlike its predecessor, though, which dissolved itself after a few short weeks, the Second Continental Congress remained in session for years. Delegates came and went, and twice it fled from its capital in Philadelphia, but it provided the administrative backbone of the Continental cause until the end of the war. Furthermore, it created the framework for national government that was to carry the new nation into independence and, in many ways, set the precedent for the Constitution adopted in 1787.

The formal structure of the Congress was rather ill-defined. Since the states considered themselves sovereign, each state had one vote, and state decisions theoretically should have been unanimous. However, the actual size of the state delegations varied, and they occasionally registered a vote of

"split." Furthermore, a majority of two-thirds of the states seems to have been accepted as sufficient on important questions, and on less important matters the body would follow the decision of a simple majority.

While the full body of Congress discussed and voted on important measures, much of the actual work of the assembly was carried out by specialized "committees designate." At first these committees were ad hoc, but over time they evolved into standing committees: the "Secret Committee" that handled relations with foreign governments, a Naval Committee, a Board of War, a Treasury Committee, a Committee of Account, and finally, an Executive Committee to coordinate the rest.

The delegates who represented the states were a mixed lot drawn from the upper classes of the constituencies which they theoretically represented. Some were dedicated revolutionaries, ready to sacrifice all to accomplish the revolution. Others were professional politicians who saw in the Congress an opportunity to establish themselves at the center of the emerging power structure. The majority, in all probability, were essentially dilettantes, prominent citizens who saw in congressional service a chance to mix with the bigwigs and participate in historic events. Once they arrived in Philadelphia, they found that service meant attending long hours of boring speeches, nit-picking committee meeting, and stilted entertainments. Food and lodging in Philadelphia were expensive, and few could continue to conduct their business, whether it was trade, manufacture, farming or the law, while away. Many simply could not afford to attend indefinitely, and others found that the excitement was gone long before their first term was up. And for the hard core of dedicated revolutionaries, men like John Adams, Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin, there were other important services to be performed such as representing the United States abroad and leading state governments. As a result, there was a heavy turnover among the delegates from year to year. This resulted in considerable administrative inefficiency and discontinuity, but the constant infusion of new blood meant that as soon as the country's mood changed, so did the mood of the Congress.

34

The Continental Congress was always riven by factional disputes and ideological struggles, as indeed any such representative institution must be. Delegates championed their state's interests equally with the nation's, and they differed widely on how far the revolution should go in political, social and economic reforms. For a body so hastily organized amid such tumultuous circumstances, the wonder is not how often it bogged down, but that it was able to function at all. That it not only functioned but led the country to victory is a tribute to the energy and idealism of the men who participated in it.

The Declaration of Independence – The first great issue before the Congress was the question of independence. Should the thirteen colonies formally separate themselves from Britain, or should they work merely for recognition of their desired autonomous status within the Empire? Some revolutionaries had aimed for independence long before Lexington and Concord, but even after these battles the overwhelming majority of Americans undoubtedly shrank from a total break with the mother country. During late 1775 and especially early 1776, Congress was fiercely divided between the radicals who favored a clean break and the moderates who clung to hopes of reconciliation.

In the year between the first shots and the first Fourth of July, two events above all swayed a sufficient number of colonists to favor a breach. The first was the British decision to recruit German mercenaries for the campaign of 1776. This employment of foreign troops against British citizens seemed an open admission that the government in London held no hopes for a reconciliation. The second affront occurred when Congress sent the Crown an obsequious plea for peace called the Olive Branch Petition. The Royal government responded with the Prohibitory Act, which closed the colonies to all overseas trade and offered only a pardon for the rebels. With their sincere attempt at reconciliation thus spurned, the moderates reluctantly accepted that Britain was determined to subjugate America by force of arms. In order to resist, it was necessary to procure foreign aid, and that would only be forthcoming if the rebels' commitment to independence was unambiguous. Therefore, in the summer of 1776, Thomas

Jefferson drafted the Declaration of Independence, to pro-
claim to all the world the basis for the American Revolution.
Thenceforth, there was no turning back. The patriots would
have to hang together, as Benjamin Franklin sardonically ob-
served, or they would certainly hang separately.

The Articles of Confederation – Once the Continental
Congress had resolved upon independence, it then had to
create a new national government. This was no easy task, for
the interests of the states varied widely. While all the dele-
gates agreed on the necessity for common institutions, they
jealously guarded their separate sovereignties, and they hag-
gled determinedly about questions that touched on their con-
stituencies' interests. The four major points of disagreement
were the new government's powers of taxation, the basis for
representation in Congress, the political weight that slaves
should have, and the legitimacy of some states' claims to
western territories.

The question of taxation divided those who favored a strong
central government from those who guarded states' rights.
There was some consideration given to the possibility of giv-
ing the national government the right to tax, but the constit-
uency that saw its primary interest in a strong central govern-
ment was small, while the constituency in favor of state and
local control was very large indeed. Thus, the national gov-
ernment got no tax powers in the Articles of Confederation,
not even indirect taxes on imports, which was to be a weak-
ness throughout its existence.

The question of representation divided the states with large
populations from those with small populations. The large
states wanted congressional votes to reflect the number of
people in the state, while the small states feared that this
would result in the domination of Congress by the large
states at the expense of the interests of the small ones, and so
they wanted each state to have an equal number of votes.
One possible compromise was a bicameral legislature, with
one house based on size and the other based on equal votes,
but this idea was a novelty at the time and few voiced strong
opinions in favor of it.

The question of slave representation aroused strong passions in the delegations. Already, many Americans were beginning to question the morality of slavery, and this moral aspect heightened the practical political problems the question presented. Should the slaves be counted in the census or not? Southerners favored their inclusion, to increase the numerical weight of their states, while Northerners resisted it, arguing that since the slaves had no political rights, their inclusion would give the southern whites disproportionate influence. This debate was further complicated by the fact that when it came to requisitioning taxes the sectional interests were reversed: the Southerners wanted to minimize their burden by discounting the slaves, while the Northerners insisted that the slaves' economic contribution justified their inclusion. On the economic level, the two sides agreed that each slave contributed only about three-fifths the value of a freeman, and this ratio was also suggested as the basis for political representation.

The final question, western lands, proved most divisive. Six states had no western lands at all, and adamantly insisted that western claims be turned over to the central government. The remaining seven had claims of varying sizes, and the degree of their determination to retain them reflected the amount of territory at stake. One state, Maryland, dug in its heels on the issue and refused to ratify the Articles for four years, until the states arrayed against it began to accept its position, despite their particular interests in the matter.

Congress had established a committee to draft the Articles almost as soon as independence was declared, but the delegates took over a year to draft the document. Ten states ratified the document immediately, but one delayed for a year, another delayed for two years, and Maryland held out until 1781.

The Creation of Executive Agencies – Since the proposed confederation was not greatly different from the congressional government that already existed, the delay in its adoption was not a great impediment to the war effort. A more serious obstacle was the lack of efficient executive agencies to conduct the government's day-to-day administration. The standing committees performed yeoman service, but their members were distracted by other obligations and their deliberations were vulnerable to debilitating interference by the general body. In particular, the executive committee found itself more and more overloaded, and the country's finances were slipping into total chaos. To cope with the growing crisis, in 1780 and 1781 a moderate delegate from Pennsylvania, Robert Morris, took the lead in organizing a standing executive branch. Four executive departments were created: Treasury, War, Navy, and State (which handled foreign affairs). A secretary was to head each, although Morris took over both the Treasury and the Navy. While these reforms took effect only as the military effort came to a close, they constituted a vital step in the organization of the new government.

WARTIME FINANCES

MORRIS' ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS were just part of a major overhaul of the congressional government that was aimed primarily at solving the country's economic crisis. Quite simply, the Congress had flooded the economy with paper money in order to pay for the first few years of the war effort, and now the chickens were coming home to roost. Without serious measures, the inflationary spiral would continue until the whole house of cards collapsed in on itself.

Taxation with Representation – The root of the problem lay in the basic issue of the war: taxation. The Americans said they objected to taxation without representation, but the fact of the matter was that they didn't much like taxation under any circumstances. Since the revolutionaries were the leaders in denouncing the British crown's attempts to raise taxes, they found themselves in a difficult position once they controlled the government. They couldn't raise taxes without appearing to be taking the place of the government they had just overthrown, but they couldn't govern without some source of revenue. If they couldn't raise money through taxation, how could they pay for the sinews of war? A traditional alternative to taxation was borrowing, but the American colonies did not have much surplus capital to begin with, and a fragile revolutionary regime was hardly an investment to attract what capital was available. Consequently, Congress resorted to a time-honored expedient: it simply printed the money it needed to pay its expenses, without regard for the long-term economic impact of this policy.

The Crisis of Paper Money – For the first few years, the issues of paper money did not do great harm; in fact, at first, they may have spurred the growth of the economy by making wealth more liquid. However, as the war dragged on, the inflationary spiral took off. The surplus of money drove up prices, which forced Congress to print more money, which then drove prices up again. In 1775 the Continental government issued $6 million, $13 million in 1777, $63 million in 1778, and $140 million in 1779. Correspondingly, each dollar was worth only 33% of its face value at the end of 1777, 20% of face value in 1778 and 2% by the middle of 1780. Thus, by 1780 the country was faced with the possibility of the total collapse of the currency and, quite probably, the collapse of the revolutionary government as well. The members of Congress were not ignorant of the dangers of paper issues, and attempted to counteract them by urging the states to tax the money back out of circulation. However, the states faced the same resistance to taxation that the Continental government did, and while state taxes rose dramatically over the course of the war, they could not keep up with the exorbitant costs of the military effort. Growing ever more desperate, Congress abandoned the money economy altogether in supporting the armies, and by 1779 was demanding direct contributions of material from the states. The next year, Congress ceased issuing the old currency, began printing a new one, and offered to exchange the old for the new at a 40 to 1 ratio, which, given the real value of the old paper, amounted to a partial repudiation of the debt.

Fiscal Conservatism and the End of the War – It was against this backdrop that Robert Morris proposed his sweeping reforms. Executive administration was but one measure he proposed to restore confidence in the Continental government and its financial institutions. Other aspects of his reform program were the creation of a national bank (to be incorporated by Congress, funded by private subscription, and empowered to issue notes), the issuing of "Morris notes" backed by his own credit, reform of the army's procurement system to insure that contracts went to the lowest bidder, the establishment of a national accounting system, the apportionment of many war expenses directly to the states, and the authorization of poll, excise, and land taxes by Congress

to pay for the rest. He did not get a national bank or national taxes, but the rest of his proposals were adopted, and began to have a salutary effect on the nation's economy. Perhaps his greatest contribution was simply taking control of the Continental finances, cutting back expenditures and compelling the states by the force of his will to take a more responsible attitude. He was helped by the winding down of the war, which enabled the military budget to be cut without endangering the revolutionary cause.

However, as the war ended, Morris' parsimony almost caused a coup by disgruntled Continental officers who feared, with good reason, that back pay and promised pensions would never be forthcoming if they disbanded peacefully. This danger was overcome only when George Washington rebuked the conspirators severely, and the government agreed to a compromise that, while less generous than its wartime promises, it was able to honor for that very reason.

HELP FROM ABROAD

ANOTHER REASON THAT Continental finances stabilized in the early 1780s was because of grants and loans of hard currency from European countries that were used to back the "Morris notes" and other Continental obligations. This financial support was just one example of the vital role played by aid to the American revolutionaries from Britain's enemies in Europe. If the Americans frustrated the British forces on their own, they only vanquished them with the help of other countries.

The French Alliance – The greatest contribution to American independence came from France. The French were spoiling for revenge ever since the British beat them in 1763, and they saw in the American Revolution the perfect instrument. From the very beginning they offered clandestine support, money and arms, and even before the official alliance they were openly letting American privateers reprovision in their Atlantic and channel ports.

After the Battle of Saratoga, their participation was all but certain. Within a few months, they concluded an alliance, and from 1778 onwards the war transcended the American Revolution. While the French sent naval squadrons and expeditionary forces to America several times, and even left one force under Comte de Rochambeau there permanently, they made an equal contribution by drawing a significant proportion of the British effort away from North America. The sugar islands of the Caribbean, not the thirteen colonies, were the most profitable part of the British Empire, and once these were threatened the Americans became a secondary concern. All during the last half of the war an amphibious struggle

went on in the Caribbean, as French and British fleets landed troops on each others islands and clashed on the high seas. In the end, the major reason the British offered America extremely generous terms was that the French had the initiative in the Caribbean, and the British feared that they would lose those colonies as well as the American ones.

The fact that the Americans accepted the Treaty of Paris, even though they had pledged not to make peace separately from the French, showed that the relationship between America and France was not uniformly amicable. The French refused to support American ambitions in Canada, in part because the Protestant Americans threatened the rights of the Catholic French-Canadians, and in part because the French simply did not want to see their protégés become too powerful too fast. The Americans, for their part, held back from supporting French designs on the Newfoundland fisheries, in part because of the interests of New England fishermen and in part because they simply did not want to drag out the fight for independence longer than necessary.

Spain and America – The Spanish contribution to American independence is less well-known than the French, but was no less vital. The reason that the Spanish contribution is less well-known is that the Spanish and the Americans never directly allied with each other. The Spanish, with their extensive empire in America, were wary of supporting an American revolution. The Americans, for their part, refused to pay the Spanish price of alliance, which was a commitment to the liberation of Gibraltar. Each country was allied with France, but this never led to an alliance with each other.

The Spanish contribution was nevertheless vital because without Spanish support the French would have been unable to make their contribution. While the Spanish further tied down British resources with their prolonged siege of Gibraltar and a brilliant campaign in Florida, their critical contribution was simply the number of ships in their navy. By itself, the French navy was decidedly inferior to the Royal navy; in combination with the Spanish, it held a numerical edge. While the lack of coordination and inferior seamanship may have prevented the combination from being decisive, with-

out the numerical advantage the French would have been unable to pose a threat to the British. As it was, the Franco-Spanish forces came close to invading England itself in 1779, and even after this project was aborted, they tied down the British in European waters, in the Caribbean, and as far afield as India. The Spanish alliance enabled the French to turn the American revolution into a world war.

Holland and the League of Armed Neutrality – Britain's interference in neutral trade with America alienated most of the rest of Europe. Led by Russia, the remaining naval powers (and some countries with no navies to speak of) banded together in the League of Armed Neutrality. This coalition threatened Britain with an even more critical naval imbalance, although in the end only Holland went to war over Britain's trade policy. And in this case, the British actually initiated hostilities in order to gain the advantage of surprise. The British seized the Dutch entrepot of St. Eustasius, which was the smuggling capital of the Caribbean, and a number of Dutch colonies in West Africa. The Dutch fleet did force the British to divert ships to protect her merchantmen in the North Sea, but this pressure was hardly decisive.

Peace: Wartime Negotiations and the Treaty of Paris
Despite their rejection of the "Olive Branch Petition," the British did not give up hope of a negotiated settlement. In fact, as the war dragged on, their terms became progressively more generous, so that by the middle of the war they were offering far more than the Americans had asked for at the beginning, and at the end of the war they were offering more than the Americans had ever hoped to get. Unfortunately, the evolution of British policy did not keep pace with events, and whenever they softened their position, the Americans had already hardened their resolve.

The first major peace initiative by the British came in 1776. The British commander, General William Howe, and his brother Lord Howe, who was serving as admiral of the naval squadron in America, were both Whigs who privately opposed the government's harsh policy and insisted that, as a condition of their service, they be empowered to negotiate peace. However, they were not empowered to negotiate with

the Continental Congress as a legal entity representing the colonies, which the revolutionaries now considered a precondition to negotiations. Their peace initiatives bore no more fruit than their military campaigns.

After the Battle of Saratoga, the British moderated their position considerably. In fact, they were so desperate to prevent an American alliance with France that they offered the Americans everything they had ever asked for, except outright independence. For the Americans, the offer came too late. Benjamin Franklin deftly used negotiations with Britain to scare the French, but the American diplomats never seriously considered accepting British terms.

During the early 1780s, as all the combatants staggered under the financial weight of the war effort, the diplomats continued to parley. Several times the French hinted that they might settle with the British on the basis of a peace in place: each power would retain those territories it actually controlled. To the Americans such a plan was anathema, and they desperately strove to keep the war going until they were in a more favorable position. Fortunately, they did not have to wait long.

Cornwallis's surrender at Yorktown was the death knell of British power in the thirteen colonies, and everyone knew it. The Tory ministry fell shortly thereafter, and the Whigs who succeeded them thought only of how to cut their losses in America to salvage what they could in the West Indies. Furthermore, they hoped to wean the Americans away from their friendship with France. They offered the Americans independence plus all the western territories south of the Great Lakes, and asked only that the Americans stop fighting immediately, despite their pledge not to make a separate peace. These terms were too good for the Americans to pass up, but to save face, they insisted that while military actions might cease immediately, the two nations would remain formally at war until the French and British came to terms. This agreement, the Treaty of Paris, was signed in 1783.

The British used this respite to regain control of the Caribbean Sea and throw back a final Franco-Spanish attack on

Gibraltar. Seeing the tide of war begin to turn against them, the French began to negotiate in late 1782, and they, along with the Spanish, concluded peace with Britain in February of 1783. At the same time, America and Britain ceased to be at war in law as well as in fact. The American Revolution was over.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE REVOLUTION

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION had far-reaching consequences for all three of the major combatants.

End Of The "Old" British Empire – For Great Britain, the war marked a watershed in the history of the Empire. The colonial relationships that had developed steadily since the early 1600s were shaken to their core and never really recovered. Beyond the loss of the American colonies, the late 1700s saw the decline in importance of the sugar islands of the West Indies and the abandonment of mercantilism as an economic policy. In the nineteenth century India was to become the jewel of the Empire, and the "white" colonies of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand were gradually given the autonomy originally sought by their American comrades. While the British government never abandoned Imperial protection and preference schemes, it adopted a laissez faire policy within the Empire that diverged greatly from the economic policies before the revolution.

The New American Republic – The effects of the American Revolution on America were more obvious and more profound. The Americans emerged as a free and independent people, able to determine their own collective destiny on the North American continent unburdened and unrestrained by dependence on England or membership in a larger empire. The infant nation was to undergo a series of stresses and strains as it erected a novel republican form of government and expanded into the vastness of the continental interior, stresses and strains that culminated in a great civil war that tested the young nation to its limit. Once that challenge had been met, the country grew by leaps and bounds as it embraced the remaining wilderness and transformed itself into

the world's greatest industrial power. Just a little more than a century after it won independence the United States emerged onto the world stage, and in the the course of the next half century it took its place as the most powerful nation on earth.

The American Revolution and the French Revolution
The American Revolution served as an inspiration and model for liberal-minded men everywhere, and it indirectly supplied the cause of the great French Revolution of 1789 that transformed European society and all of Western civilization. French reformers took heart from the American success, and longed to see the same liberal democratic principles replace the traditions of monarchy and aristocracy that had so long dominated their own country and the rest of Europe. Their chance came less than a decade after the end of the American Revolution, and as a direct outgrowth of French participation in it. The French had incurred an increasing debt with every war, and the American war proved to be the straw that broke the monarchy's back. Unable to pay the interest on its staggering loans, the government of King Louis XVI was forced to try to tax the nobility, a class that had enjoyed exemption from fiscal responsibility for generations. Outraged at this assault on their most fundamental privilege, and ambitious to strengthen their class against the power of the King, the nobility insisted that the monarch call together representatives of the nation in a session of the Estates General, a traditional parliament which had not met for 150 years. The Estates General duly met, but instead of enhancing the power of the nobles, it gave vent to the pent up grievances of the vast majority of the common people in the country, and set the stage for a far-reaching revolution that destroyed the monarchy and swept away the nobility. This revolution soon overflowed the boundaries of France, and spread beyond Europe to Latin America (just as the Spanish crown had feared). The echoes of the American Revolution reverberated in a series of democratic upheavals throughout the nineteenth century, and the shots fired on Lexington Green can still be heard around the world.

American Generals

Benedict Arnold (1741–1801) An early volunteer for the Continental army, Arnold served with Ethan Allen and George Washington and constructed and commanded a fleet on Lake Champlain which inflicted serious losses on a superior British force. Resentful at being passed over for promotion and attracted by the opulent lifestyle of Loyalists he socialized with in Philadelphia, Arnold went over to the British in mid-1779, leaking American military plans. He escaped on a British ship when discovered, returning in September 1781 to lead a British attack. Died in London.

Horatio Gates (c.1728–1806) British-born, Gates served in the French and Indian War (1754–1763), returned to England and emigrated to America in 1772. He defeated the British at the Battle of Saratoga, was made president of the Board of War, and was proposed as commander of the Continental army in place of the then-struggling George Washington in 1777. Washington prevailed, and Gates ended up in South Carolina, where he was routed by Cornwallis. After the war he freed his slaves and served in the New York state legislature.

Nathanael Greene (1742–1786) Commander of the Rhode Island state army before the Revolution, Greene served as a major general under Washington in Boston, New York and New Jersey and led troops at Trenton, Brandywine and Germantown, 1776–77. Made quartermaster general in March 1778, he resigned in August after a dispute with the Treasury Board. He replaced Gates in the southern command in 1781 and inflicted a series of pyhrric victories on the British, causing them to gradually withdraw from the Carolinas. Died in Savannah, Georgia.

Charles Lee (1731–1782) After serving in the British army and as a soldier of fortune in Poland, Lee emigrated to America in 1773 and joined the revolutionaries, primarily with an eye towards personal advancement. He was captured in December 1776 and held until 1778, during which time he suggested a plan (ignored by his captors) for ending the revolution by taking the middle colonies. Released in a prisoner exchange, he conducted himself so shamefully in the Battle of Monmouth—harshly criticising Washington, ignoring his orders and calling an early retreat—that he was court-marshalled in August 1778 and suspended from command for a year. He was dismissed by Congress at the end of his suspension.

Benjamin Lincoln (1733–1810) A small-town farmer before the war, Lincoln was made a major-general in 1776 and put in command of the southern front in 1778. He was forced to surrender to the British at Charleston in 1780, a disasterous defeat for which he was widely criticized. He served as secretary of war in the Continental Congress (1781–83) and after the war as lieutenant governor of Massachusetts.

Daniel Morgan (1736–1802) A teamster in civilian life, in 1775 he led a company of Virginia riflemen to New England and then on to Quebec. Captured there, he was exchanged in 1776, and commanded a regiment of sharpshooters at Saratoga in 1777. He resigned when overlooked for promotion, but returned to service in 1780 and won a brilliant victory at Cowpens. After the war he served as a militia officer and, briefly, as a Congressman.

John Sullivan (1740–1795) A member of the First Continental Congress, Sullivan served with Washington and also led the retreating American forces after the attempted invasion of Canada in 1775, their commander, General Montgomery, having been killed. He was taken prisoner at the Battle of Long Island in August 1776, was released in December and rejoined Washington. In 1779 he wiped out the combined Iroquois/Loyalist forces in the Mohawk Valley of New York. He resigned due to ill health later that year, but continued in public service until his death.

George Washington (1732–1799) Washington worked as a surveyor from age 14, served in the French and Indian War and at 20 inherited his family's Mount Vernon estate, making him one of the wealthiest men in Virginia. Made commander of all Virginia troops at the age of 23, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Continental army in 1775. An inspiring and charismatic leader but a mediocre tactician, his career was a combination of humiliating defeats and bold initiatives, and after Valley Forge his enemies in Congress almost succeeded in having him replaced as commander-in-chief. (For more de-

tail on Washington's campaigns, see the Historical Background section.) After four years of gentleman farming, he was unanimously chosen president of the Constitutional Convention in 1787, was unanimously elected president in 1789 and was re-elected in 1792.

Anthony Wayne (1745–1796) A wealthy Pennsylvania tannery owner who rose to the rank of brigadier general in the Continental army, "Mad Anthony" is best known for his dramatic storming of the British fort at Stony Point in 1779. He also defeated the British and their Indian allies in Georgia and after the war served two years in the Georgia legislature. In 1792 he became commander-in-chief of the U.S. army and "opened up" the Midwest by routing a confederation of indian tribes in Ohio in 1794.

American Politicians

John Adams (1735–1826) An early advocate of independence, Adams wrote extensively against the Stamp Act but also defended the soldiers involved in the Boston Massacre, reflecting his equally strong belief in rule of law. He served in a variety of positions in the Continental Congress, nominating Washington as commander-in-chief and leading the floor fight for acceptance of the Declaration of Independence. In 1777 he was sent to France with Benjamin Franklin and in 1785 he became the first U.S. ambassador to Britain. Adams served as Washington's vice president from 1789 to 1797, and as president from 1789 to 1801.

Samuel Adams (1722–1803) More of a firebrand than his second cousin John, Sam Adams helped instigate the Stamp Act Riots, wrote vicious polemics against the British presence in Boston, founded the committees of correspondence, helped plan the Boston Tea Party and was an early advocate of war preparations against the British. He was a member of the Continental Congress until 1781 and served as lieutenant governor and governor of Massachusetts after the war.

Charles Carroll (1737–1832) The longest surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, and the only Roman Catholic signatory, Carroll was a member of the committees of correspondence before and during the revolution and served on the Continental Congress's board of war from 1776 to 1778. In 1776 he was a member, with Benjamin Franklin, of a delegation which attempted to persuade the Canadians to join the revolution. After the war he served in the Maryland and U.S. Senates.

Silas Deane (1737–1789) The first American diplomat sent to France, Deane obtained a huge amount of arms for the revolutionaries in October 1777 and in November signed the formal U.S.-French alliance. Upon his return his reputation was destroyed by unproven accusations of embezzlement, and he went back to France in 1780, where he wrote a series of letters urging American reconciliation with Britain. In spite of this, Congress posthumously exonerated him of financial wrongdoing in 1842.

Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790) By the time the American Revolution began, Franklin had invented his stove, bifocal glasses, and the lightning rod; had conducted important experiments in electricity; had become the successful publisher of both the Pennsylvania Gazette and Poor Richard's Almanac; had helped establish a fire department, a lending library and a university; and had spent 16 years in London, mainly representing the Penn family's interests. He returned to America in 1775, helped draft the Declaration of Independence, and was then sent to France, where he successfully negotiated an alliance. After the war he negotiated the Treaty of Paris and became the first U.S. Postmaster General.

John Hancock (1737–1793) A wealthy merchant and local politician, Hancock chaired the committee which obtained the removal of British troops from Boston after the massacre. He led the radical Massachusetts patriots with Sam Adams, and was a member of the Continental Congress from 1775 to 1780, serving as president from 1775 to 1777; his is the first and largest signature on the Declaration of Independence. After the war he was elected governor of Massachusetts nine times.

John Jay (1745–1829) A successful New York attorney, Jay opposed independence prior to the revolution, but afterwards was elected to the First Continental Congress, secured New York's approval of the Declaration of Independence, and in 1778 was elected president of the congress. In 1779 he went to Europe, where he negotiated unsuccessfully with Spain and later joined Franklin in England and negotiated generous peace terms. After the war he served as secretary of foreign affairs, first chief justice of the Supreme Court, special envoy to Great Britain and governor of New York.

Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) A wealthy planter and Renaissance man, Jefferson was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses and the Second Continental Congress, where he wrote the first draft of the Declaration of Independence. He returned to the Virginia legislature in 1776, and served as governor of the state from 1779 to 1781. He was secretary of state under Washington, vice president under Adams, and president from 1801 to 1809, during which time he acquired Louisiana for the U.S. (1803). He established the University of Virginia in 1819.

Arthur Lee (1740–1792) With Benjamin Franklin and Silas Deane, Lee negotiated the alliance with France in 1777–78. He was recalled in 1778 due to his quarrels with his fellow diplomats, particularly Deane, whom he accused of embezzlement. He was a delegate to the Continental Convention from 1782 to 1784 and served on the U.S. Treasury Board from 1785 to 1789.

Henry Laurens (1724–1792) President of the Continental Congress from 1777 to 1778, Laurens was sent to Holland in 1780 to negotiate a $10 million loan, but was captured by the British and imprisoned in the Tower of London. The discovery of a draft treaty between Holland and the U.S. in his papers led the British to declare war on the Dutch. Laurens was exchanged for General Cornwallis in 1781 and helped negotiate the final peace treaty between England and America.

Robert Morris (1734–1806) The financier of the revolution, Morris was a member of both Continental Congresses, although he delayed signing the Declaration of Independence for several weeks, hoping for Anglo-American reconciliation. He controlled military finance from 1776 to 1778, and was responsible for keeping the economy afloat throughout the course of the revolution. After the war he served as superintendent of finance, a delegate to the Constitutional Conven-

Robert Livingston (1746–1813) America's first secretary of the Department of Foreign Affairs (1781, under the Articles of Confederation), Livingston was very active in the finance, judicial and foreign affairs committees of the Continental Congresses and helped draft the Declaration. After the war he administered the oath of office to George Washington and helped secure the Louisiana Purchase as U.S. ambassador to France.

British Generals

John Burgoyne (1722–1792) A Seven Years' War veteran, General Burgoyne commanded the Canadian forces in the unsuccessful three-pronged offensive of 1777, which was meant to isolate the especially troublesome New England colonies. After his surrender at Saratoga he returned to England where he served briefly as commander-in-chief of Ireland and wrote several plays.

Guy Carleton (1724–1808) Governor of Quebec from 1768 to 1778, Carleton reconciled the British and French-Canadian colonists in the province, thereby depriving the Americans of a potential Canadian "fifth column," and repulsed an American invasion in 1775–76. He resigned in 1778 over a disagreement with the colonial secretary. In 1782 he was made commander-in-chief of British forces in North America.

Henry Clinton (1738–1795) After serving in the Seven Years' War, Clinton was posted to America as second-in-command to William Howe and fought at Bunker Hill and Long Island. When Howe retired in 1778 Clinton was named commander-in-chief. He led the army in the Carolinas in 1780, returning to New York after the fall of Charleston. He resigned in 1781, after Cornwallis, his second-in-command, surrendered at Yorktown, a defeat for which Clinton was blamed by English public opinion.

Earl Cornwallis (1738–1805) A Seven Years' War veteran who favored a conciliatory line towards the rebels. Nevertheless, he served the British cause with distinction, chasing Washington out of New Jersey in 1776. Made commander of the British forces in the south in June 1780, he won a vital victory over General Gates in August. A year later he was under seige at Yorktown by combined American and French forces and forced to surrender on October 19.

William Howe (1729–1814) Commander-in-chief of British forces from 1776 to 1778, Howe first saw action in America during the French and Indian War. Returning in 1775, he participated in the Battle of Bunker Hill and took New York the next year. Although he won a series of victories he was unable to wipe out Washington's modest forces. After the British defeat at the Battle of Saratoga he resigned and returned to England.

Thomas Gage (1721–1787) Commander of all British forces in North America from 1763 to 1774, Gage was a French and Indian War veteran and a hard-line opponent of American independence. He helped shape the Intolerable Acts, particularly the quartering of soldiers in private homes, and served as military governor of Massachusetts from 1775 to 1776; in this capacity he ordered the British march on Lexington and Concord. After the costly British victory at Bunker Hill, Gage was replaced by William Howe.

British Politicians

Lord Rawden (1754–1826) Francis Hastings, Marquess of Rawden-Hastings, Earl of Moira, entered the army in 1771. Despite his youth, he rose to command in the deep South after Cornwallis moved into Virginia. Even though he lost the Carolinas to General Greene, Rawden recieved a peerage in 1783, and went on to a distinguished administrative career in India.

King George III (1738–1820) King of England during the Revolutionary War and, by its end, a hated symbol of British intransigence, George had little to do with actually running the war, other than insisting that the struggle continue and refusing any compromise with the rebels. Fearing that the Irish might follow the American's lead, and hoping that the French would bankrupt themselves through their support of the Americans, he dragged Parliament kicking and screaming through the last two years of the war.

Lord North (1732–1792) Prime minister from 1770 to 1782. In dealing with the revolutionaries, North was torn between his own conciliatory instincts and the unbending opposition of his king. Upon becoming prime minister North repealed most import duties, but responded to the Boston Tea Party with the Intolerable Acts. Once hostilities broke out, North conducted the war unenthusiastically and repeatedly attempted to resign. King George finally accepted his resignation in 1783.

Earl Shelburne (1737–1805) A Seven Years' War veteran who held a variety of positions in British government. Shelburne, a leader of the Whig Party, was prime minister from July 1782 until April 1783, during which time the Treaty of Paris was signed (January 1783).

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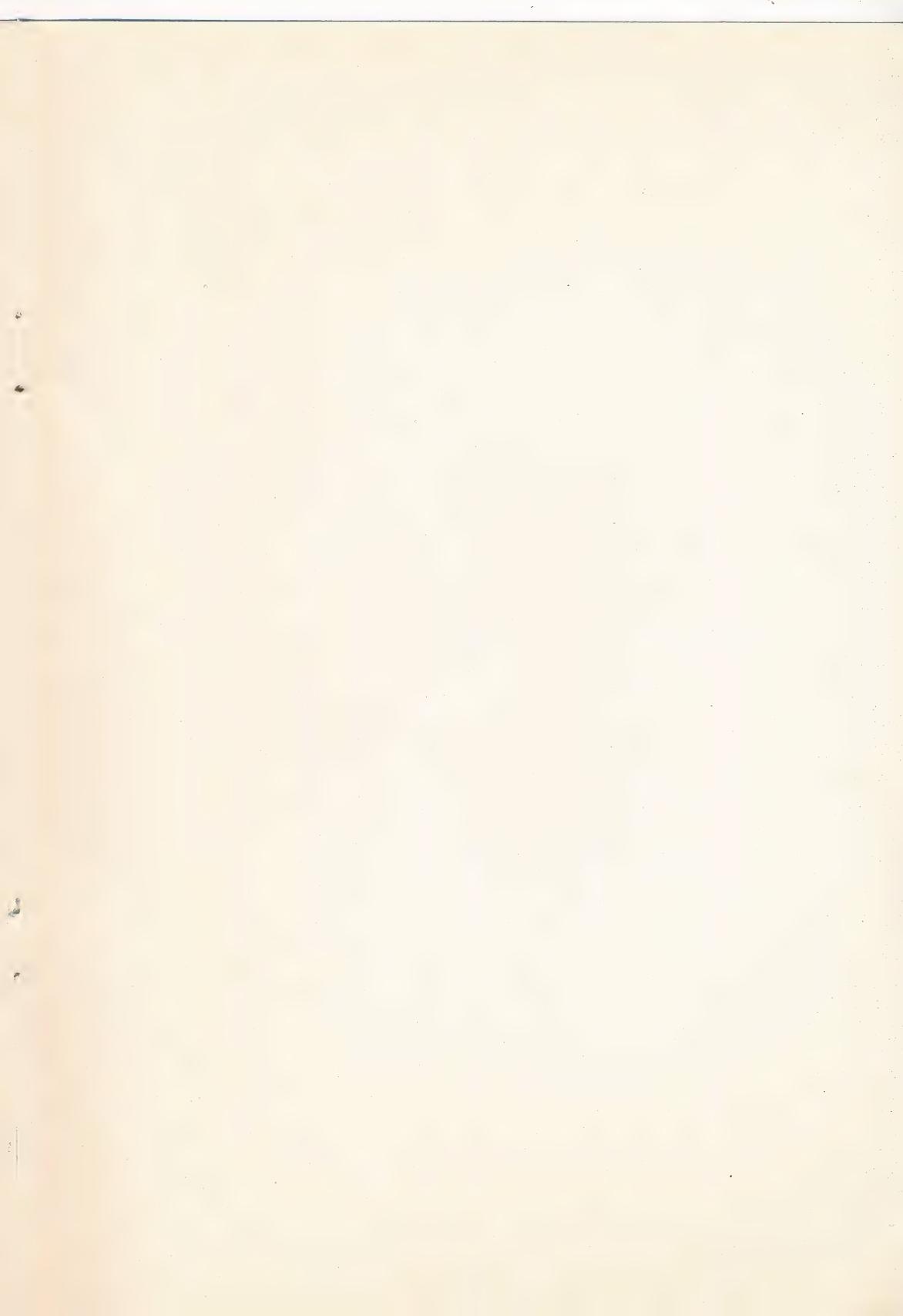
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Revolution '76

Put America's destiny in your hands with this dynamic simulation of political, economic and military strategies.

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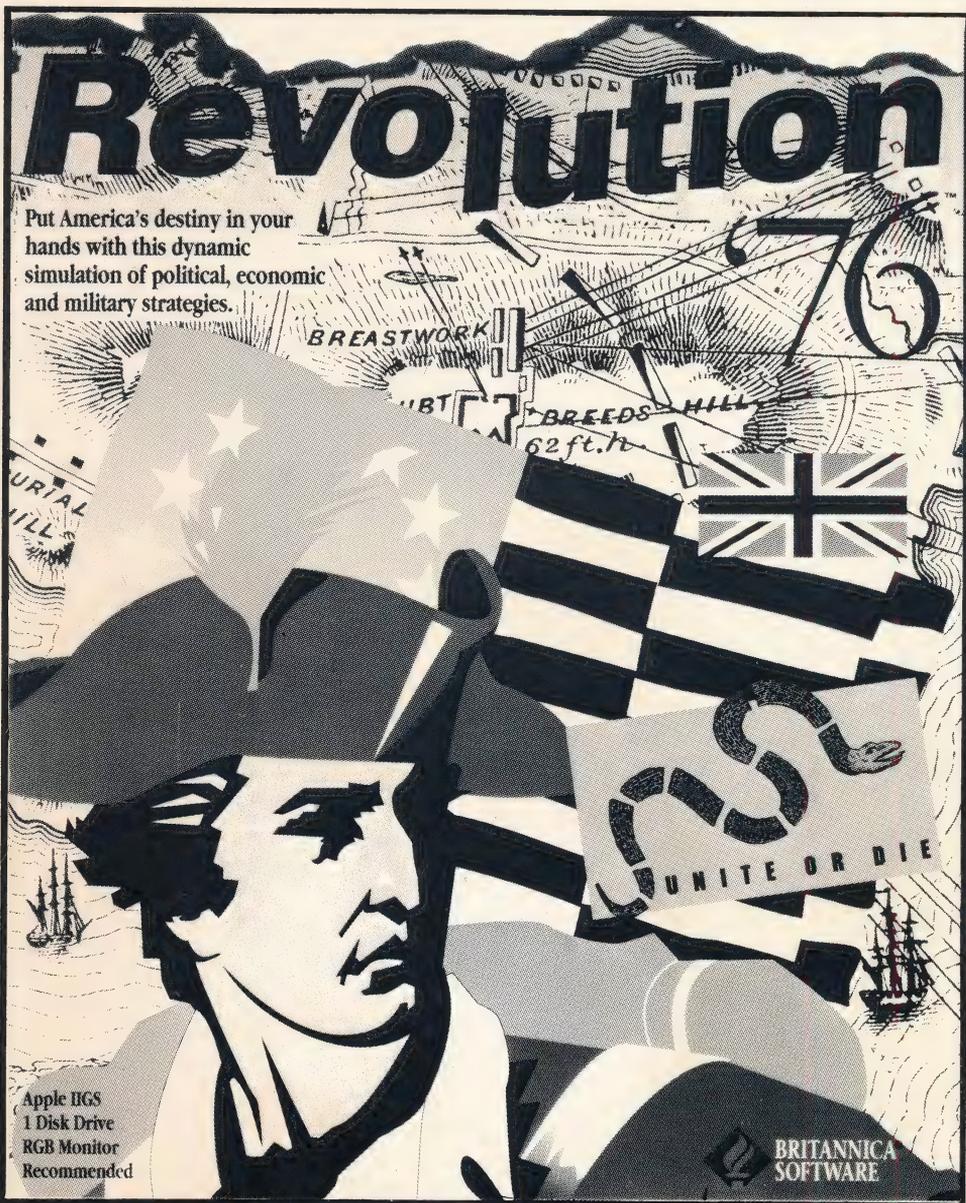
Apple IIGS
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RGB Monitor
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REVOLUTION '76

PLAYER'S REFERENCE

published by Britannica Software

Design and Programming
Edward Bever, Ph.D.

Screen Graphics
Patricia Puente Bever

Programming Assistance
Susan Barr
Sandra Lakin

Original Music
David Craft*

Sounds
David Craft*
Andy Kanakares*
Ezra Sidran*

Documentation
Edward Bever
Michael Crowley
Morissa Rubin

Playtesting

John Stanoch
David Stanoch
Mijalis Yannakakis
Susan Barr
Noah Callahan-Bever
Patricia Puente Bever

* Courtesy Intergalactic Development, Inc.

Special thanks to John Stanoch
for his support at a crucial time.

Table of Contents

REVOLUTION '76 simulates the American struggle for independence. Beginning with the convocation of the Second Continental Congress, it puts you in control of the new nation's entire war effort, from organizing the new government to raising taxes, from recruiting the armies to maneuvering them around the country. While playing, you will be exposed to the whole spectrum of problems that confronted our Founding Fathers. What could be a greater challenge than to tackle the tasks that made these mighty figures legends? Whether you play for the strategic challenge or for historical insight, REVOLUTION '76 is sure to knock your socks off.

Quick Start Instructions:

• Start the game using disk 1.

• You'll be required to know the right password to start the revolt. You'll be asked to select the right word from either the *Historical Perspective* or the *Player's Reference.* If you enter an incorrect answer REVOLUTION '76 will return you to the real world immediately after the Boston Tea Party.

• After Washington crosses the Delaware and the Boston Tea Party has taken place, click on the "OK" box in the lower right-hand corner of the screen and the first game screen will appear.

• Advance from phase to phase by clicking on the "Go On" button.

If you have questions, skim through the Game Basics section. Have fun.

START-UP INSTRUCTIONS

REVOLUTION '76 has been designed to run on a variety of Apple IIgs system. Different configurations involve differences in setting up and running the simulation.

REVOLUTION '76 will run on systems with one of two possible memory configurations and three possible disk drive configurations.

MEMORY CONFIGURATIONS AND SOUNDS

The size of memory your machine has does not impact how you load or play the game, but it does have an important effect you should know about: if you have 768K or less of memory, you will not hear the music and sound effects.

DISK DRIVE CONFIGURATIONS AND START-UP PROCEDURES

Whether you have one floppy drive, two floppy drives, or a hard drive *will* affect how you start the game.

ONE FLOPPY DRIVE

1. Insert Disk 1 into the drive.

2. Turn on the system (or re-boot using the Apple-Control-Reset keys, as described in your Apple IIGS Owner's Guide).

3. Swap Disks 1 and 2 as prompted during the load sequence (this should happen just once before the title sequence and twice after it).

4. While you can play REVOLUTION '76 with the music and sound effects on a one drive system (assuming you have sufficient RAM), this will involve a considerable amount of disk-swapping throughout the game. Therefore, we *strongly* recommend that you turn off the sounds as soon as you begin the game (once you get to the "Assign Leaders" screen). To turn off the sounds, simply pull down the "Game" menu and select the "Sound" option. This will toggle the sounds off.

5. Once you have begun play, Disk 2 should be in the drive and, so long as you turn off the sounds, you will not need to swap disks again, unless you save the game.

6. If you do save the game, you will be prompted to replace Disk 2 with Disk 3. After the save, you will be prompted to return Disk 2 to the drive.

TWO FLOPPY DRIVES

1. Insert Disk 1 into Drive 1.

2. Insert Disk 2 into Drive 2.

3. Turn on the system (or re-boot using the Apple-Control-Reset keys, as described in you Apple IIGS Owner's Guide).

4. After you are into the game and have finished assigning leaders you will be prompted to insert Disk 3. To do so, re-move *Disk 1* from Drive 1 and put Disk 3 in its place. From this point on, you will not have to switch disks again.

5. NOTE: If you happen to have three or more disk drives, you can put all three disks in at the beginning and never have to swap. Just make sure that Disk 1 is in Drive 1.

HARD DISK

To play REVOLUTION '76 from a hard drive, you must first copy the necessary files from the floppy disks onto your hard disk. Follow steps 1 through 7 below to do this. You need do this only once. Step 8 tells you how to begin the program once installed.

1. Boot the system.

2. While in the Finder, create a folder with any appropriate name ("REV76" or whatever). This folder can be nested within other folders ("GreatGames," for instance).

3. Place Disk 1 in a floppy drive and copy the "REV76.SYS16" application file into the folder you have

created for the game ("REV76" or whatever). If you are uncertain how to copy files from one disk to another on the Apple IIGS, refer to your Owner's Guide.

4. Now comes the tricky part. Open the "SYSTEM" folder on the floppy disk (Rev76.1), and then open the "FONTS" folder inside that. You should see a file called "SMALL-VILLE.8" Now open the "SYSTEM" folder on your hard disk. You should see a folder called "FONTS" there. Copy the folder "SMALLVILLE.8" into this folder. Close the "FONTS" folder on Disk 1 (Rev76.1) and the "SYSTEM" folders on both the floppy disk and your hard disk. Phew!

5. Remove Disk 1 from the floppy drive and insert Disk 2. Copy both folders ("PIX" and "INTRO") into your game folder (REV76 or whatever).

6. Remove Disk 2 from the floppy drive and insert Disk 3. Copy both folders ("SOUNDS" and "SAVEDGAME") into your game folder.

7. The game is now installed and ready to play.

8. To begin: just launch REVOLUTION '76 as you would any other application on your hard drive, by double-clicking the icon "REV76.SYS16."

9. NOTES: There are a few things to remember about hard disk installation:

a. REVOLUTION '76 can be nested in as many layers of folders on your hard disk as you want. BUT, *all folders* (REV76.SYS16, PIX, INTRO, and SOUNDS) *must be at the same level* of nesting, and within the same folder.

b. The *font file* "SMALLVILLE.8" *must be installed in the "SYSTEM" folder of the boot volume (disk).* Ordinarily this will be the hard disk itself.

The colonies have made their decision: the people want independence from England! Down with taxes and duties! No more restrictions imposed by Parliament! And the colonists have chosen *you* to orchestrate the rebellion. What terms will you request from the Crown? How will you fund your campaigns? How will you treat the loyalists in America?

REVOLUTION '76 puts you in control of the many details of acquiring freedom and creating the United States. The following descriptions explain how to execute your policies and decisions.

Each *turn* of REVOLUTION '76 represents the passage of one year. During the course of a turn you will set policies, recruit military support, negotiate alliances and more in a series of *phases*. The game proceeds as a series of turns until, at the end of a turn, the end of game conditions have been fulfilled, at which point the program will terminate play and announce the winner.

Phases: The phases of a turn encompass the major areas of activity in governing revolutionary America. Each phase is associated with one or two screens, through which the player issues instructions to the revolutionary government. The screens are discussed in detail in the Game Reference Section. They are, in sequence:
1. Organize Government   4. Supply
2. Administer   5. Campaign
3. Recruit   6. Diplomacy

Advancing from Phase to Phase: Once you have issued all the instructions you wish, simply click on the "Go On" button. In some cases the program will give you a chance to reconsider your decisions, but most of the time it will not. Be sure you have issued all instructions you want before you go on to the next screen. The fate of the republic could depend on it!

Advancing from Turn to Turn (Year to Year): Each turn of the game represents the passage of one year: the game begins in 1775. When you end the Diplomacy phase, the program will check if the End of Game conditions have

been fulfilled. If the proper conditions have not been met, a progress report will appear and the game will announce the beginning of a new year. There is no set ending, but because of the inherent limitations of the combatants a victor will generally emerge within about ten years.

Ending a game: If the end of game conditions have been met, REVOLUTION '76 will determine which side has won and what level of victory it achieved. The game can either end in military victory for the British or the Americans, or in a negotiated settlement.

Issuing Commands: Play of REVOLUTION '76 centers on a series of screens that allow you to issue all of the necessary instructions to the rebellious Americans. Each screen is concerned with a specific function of government. On each screen are icons which symbolize a particular choice. To implement a decision, just click on the person or place affected by the decision and then click on the icon symbolizing the decision. The icon will appear next to or, in some cases, on top of, the person or place affected. At a glance you will be able to tell who your committee chairmen are, what your military recruitment and privateer policies are, who your ambassadors are and what terms they're negotiating for, and so on.

Accessing Information: The menu item at the top right corner of the screen, Info, allows you to obtain information on the American Government; Regions; States and Cities; Foreign Countries; the British and American Armies (by region and by city); American Generals and Politicians; and British Generals. Information can also be accessed with buttons on some screens.

As play moves from one phase to the next, you will be presented with a variety of messages about the progress of the revolution. They will be in one of the following four forms:

Prompts: Prompts are messages to the player from some important figure or faction in the revolution suggesting a course of action be taken during the following phase. The prompts are *not* disinterested hints from the program, nor

do they indicate what is necessarily the best course of action for the revolutionary government. Instead, they are indications that at least one faction in the revolutionary cause has a strong interest in a particular course of action.

Following a prompt will not necessarily lead towards victory, but ignoring a prompt will certainly have a political cost, since the prompting party will be alienated from your government by your refusal to follow its wishes. On the
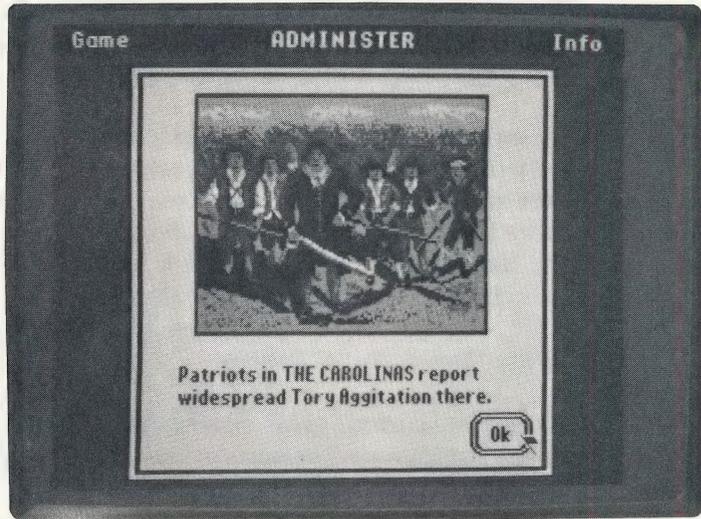
**Prompt
Screen**
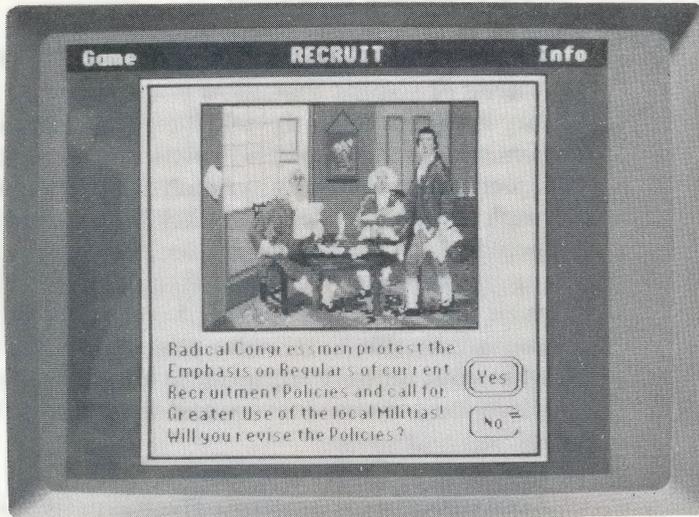
other hand, following a prompt may alienate another faction of revolutionaries, regardless of whether it contributes to the revolutionary cause. This alienation will be reflected in lowered patriotism, as reflected in the Regional Information Charts.

Warnings: Warnings are the opposite of prompts. They indicate that a particular party in the revolutionary coalition opposes a proposed course of action. As with prompts, the warning does not necessarily reflect the best interests of the revolutionary cause as a whole; it simply makes clear the interests of one faction of it. Following the warning may or may not help the revolution, but not following it

will certainly alienate the group issuing it. As with prompts, political alienation will be reflected in the level of patriotism shown in the Regional Information Charts.

Warning Screen

Patriots in THE CAROLINAS report widespread Tory Aggitation there.

Results: Results are impartial reports on the consequences of actions taken during a phase. They are impartial, in contrast to the prompts and warnings, since they objectively report the results of a phase rather than filtering the report through some factional viewpoint.

Updates: Updates convey information about developments beyond the scope of the game: events in distant theaters of the war, long-term or autonomous developments at home, actions initiated by the British or Tories, and the like. They, like the result reports, are impartial in comparison with prompts and warnings.

Above the game screen is a menu bar which shows two items: Game and Info. For more details on the Info menu, check the Game Reference Section.

Game: If you do not wish to hear the music and sound effects, select the SOUND option on the Game menu. This will de-activate the sound. Simply choose that option again to re-activate it. Note: If your system has only 768K of RAM, the sounds will not play at all. Note also that if your system is a one floppy drive system, we recommend that you toggle the sounds off at the beginning of play.

To save the current game to disk choose SAVE. Note that only one game can be saved per disk. This will allow you to save and restart a game as you play. If you want to save more than one game, just transfer the current game out of the "Saved Game" folder on Disk 3 to another folder before launching the game. Then, before you resume play, decide which old game you want to use and make sure *its* files are in the "Saved Game" folder.

To end the current game choose SURRENDER. The control of the computer will return to the operating system.

The short introduction should have given you enough orientation to walk through the game and learn it by playing it. However, REVOLUTION '76 is a complex and subtle game, and while you play, you will find it helpful to refer to the Game Reference Section if you are uncertain about the meaning or implications of some aspect of play. You

Organize Government
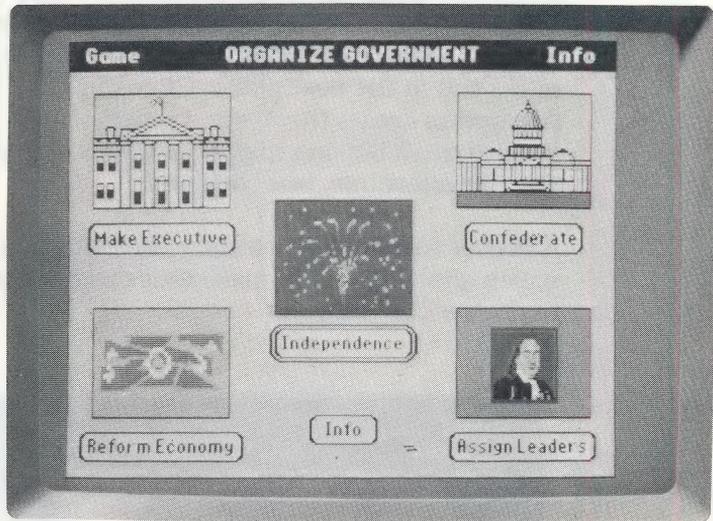
will find the reference section arranged according to the sequence of phases, so issues are addressed at the point at which they are most likely to appear in the game. Following the section on phases is a similar listing of the terms you will encounter in the information displays available through the Info menu.

Organize Government

You organize the new Federal government. At various times, you will assign leaders to administrative positions, declare independence from Britain, propose Articles of Confederation to give the new government permanent structures, organize an executive branch to better carry out the federal government's affairs, and regulate the economy to cope with wartime inflation.

During the first phase of each turn you have the chance to organize the continental government. In all turns except the first the Organization Phase begins by presenting you with a screen depicting the available options: Assign Leaders, Declare Independence, Confederate, Create Executive, and Reform Economy. On the first turn you will go directly to the Assign Leaders screen (see below). In most cases, selection of an option will cause a new screen to come up. In one case, Declare Independence, selecting the option and issuing the instruction will simply register the decision and move you to the next phase. Choosing the Create Executive option causes the Assign Leaders screen to come up. Each of the following major categories represents an option. To select one, just click on it.

ASSIGN LEADERS: Selecting this option brings up a screen allowing you to make four assignments from among twelve revolutionaries.

Assign Leaders

These men have regional and factional allegiances as well as administrative and negotiating talents. Factional allegiance is indicated by the script a name is in: a sensible, upright script for moderates, a more florid and fancy script for

radicals. Regional origins are indicated by the color of the box surrounding each name: green and red for Southerners, yellow and red for those from the Mid-Atlantic, two shades of red for New Englanders (note the KEY at the bottom of the screen). This information is important in determining the political implications of your appointments, since you will want to strike a balance between moderates and radicals and between New Englanders, Southerners and representatives from the Mid-Atlantic.

In addition, each man is rated on his administrative and negotiating skills. To obtain this information, click on the circle at the upper left corner of a portrait, then click on the Info button at the bottom of the screen (this information is also available through the Info menu). These talents, particularly administrative talent, will contribute to activities undertaken by each branch of government. If the government's organization level is Congress or Confederation, the leader is considered to be the Chairman of the appropriate Congressional Committee. If the organization level is Executive, he is considered to be the Secretary of the appropriate department. The four positions are:

• Finance: Finance is concerned primarily with raising money for the treasury. The stronger the head of the financial administration's administrative talent, the more taxes will actually be raised for a given level of taxation. Furthermore, if the continental government does not have the power of taxation itself, the stronger the leader's negotiating talent, the higher the level of taxation the different regions are likely to agree to.

• Foreign Affairs: The leader of the foreign affairs committee/department contributes his administrative talent to any negotiations with foreign powers for alliance and to talks with Britain for peace terms.

• War: The administrator of this department contributes his talents to both recruiting new soldiers and raising supplies. His abilities affect both the costs and the results of these activities.

• Navy: The chairman/secretary of this department contributes his administrative talents to both building new ships and conducting naval operations. His abilities affect the amount of the country's naval construction capacity that is actually used at a given level of building, the costs of building new ships, and the overall performance of the nation's navy at sea.

DECLARE INDEPENDENCE: Selecting this option will cause the Congress to formally declare the independence of the American colonies from Britain. The advantages of this act are that the European powers will not openly back the revolutionaries until they take this step, and few Americans will accept further attempts to organize the government so long as the Americans are still formally colonies of Britain. The disadvantage of a declaration of independence is that if it comes too soon, it will alienate moderate patriots from the revolutionary cause. On the other hand, a well-timed declaration of independence will boost patriotism throughout the land.

CONFEDERATE: Selecting this option causes a screen to come up through which you can propose the terms upon which a permanent union of the thirteen states will be based.

The advantages of confederation are that European powers will take American diplomats more seriously, patriotism will be bolstered by the show of unity, and, if the terms are right, your powers as the central government will be enhanced. The disadvantage of confederation is that if it is done too soon, moderates will be alienated from the patriot cause.

In forging a confederation, the more states approve it, the more powerful it will be. To improve your support, you will be given one chance per turn to revise your terms and try to win over the holdouts. Keep in mind that if an entire region rejects your terms, even if you muster a majority among the other states, patriotism in the holdout region will plummet, which could have very serious consequences for the revolutionary cause.

When you choose to confederate, you must take a position on each of the following four issues:

• Taxation: Whether the continental government has the power to levy taxes itself, or can merely request that the states use their power to tax to raise a specified amount as a contribution. The choices are:

Federal Taxes: The advantage of federal taxation is that it increases the freedom of action of the continental government, since it can depend on a certain amount of money coming in each year, and can change that level quickly and efficiently. The disadvantage is that the state governments uniformly oppose it. The opposite is true of the state subsidy method.

State Subsidies: The advantages and disadvantages of this method of revenue-raising are the opposite of those of federal taxation: the states love it, but it makes it hard for the federal government to know how much revenue is coming in during a given year.

• Representation: Whether states will be represented in Congress according to the size of their population, by an equal number of delegates regardless of size, or by a two-house Congress.

Proportional: This option specifies that the states will have a number of votes in Congress that reflects the size of the state's population relative to the other states. Big states will obviously favor this option.

By State: This option specifies that each state will have an equal vote in Congress, regardless of its size. This is the favorite option of the small states.

Bicameral: This option specifies that Congress will consist of two houses, one in which representation reflects size and one in which representation is equal. This represents a compromise, which will either please both parties or alienate them.

• Western Lands: Whether the claims by different states to territories west of the Appalachian Mountains will be recognized, or those lands will be considered federal territories.

Federal Control: This option puts land west of the Appalachian Mountains under continental jurisdiction. The advantages of federal ownership are that it will keep the states from becoming even more disproportionate in land and population, and that eventually the land can be sold to raise money for the central government. The disadvantage of federal ownership is that it will alienate those states with claims, especially those with large ones. States without claims favor this approach.

State Ownership: This option recognizes the legitimacy of state claims to western lands, although the various overlapping boundaries will have to be reconciled.

• Slaves: How slave populations will be counted in determining tax levies and, if appropriate, representation to Congress. This issue pits slave states, who want them counted fully (although they have no political rights within the states), against non-slave states, which do not want to see them counted at all. Because of the structure of their economies, this issue basically positions the southern states, the Carolinas and the Chesapeake, against the northern states, in the middle region and New England. The compromise of counting the slaves partially has worked before, but like all compromises it could backfire and alienate both parties. Your choices are:

Not Counted: This option specifies that the slaves will not be considered in determining the size of a state's population.

Counted: This option specifies that slaves will be fully counted in any census.

Partially Counted: This option specifies that five slaves will be equal to three freemen in calculating a state's political weight.

CREATE EXECUTIVE: Selecting this option closes the Organize Government screen and registers the decision to create an executive branch of government. The program will display any reaction to the decision and, if you stick with it, will open the Assign Leaders screen so you can reassign positions if you wish. The reason you may not want to go ahead with creating an executive is that if the conditions are not right radical leaders will oppose it as a dangerous move toward tyranny. Before selecting this option, you should consider what organizational measures might reassure the radical revolutionaries that any national executive will be bound to a mutually-acceptable structure of government. The advantage of an executive level of governmental organization is that foreign countries will be even more impressed with the viability of the revolutionary cause, and the government itself will be able to administer the country more efficiently.

REFORM ECONOMY: Selecting this option will close the Organize Government screen and display a screen which allows you to attempt measures to reduce inflation of the currency if this seems to be getting out of hand.

Inflation is the process by which continental money loses value, becoming a fraction of its face value. Inflation occurs if the revolutionary government spends more to run the war effort than it receives in taxes. If this happens, the Treasury must print additional money to make up the difference. As this money enters circulation, it does not really create new wealth; it simply increases the number of dollars available to bid for the real wealth that does exist. When more dollars are available to pay for the same amount of goods and services, the amount of goods and services each dollar will buy decreases. Because of a shortage of currency before the revolution, this process will not be apparent the first year, but once it starts, you'll know it!

This process can be interrupted by taxing the dollars out of circulation, but this may not work, for once inflation gets under way, it becomes very difficult to stop. The reason for this is that people begin to assume that inflation will continue, and anticipate it by raising prices for things they sell.

"Demand-pull" inflation thus becomes "cost-push" infla-
tion. The reforms you can adopt are increasingly powerful,
but also increasingly unpleasant to the population at large.
Therefore, if the reform is stronger than the current eco-
nomic situation needs, the government will suffer political-
ly for the unnecessary discomfort caused. On the other
hand, if the chosen reform is too mild, it will not cure the
disease. You must therefore walk a tightrope when attempt-
ing to fix the economy. Enact your reform by clicking on
the name of the policy. The economic reform options are:

Punish Profiteers: The government attempts to identify
and punish those merchants who are deliberately contrib-
uting to inflation by hiking their prices faster than the
overall rate of inflation so that they can profit from it rath-
er than lose to it. The move is politically popular but eco-
nomically questionable, since the underlying causes of in-
flation go much deeper. It is useful against a slight rise in
prices, but ineffectual against anything more.

Price Controls: The most direct response to inflation,
price controls mandate that vendors sell their products at a
stipulated, fixed price. Unfortunately, this approach
doesn't really address the underlying causes of inflation ei-
ther, therefore the price controls become harder and harder
to maintain. Price controls are useful against a mild infla-
tion, but are ineffectual against a strong inflation and, be-
cause of the hardships they impose, are politically damag-
ing if imposed unnecessarily.

Reform Currency: Reforming the currency means replac-
ing the old form of money with a new one and exchanging
old for new at a fixed rate. It is an open admission that the
old currency is collapsing, and because the exchange rate is
likely to overvalue the old currency, amounts to a partial
repudiation of debt. It is useful against a strong inflation,
but very damaging politically if invoked unnecessarily.

Repudiate Debt: The strongest medicine of all, this is also
the most bitter. What it amounts to is admitting to the citi-
zens that their money is worthless, and telling bondholders
that their investment has gone bust. A crisis measure of last

resort, repudiating the debt often happens just before los-
ing the game. However, it may be the only chance of survi-
val. The player should be sure that it is necessary before
choosing it, for the medicine may be more dangerous than
the malady.

Administer

You administer the separate affairs of the rebellious colo-
nies, in particular taxation and their policy toward the in-
habitants who favor the British, the Tories. Because of the
tedium that would result from administering thirteen sep-
arate governments, they have been consolidated into four
geographic regions which are governed collectively. The re-
gions are based not only on geography, but also on eco-
nomics and, to some extent, social and political characteris-
tics as well.

Administer
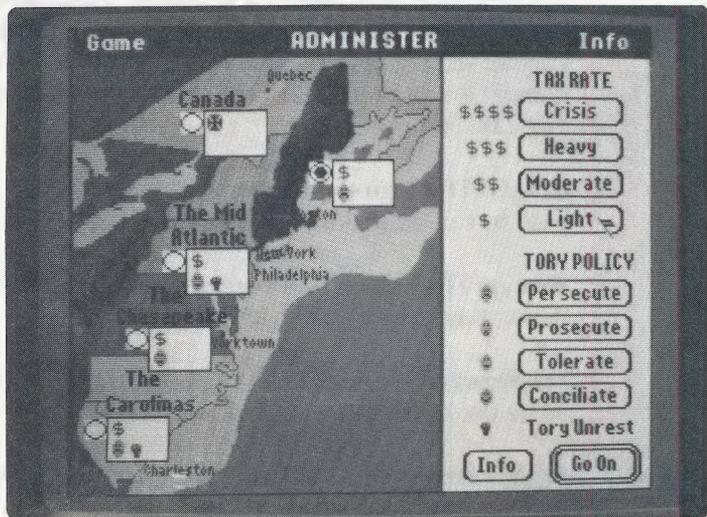
In the second phase of the turn, you set the tax rates and
the policies toward loyalists for each of the regions that the
revolutionaries control. This is done by clicking on the cir-
cle next to the region (a black dot will appear in the circle)
and then clicking on the name of the desired tax and Tory

policies. An icon symbolizing each choice will appear next to the region. There is also an additional icon, not directly under the player's control, which indicates areas of Tory unrest. This information comes in handy when you are deciding on your Tory policies.

TAX RATES: Taxes are the government's primary source of money. Unfortunately, the colonists rebelled against Britain in large measure because of taxes, and they are therefore unlikely to welcome heavy taxes by the continental government either. The actual amounts received from taxation will vary considerably according the the influence of a number of factors. Unless the Articles of Confederation stipulate that the federal government can levy taxes on its own, the regions will not necessarily contribute at the requested rate. Their level of contribution will reflect the level of patriotism in the region, the level of taxes it is accustomed to paying, and the negotiating skill of the leader you've placed in charge of finances. The specific amount returned, given a specified tax rate on a given tax base will vary as well, reflecting the administrative talent of the Finance Committee Chair or Secretary of the Treasury. The rate options are:

Crisis: The region will contribute more than 10% of its tax base to the continental government.

Heavy: The region will contribute between 5% and 10% of its tax base to the continental cause.

Moderate: The region will contribute between 1% and 5% of its tax base to the continental treasury.

Light: The region will contribute less than 1% of its tax base to the continental coffers.

TORY POLICY: Tory policy is the approach to the problem of loyalist citizens taken by the state governments in a region over the course of the year. These range from attempts to win them over or at least gain their neutrality through generous treatment, to harsh mob actions like tarring and feathering them or driving them off their land.

The efficacy of these policies will vary according to the balance of sympathies within the region. Where the patriots are relatively weak, they are ill-advised to press the loyalists too strongly. Where the patriots are relatively strong, they can afford to take a high hand. If you choose your Tory policies wisely, they can dampen the spirit of loyalism and hearten that of patriotism. On the other hand, if the policies chosen are too harsh or too mild for the circumstances, loyalism will surge either from confidence or anger, and patriotism will languish. The policy choices are:

Persecute: The government will use all means at its disposal, both legal and extra-legal, to hurt loyalists in the area.

Prosecute: The government will use all legal means to harass loyalists, and will give patriots grudging redress for popular actions against the Tories.

Tolerate: The government will not seek to discomfort loyalists, and will uphold the laws protecting them from illegal harassment.

Conciliate: The government will promote cooperation and reconciliation between patriots and loyalists, minimizing their differences and discouraging popular actions.

Recruit

After you "Go On" past the Administer phase, the game moves into the Recruit phase. During this phase, you will attempt to raise new forces to defend the revolution. You will set recruitment policies for each region, balancing the manpower needs of the state militias, the continental army, and the independent privateering ships that raided England's vital shipping lanes.

PRIVATEERS: The first type of recruitment you must consider is privateers, ships that put to sea to undertake a form of legitimized piracy against British vessels. Because these ships must harbor at established ports, information about privateering in any particular region is contained on the information displays about the cities of that region. Privateers

Recruit
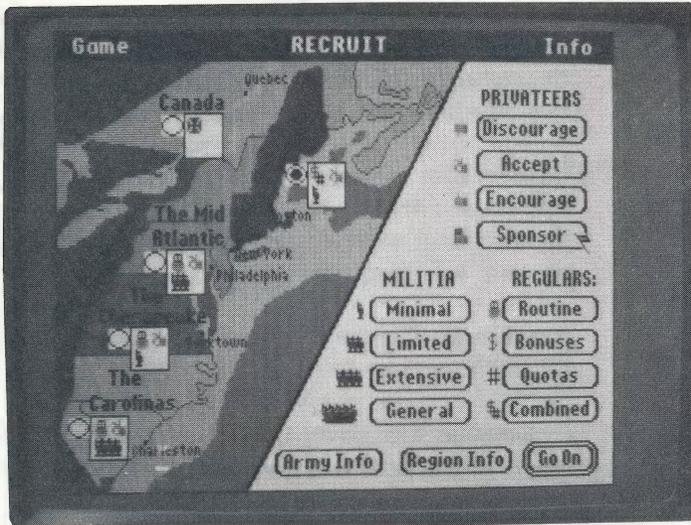
have two primary effects on the course of the game. In the first place, they can diminish the British will to fight. Britain is a maritime empire dependent on sea transport both for its commercial life and for its military power. While the Royal Navy can safeguard the supply lines of the armies in America from the privateers, it cannot protect all British merchant ships everywhere. As British ship losses mount, insurance rates climb, and the less enthusiasm the important merchant and financial communities, and the members of Parliament who represent them, will show for the war. In other words, as British shipping declines, so does the government's majority. In the second place, privateers can be a boon to the continental economy. Each merchant prize captured by the privateers brings wealth to the continental cause as well as to the privateers themselves.

Privateers are very cheap for the government in money; in fact, they cost nothing and actually return a profit! However, they do have another, serious cost: they siphon away manpower from the militia and army. Because privateering is safer and more profitable than service on land, it is all too easy to raise privateers. The problem comes when the recruiting officers try to fill the other ranks. In order to con-

trol, or at least influence, the flow of manpower into privateering, you should set a privateer policy for each region that will fit in with your other recruiting goals. The success of privateering reflects the number of privateers, the level of diplomatic support for the revolution (which opens up bases and sources of supply), and the administrative talent of the naval administration. The options are:

Discourage: The government's attitude toward privateers will be vaguely hostile, denying letters of marque authorizing it where politically possible, and placing administrative obstacles in the way of recruiting crews and supplying ships. These measures will hardly stop privateering activity, but they will cause fewer men to be drawn into it.

Accept: The government will not attempt to block privateering activities, but it will not do anything to promote them either.

Encourage: The government will seek to facilitate private initiatives to raise crews and outfit ships. This policy will insure a large number of privateers will be operating from this region.

Sponsor: The government will actually organize privateering expeditions, providing some minor funds and much administrative support. These efforts will result in the maximum number of ships possible putting to sea as privateers.

MILITIA: The next type of force whose level you must consider is the militia, part time soldiers available for limited duty within the region. They are relatively cheap since the states, not the continental government, pay for them, but their military usefulness is limited to defense of the area in which they are raised. Militia have only half the combat value of regular troops and they cannot be moved from one area to another. Also, to some extent militia recruitment siphons manpower that would otherwise be available for duty with the regular army. The actual numbers of men mobilized for a given population and a given mobilization level will vary according to the level of patriotism in the region, the level of privateering in the region,

the reputation of the American military, and the proximity of British troops.

You can mobilize the militia forces to the following levels:

Minimal: Only a small effort will be put into the militia forces, so only a few thousand men at most will be available if the region or its cities are invaded.

Limited: A somewhat more concerted effort will be made to raise and maintain militia, although the total numbers will still be small.

Extensive: A more formidable militia force will be maintained, although not all the region is capable of.

General: A total mobilization of militia eligible men will be undertaken, so that the region will have its maximum number of defenders.

REGULARS: The regulars are full-fledged soldiers, the core armies of the revolutionary forces. Regulars can be used both to defend and to attack. They can move with a general from one area to another, either to reinforce its defense or to seize it from British control. They are stronger in both attack and defense than the militia. The continental government must pay both to raise and supply regulars. The cost of recruitment depends on the level of patriotism in the region, the population, the recruitment strategy chosen by the player, and the administrative talent of the Chairman of the Army Committee or Secretary of War.

You can set each region's recruitment policies to one of four levels. These levels differ both in the degree of emphasis being placed on recruitment and the approach being taken to garner new recruits.

Routine: Recruitment officers will tour the region offering normal inducements of pay, prestige, and adventure. It can be expected to yield a modest crop of cannon fodder, but will not be too costly either.

Bonuses: New recruits will be offered significant rewards for enlisting, either cash payments or land grants. This is an expensive way to gain extra recruits, but it leaves everyone involved fairly happy.

Quotas: Recruitment goals will be mandated to local communities, which will then be left to fill them as they can. This is a cheaper way of gaining extra recruits, but it tends to wear down a region's patriotism.

Combined: Both quotas and bonuses will be utilized to obtain the maximum number of recruits possible. This approach is costly both financially and militarily, but does bring in every man who can be got.

Supply

In REVOLUTION '76 the drab but vital activity of supplying armed forces with weapons, ammunition, food, clothing, and the hundreds of other items needed by thousands of fighting men has been reduced to two basic questions: what level of material support will be provided to the continental forces, and what level of shipbuilding will supply vessels to the continental navy. During this phase you will set the supply level for the continental forces, and also set the building program for the incipient continental navy.

ARMY SUPPLY: An army, even a revolutionary army, marches on its stomach. The level of supply has a tremendous effect on the army's ability and willingness to fight. When American forces meet the British in battle, the American supply level is an important consideration in determining the victor.

If the army is poorly supplied, its morale will suffer. If morale falls too low due to prolonged deprivation, you may have a mutiny on your hands. Keep in mind, however, that supplying the army is one of the biggest expenses of the continental government. And the costs increase geometrically, rather than arithmetically, as higher levels are maintained. Also, because some military supplies require specialized manufacture, while others are controlled by

manufacturers who will not accept paper money, the continental government may not be able to maintain a high level of supply even if it is willing to spend the money. In general, the higher the desired level of supply, the stronger the support of the European powers must be in order to achieve it. The supply levels are:

Replete: The continental government is providing everything the army might desire, both a high level of material comfort and a surfeit of weapons and ammunition. Morale should be excellent and combat effectiveness very high.

Sufficient: The continental government is providing all the supplies the army really needs. Morale should be good and combat effectiveness fine.

Significant: The continental government is filling much of the army's needs, although a certain amount must be obtained through purely local activities. The morale and effectiveness of the army will still be degraded, but the worst danger of mutiny among the soldiery will be avoided.

Minimal: The continental government is providing the bare minimum needed to keep the army going. The men must forage for anything beyond this. If this is the supply level, the morale and combat effectiveness of the army will be poor and the possibility of a mutiny real.

NAVY BUILDING: While the Americans cannot possibly construct a navy capable of challenging the scores of British ships of the line that rule the waves, they can create a fleet of nimble frigates to harass the Royal Navy and undermine the international merchants' support for the war. Frigates are used mainly as a kind of heavy privateer. Aimed principally at commercial shipping, they are also capable of challenging the British warships that patrol the high seas to suppress the swarms of merchantmen-turned-privateers.

Ships, even frigates, are expensive. The vessels are costly and the cannons carried on each could equip several regiments. Even a modest building program will cost the revolutionary treasury sorely, and an all-out effort will probably create the government's largest single expense. Once the

ships are built, they must still be maintained, a smaller but by no means insignificant outlay.

Naval construction requires both special expertise and specialized facilities that cannot be created overnight. Each port has a limit to the number of warships that can be constructed there at a time, and this is the maximum amount of ships that can be built in a year. A program of this magnitude presents significant administrative challenges, so the number of ships constructed will vary somewhat according to the administrative talent of the Chairman of the Navy Committee.

Naval vessels, like naval yards, cannot be built in a day; in fact, it takes a full year for ships to be built in the game, and will be reported at the beginning of the Supply phase. The following year. The building levels are:

Maximum: The continental navy will increase as much as the dockyards can sustain. The next year will see a substantial rise in the number of frigates at sea.

Minimum: The Americans will utilize about one-third of the total shipbuilding capacity. This should at least replace any losses incurred over the next year, and may lead to some increase in the total number of frigates at sea.

No Building: The government will neither build nor retire ships. The only costs will be those of outfitting existing ships for another year of service.

Reduce Navy 1/3: The number of ships in service will be reduced by one-third. The primary reason for doing this is to reduce maintenance expenses.

Set these policies in the same way as you enact your other choices: click on the circle next to the name of the policy.

Campaign

During the Campaign phase, you direct the strategic operations of the continental armies by dispatching generals to defend or attack areas. The map shows the five regions and

six cities, and the icons associated with each area tell you what type of force is present in each: a blue soldier indicates the presence of American regulars, a red soldier means that the British army is in town (or in the region), a brown soldier stands for an American militia force, and a green soldier tells you that the local Tories have mobilized (note the KEY on right side of the screen). Furthermore, a marching soldier tells you that troops have been ordered to move from the area, while a profile of a general tells you that a leader has been ordered to command the defense there.

You'll need more information than the icons can give to make intelligent decisions, however. You'll need to know how many of each type of force is present, who the commanding officer is and how the morale of each side is holding up. There are two ways to find these out. One way is through the Armies display on the Info menu. A quicker way is to use the Origin and Destination information buttons.

The "Origin" and "Destination" information buttons allow you quick access to information about places you're thinking of moving from or to. There are two circles associated with each location on the map. To specify an origin, click on the green circle on the left; to specify a destination, click on the red circle on the right. To find out about your origin or destination, click on the Origin or Destination information button in the lower right section of the screen. A display will appear which will show:

GENERAL: Who the commanding officer is, if any.

REGULARS: How many troops each side has stationed in the region or city.

MILITIA/TORIES: How many local forces each side has. Remember, these fighters cannot move, and only count for half as much as the regular forces.

MORALE: How each side's fighting spirit is holding up. The possible levels are:
- Mutinous   • Stolid
- Low   • High

SUPPLY (Americans only): The level of supply being provided to American forces. The possible levels are:
- Minimal
- Significant
- Sufficient
- Replete

FORT: The value of a city's fortifications to whoever controls it at the begionning of a campaign phase. Fortifications can boost a side's strength significanly. The levels of fortification are:
- None
- Minor
- Major
- World-class

TRAINING (Americans only): The level of formal military training the *regulars* have. This is a very important factor in battle: only fully-trained regulars are equal to the British in battle. The levels of training are:
- None
- Little
- Partial
- Full

POTENTIAL MILITIA (Americans only): If the *British* control an area, this number indicates the size of the milita who will fight *if* American regulars move in.

There are three other information buttons, located above Origin and Destination. Clicking on the Move information button gives you information about who is moving from the origin currently selected on the map (the green button). Clicking on the Defend information button gives you information about the general assigned to lead the defense of the destination selected on the map (the red button). Clicking on the "Brits" information button gives information about any British movement out of the destination currently selected on the map (the red button).

Running the War

Once you've sized up the situation the time will come to make your military decisions. You may find it necessary to move troops to an area under enemy attack, or you may want to simply assign a general to lead the defense of an area where troop strength is adequate. Although REVOLUTION '76 is more than just a war game, the fact remains

that, no matter how cleverly you've designed your government, you must win on the battlefield to win the game.

MOVING & DEFENDING

To move troops, first specify their Origin, by selecting a green button on the map, and their Destination, by selecting a red button on the map. The destination cannot be more than one region away from the origin (you can move from and/or to cities *within* adjacent regions). You then use the buttons in the upper-righthand side of the screen to choose the number of troops you want to move. You can select the number in two ways:

1. Select a general quantity, and let the computer determine the exact number. The general quantities are selected via the labelled buttons, and are:
• A Few (about 25%)   • Most (about 75%)
• Some (about 50%)   • All (100%)

2. Select an exact number by pressing the "+" and "–" buttons.

Whichever way you choose (you can combine them), the number of troops you are assigning will be displayed between the "+" and the "–" buttons.

In general, troops will move where ordered, unless strong enemy forces block their path. Americans can move to any region that is adjacent to the region they are moving from if their destination is under American control. If a city is held by the Americans in a region held by the British, American troops cannot be moved there. But the converse is not true: if a region is held by the Americans, the British can move to a city within that region if that city is held by the British. Furthermore, because the British control the waters they can easily move out of a region by sea. The Americans will only be able to do this once they (or an ally) wrest control of the American waters from the British. When you're ready to go, click on the Move button. This will bring up a new screen through which you will assign a general to command your troops.

If you want to defend an area under attack, or just want to place a general in command of a region or city you already control, click on the red destination button of the area and then click on the Defend button. This will bring up the same screen that the Move button brings up.

ASSIGN GENERALS

This screen displays portraits of ten American generals, along with each one's potential new assignment and his current orders. There is also an Info button at the bottom of the screen which enables you to get the same information that you can get through the Generals display on the Info menu: the man's home state, popularity, experience, generalship, leadership, and, if applicable, his current command, orders, origin, destination and the number of troops under him. Pick a general the same way you choose a politician: click on the circle in the upper left-hand corner of his portrait. To assign him, click on the Assign button at the bottom of the screen.

A general who assumes command in a region as a result of a Move command will lend his generalship rating to any combat in that region during his command. He will also affect attrition rates, morale and mutinies with his Leadership rating.

A general's presence is not necessary to defend an area, for the forces in an area will always defend themselves if the British move in. However, a general does add his generalship value to the defense, and his leadership will help hold the army together from year to year. Thus, it is a good idea to send a general to any important area in danger of a British attack. If a general is already in command of a region when another general is ordered in, the player will be asked to indicate which is to be the commander.

As with politicians, the regions of the country are very conscious of the balance of leadership in the continental army. Thus, you should consciously strive to maintain a balance of appointments between generals from New England, the Middle States, and the South (the Chesapeake and the Carolinas). If your appointments are imbalanced in some way,

representatives from the slighted region may ask you to revise your appointments. If you decide to do this, click on the YES box on the prompt screen. This will bring up the Campaign screen again. Consider your move carefully: relieving a general of his command is a fairly serious move, and will antagonize both the general and his sectional supporters.

Note: If you want to *cancel* a general's orders go to the Assign Leaders screen (you can always get there by selecting an area to defend). Select the general whose orders you want to cancel. Click on the Cancel button. If you do not want to make an assignment, select a general who is unassigned and select Cancel. The program will take you back to the map.

BATTLES
When American and British troops, including regulars, militia, and/or Tories, occupy the same area after movement, combat ensues. Combat is affected by the number of troops on each side, the types of troops on each side, the generalship of each commander (if any), the morale of each army, and the American supply level. Battles have two results: troops are eliminated, and the survivors of one side or the other retreat. Battles usually result in losses on both sides, with the loser taking the greater losses and being forced to retreat. The losers will attempt to retreat to a friendly controlled area but if none is available all the defeated troops are eliminated. Note that the rules governing retreats mean that generally the Americans must be able to retreat to an area in the same or in an adjacent region, without being blocked by intervening British, while the British can retreat by sea to any area they control. However, if the British lose control of American waters, the situation is reversed: the Americans can retreat anywhere, while the British can only retreat to an area they can reach overland. Note: since Tories and militia cannot move from their area of origin, they cannot retreat, but are entirely eliminated instead.

CONTROL
A side controls an area if it has troops remaining in it at the end of the campaign phase. The Americans must control a

region in order to administer it, raise troops in it, or operate in it. If the Americans control a region but not the city or cities in it, the economic and recruiting values of the region are reduced in proportion to the size of the cities' tax base and population.

Either side can achieve a total military victory by gaining control of all areas. And in general, the British position in peace negotiations will be affected by the balance of controlled areas. The efficacy of American diplomatic efforts is affected by the number of regions the colonies hold.

If the Americans are allied to a European country and that country's navy gains control of American waters, then American troops can move from any area to any other area during that turn. Note that unless a European country has gained control of American waters, the British enjoy this freedom of movement. If another power gains control of American waters, then the British are bound by the limitations on movement that usually apply to the Americans, while the Americans enjoy the freedom of movement that usually applies to the British.

Diplomacy

Because of the tremendous economic and military strength of Britain, the American revolutionaries should try to garner as much support from other European powers as possible. This is done during the Diplomacy phase. To gain support you must decide what terms you wish to pursue with each country and then designate your ambassadors. The politician designated as ambassador to a country will contribute his negotiating talent to the diplomacy between the two countries. As with other political appointments, regional and ideological balances of the appointees is critical.

The big three European countries, France, Spain and Holland can potentially play a key role in the American Revolution, and other countries can contribute in smaller ways.

FRANCE is the most important potential ally. It has the largest treasury, the largest army, and the largest fleet of all

the European powers. The chief rival of England since the 1400s, France lost a world-wide colonial war to England in the middle of the 1700s and is looking for revenge. However, its navy is quite inferior to the Royal Navy, so its potential value is limited unless it can combine with one or more of the other significant powers.

SPAIN, once the world's greatest power, has fallen upon hard times. However, it still has a considerable army and, more important, a large fleet that, when combined with France's, creates a combined force that outnumbers England's. Furthermore, like France, Spain has a grudge against Britain: Gibraltar, the British fortress on the Spanish coast that dominates the passage from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea.

HOLLAND was also once a great power, but has fallen into the ranks of the secondary powers as well. Nevertheless, it is a rich country with a consequential navy that can offer limited support of real value. Like the others, it dislikes Britain. Its complaint is that British efforts to keep military supplies from America interfere with freedom of commercial navigation, vital for the mercantile Dutch economy. Holland cannot defeat Britain by itself, but it can be a significant addition to an anti-British coalition.

In addition to these potentially major players, there are a number of other powers of lesser potential significance. You cannot approach them directly, but instead can designate a single ambassador to work "at large," to see what he can come up with. The main secondary powers are European "public opinion," the British opposition, Prussia, and Russia, grouped together under the name *Others* for the purposes of the game. If the ambassador makes a favorable impression abroad, "Friends of Liberty" at courts everywhere will support the Americans, which can help their diplomacy. If the ambassador can make contact with the British opposition, he may be able to help them move a block of a dozen or two votes in Commons away from the government. Prussia has no navy to speak of and has traditionally allied with England, but its king, Frederick the Great, aspires to leadership in Germany, and dislikes the practice

of the petty German princes of hiring out their soldiers as mercenaries. It is possible that he can be induced to intervene diplomatically against any British attempts to recruit regiments from this source, which will otherwise very likely contribute a large number of troops to the British army. Queen Catherine the Great of Russia is looking for ways to extend her influence westwards, and will be happy to take advantage of Britain's discomfort to do so. Specifically, she may be induced to form a "League of Armed Neutrality" to protect freedom of navigation from British interference.

PROPOSAL

There are several levels of relations that can exist between each European power and the American government. To choose one, click on the circle under the name of a country, then click on the name of the proposed relationship. The icon symbolizing your choice will appear to the right of the circle; the icon on the left stands for the current level of relations between the country in question and the Americans. The relationships you can propose are:

Covert Support: The government is helping the Americans quietly, primarily by supplying arms. This limited support can be quite valuable, and because it is secret can be gained even before the Americans have declared their independence.

Overt Support: The government is helping the Americans openly. This help includes not only money and arms, but also the use of their ports as privateering bases. This overt support will only be extended when America has explicitly committed itself to independence.

Co-Belligerency: Co-belligerency means that the other country has also gone to war against the British, but without any specific agreement to cooperate with the Americans. The power will help the revolutionaries with overt support, and by fighting the British elsewhere it will draw off considerable forces that would otherwise be available for service in America. The European powers will only risk co-belligerency if Britain appears to be strained by the war in America.

Alliance: The strongest form of support, an alliance means that the other country will supply financial backing, munitions, and privateering bases, will undertake operations against England in Europe or other colonial areas, and, finally, will work directly with the Americans on both land and sea. An expeditionary force of some thousands of regulars may be sent to serve with the Americans, and the country's navy will try to gain control of American waters. This level of cooperation will only be forthcoming if the Americans appear to be winning the war.

You will also have to assign an ambassador to negotiate with the British for an end to the war. In this case, your ambassador will propose peace terms. The possible terms, displayed at the bottom right of the screen, are:

Pardons: All the Americans want is a promise that the participants in the revolution will not be tried for treason. Otherwise, they will accept British terms, which means the complete subordination of the colonies to Parliament and the King. This is a last ditch proposal that should be offered only if the alternative is total military defeat.

Autonomy: This is the American position at the outset of the game, and represents the conditions most Americans originally hoped to achieve. In this case, the Americans remain colonial subjects of the British crown, but the British grant them a privileged place within the Empire, with extensive rights to self-government.

Independence: The Americans will no longer accept their ties to the British Empire; now they insist on British recognition of their place among the independent nations. The thirteen colonies will cease to be colonies, and will take their place as the United States among the independent nations of the world. The British army will evacuate all positions remaining within its borders.

Expansion: The Americans want not just independence, but control of North America, including Canada and all territories west of the Mississippi. This represents the maximum possible victory for the Americans, a total success.

DISPATCH AMBASSADORS: Once you've set your terms you have to assign representatives to try to obtain them. You do this by clicking on the Go On box, which brings up the Dispatch Ambassadors screen. This screen looks exactly like the Assign Leaders screen, except that the icons at the bottom of the screen indicate countries instead of committee assignments. The selection process proceeds in the same way, and your concerns should be similar: choosing men of strong negotiating ability (especially for France, Spain and Britain, the most critical posts) and balancing the different regions and factions.

There are two ways that the game can end:
MILITARY VICTORY
One side or the other has won control over all five regions and six cities of North America.

NEGOTIATED SETTLEMENT
The two sides have agreed on terms during the Diplomacy phase. In this case, the war, and the game, end because the two sides have agreed on a basis for peace. This outcome occurs if the British proposal is the same as, or more favorable to the Americans than the American proposal. The final result when this happens will be peace on the basis of the American proposal.

For example, if the Americans send an ambassador seeking autonomy, and the British have decided that they should offer autonomy, then the game will end on the basis of autonomy. On the other hand, if the Americans send an ambassador seeking autonomy, but the British have decided to offer independence, then the game ends on the basis of autonomy. This negotiating process has two implications that should be kept in mind. First, if you offer mild terms you may find that the British accept, precluding the possibility of achieving a higher level of victory. Secondly, if you offer terms that are less favorable to the Americans than the British are ready to accept, you will have robbed the Americans of the full fruits of their success.

Of course, if you set the Americans' terms too high you may lose the opportunity to win a favorable peace, and

may find the game ending with the Americans in a worse position than before.

If either of the above conditions has been fulfilled, the program will then proceed with the game end sequence, in which victory will be determined and the winner announced.

Levels of Victory
There are five levels of victory on which the game can end. They are covered in detail on page 40 - 41. Basically, it is a negotiated settlement of the terms that you offered to the British.

Surrender: The player cannot propose this level because it represents the total defeat of the American cause: the colonies will be placed under British control and the leaders of the rebellion will be tried and executed for treason. The British may demand this result, but the only way they can impose it is through a total military victory.

Pardons: This result leaves the American colonies in the same position as surrender, but guarantees the personal, if not political safety of the leading rebels.

Autonomy: The Americans have won a hollow victory. The colonies are still part of the British Empire, and have not really changed their status from the beginning of the revolution.

Independence: The Americans have won complete independence. The United States of America stands as a sovereign nation, and are no longer colonies. This is result is the equivalent of the actual historical result.

Expansion: The Americans win independance, plus control of lands beyond the original thirteen colonies. The United States may have annexed lands in all of North America, including Canada, and territories east of the Mississippi. This represents a total victory for the rebels.

VICTORY EVALUATION

If the player achieves independence or expansion, his performance will be further rated on how well this has been done. The criteria are: the level of victory won, the number of years it took, the number of regions and cities controlled, the levels of patriotism and loyalism, the level of government organization, the shape the economy is in, the level of foreign support, and the number of diplomatic promises broken. A final, overall rating is then given. The possible levels are:

- Poor
- Fair
- Good
- Excellent

INFORMATION DISPLAYS

The information displays are accessible at all times during play, and contain overview information about the U.S. GOVERNMENT, the five REGIONS, thirteen STATES, six CITIES, foreign COUNTRIES with which the Americans have or would like to have relations (as well as Britain, whose relationship to America the revolutionaries would like to change), the ARMIES in each region and each city, American GENERALS and POLITICIANS, and British GENERALS. All can be reached by clicking on the Info menu, holding the mouse button down, highlighting your choice, and then releasing. The information available is described in detail below.

Organization Information Display
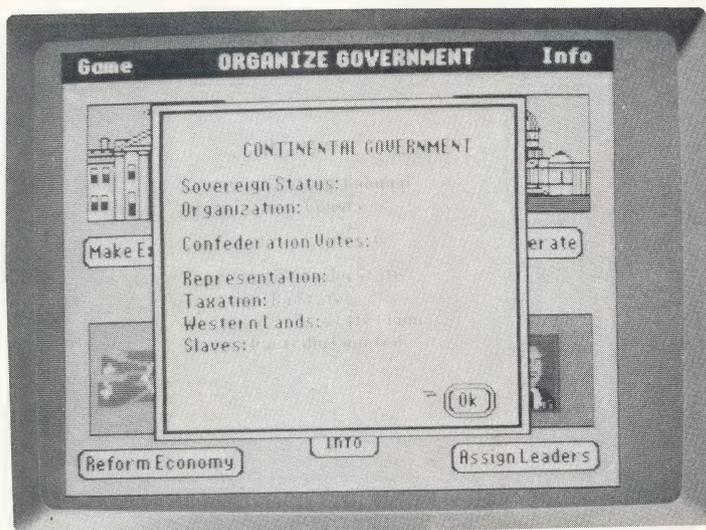
Government
Describes the ORGANIZATION, FINANCES, ARMY and NAVY status and FOREIGN RELATIONS situation of the rebellious American government.

ORGANIZATION
• Sovereign Status: Whether the thirteen colonies are:

Colonial: which means that they have neither declared independence during the Organization phase nor gone beyond requesting recognition of their Autonomy within the British Empire in the Diplomacy phase;

Adrift: which means that they have been declared "in rebellion" by His Majesty's government; or

Independent: which means that they have declared independence from Great Britain.

• Government Organization: Whether the continental government consists of:

Congress: a body of representatives of thirteen autonomous colonies/states;

Confederation: meaning the thirteen states have formally united and empowered Congress to act as their common government; or

Executive: meaning the congress has created permanent executive departments to replace its standing committees.

• Confederation Votes: The number of states that have voted in favor of confederation.

• Representation: The basis for allocating the number of votes in the congress. The three possibilities are:

By State: each state has one vote. This is the basis that is in effect at the beginning of play.

Proportional: each state has a number of votes that reflects the proportion of its population in the total population of the United States.

Bicameral: the congress consists of two chambers, one of which is based on a fixed, equal representation of states, while the other is based on proportional representation.

• Taxation: The method by which the continental government can raise funds. The two possible ways are:

Supported By States: The continental government has no authority to levy taxes, and must rely on contributions from the state governments. In the game, if this is the tax system in force the player's tax levies will be modified by each region according to its willingness to pay. This is the method that is in effect at the beginning of the game.

Federal Taxation: The continental government can raise money itself by levying taxes. In the game, if the government has this power, the level of taxation the player levies is the level that will be collected.

• Western Lands: The status of the extensive and often competing claims to lands beyond the Appalachian Mountains based on colonial charters held by various states. The two alternatives are:

State Claims: As the game begins, the existing states have claims to most of the lands east of the Mississippi, which only need adjusting by the central government to reconcile competing claims to the same territories.

Federal Ownership: Most of the lands beyond the Appalachians will be ceded to the continental government, to be administered by that body until they are settled enough to form new states.

• Slaves: The extent to which black slaves will be counted in apportioning taxes and, if appropriate, votes in the Continental Congress. They can be:

Not Counted: The slaves will not be counted at all, since they are considered the property of their owners and have no independent political standing within the slaveholding states;

Fully Counted: The slaves will be counted equally with freemen, since they are inhabitants of the states whose interests will be affected by continental decisions; or

Partially Counted: Five slaves will be arbitrarily given the value of three freemen in terms of taxation and representation. This is the system that was used by the Continental Congress to apportion taxes before the Articles of Confederation were drafted.

FINANCES: Succinct description of the new government's economic health, including:

• Finance Chairman/Secretary of the Treasury: The name of the leader currently serving as the head of the financial administration of the continental government. The title is "Committee Chair" if the government's organization level is Congress or Confederation; it is "Treasury Secretary" if the level is Executive.

• Income: The amount of money raised by the continental government so far during the current year, in thousands of dollars.

• Spending: The total amount of money expended by the continental government so far this year.

• Price Level: The extent to which prices are subject to inflation. Inflation is determined at the end of each year by dividing the total income by the total spending. Since the government has to print money to cover any gap between spending and income, after the first year or two the value of continental currency will fall by the amount of the excess printed. The value of currency is expressed by the ratio of face value to real value. At the beginning of the game, with no inflation, the ratio is 1/1.

• Economic Policy: The economic reform effort currently in effect, if any. The possible reform efforts are:

No Economic Policy: The government has a completely *laissez faire* attitude, letting the natural interplay of economic forces determine the fate of the economy;

Punish Profiteers: The government is attempting to curb price increases by prosecuting those who seek to profit

from inflation by raising their prices beyond the rise of their own expenses;

Impose Price Controls: In order to control the rise in costs, the government is setting the selling price for goods and services;

Issue New Currency: Recognizing that public confidence in, and hence the value of, continental money has dropped irreparably, the government has issued a new paper money to serve as legal tender. People holding the older currency can exchange it for new money at a predetermined rate, but because several old dollars will be needed to get one new dollar, this measure amounts to a partial repudiation by the government of its debt.

Repudiate Debt: Recognizing that it will never be able to honor all its obligations, the government has declared that it will not even try to repay its debts.

ARMY: How things are faring with the continental land forces.

• War Chairman/Secretary of War: Names the current leader in charge of military affairs, with the exact title reflecting whether or not the government has organized an executive branch.

• Total Continentals: The total number of continental regular soldiers (militia are not counted).

• Supply Level: The current level of support being supplied the continental armed forces.

• Supply Costs: The total dollar cost of supplying the current level of supply to the current total of continentals.

• Prestige: The reputation of the continental army, which reflects its record of victories and defeats against British regulars. The possible levels are:

Despised: The continentals are considered a joke;

Questioned: The value of the continental army is in doubt, either because it has not yet fought or because its record is not very good;

Respected: The continentals have acquitted themselves fairly well on the battlefield, and are therefore regarded as a serious challenge to the Redcoats;

Feared: The continentals are so successful that they are clearly equal to their British opponents.

NAVY: The military situation on the high seas.

• Navy Chairman/Secretary of the Navy: The leader currently responsible for the continental navy.

• Total Frigates: The total number of frigates in the navy. This does not include privateers or ships under construction.

• Construction Capacity: The potential number of frigates that could be built at once by all the ports controlled by the Americans.

• Building Program: The level of shipbuilding activity currently being undertaken by the continental government.

• Under Construction: The number of frigates currently being built for the American navy.

• Naval Costs: The cost of the current fleet and building program given the nation's construction capacity.

FOREIGN RELATIONS: The current state of the Americans' relations with both the Crown and with actual or potential allies.

• Foreign Relations Chairman/Secretary of State: The leader currently in charge of administering relations between the revolutionary government and other countries.

• U.S. Peace Terms: The continental government's current proposal for America's relationship to Great Britain. The possibilities are:

Pardons: The thirteen colonies will accept a subordinate role in the British Empire in return for amnesty for all Americans who participated in revolutionary activities;

Autonomy: The thirteen colonies will remain part of the British Empire, but will be responsible for their own internal administration, free from interference by Parliament, and guaranteed the same protections from royal power enjoyed by Englishmen;

Independence: The British government will recognize the independence of the former colonies and their union as the United States of America.

Expansion: The British government will not only recognize the independence and union of its former colonies, but will cede to it Canada and/or extensive tracts in the Ohio Valley and Great Lakes region.

• France, Spain, Holland: Gives the current level of relations between the United States and the named government. The possible levels are:

No Ties: The two governments have no relationship

Covert Support: The government named is secretly supporting the revolution, primarily with money and arms;

Overt Support: The government is openly supporting the United States: it has recognized its government, is supplying money and weapons, and will allow American privateers to use its harbors;

Co-Belligerency: The other country is at war with Britain as well, although it and the United States are not formally allied. The ties are all those of Overt Support, and the country ties down significant British military and naval resources that would otherwise be free to fight in America.

Alliance: The United States and the country named have a formal military alliance. This has all the benefits of Co-Belligerency, and the foreign nation also supplies some regular soldiers directly to the fight in America.

• Commitment: Each of the named countries may request a special commitment by the United States in exchange for a higher level of cooperation than it would be willing to give normally. The levels are:

No Special Commitment: The United States has not accepted such a deal with the country named on the line above.

Newfoundland to France: The United States has agreed not to make peace until Britain grants France control of the lucrative fisheries off Newfoundland.

Gibraltar to Spain: The United States has agreed not to make peace until Britain returns Gibraltar to Spain.

Neutral Shipping Guaranteed: The United States has agreed not to make peace until Britain guarantees the security of neutral ships on the high seas from search and seizure by belligerents during a war.

REGIONS: These charts contain the following information about the five regions: NEW ENGLAND, MID-ATLANTIC, CHESAPEAKE, CAROLINAS, and CANADA:

• States: Names the states that make up the region.

• Cities: Names the major city or cities in the region that play a role in the game.

• Population: Gives the total population of non-slaves in the region.

• Slaves: Gives the total number of slaves in the region.

• Tax Base: The total amount of wealth in the region.

• Tax Rate: The current level of taxation in the region. The possible levels are:

Light: Tax levies amount to less than 1% of the tax base;

Moderate: Tax levies amount to between 1% and 5% of the tax base;

High: Tax levies amount to between 5% and 10% of the tax base;

Crisis: Tax levies amount to over 10% of the tax base.

• Tax Returns: The exact amount returned by the current tax rate. It reflects not only the rate and the base, but also the patriotism of the region and the abilities of the Treasury Secretary or Finance Committee Chairman.

• Militia Mobilization: Gives the mobilization level currently in effect for the region. The possible mobilization levels are:

Minimal: Virtually no militia are available for service

Limited: Some militia are available;

Extensive: Most potential militia are available for service;

General: All possible militia have been recruited and are available for service.

• Recruitment: Gives the recruitment effort to enlist new continental regulars currently in effect for the region. The possible recruitment policies are:

Routine: No special effort is being made to recruit new continental regulars, although recruitment officers are active and may enroll some new troops;

Bonuses: Special enticements of land or money are being offered to induce men to enlist;

Quotas: Recruitment goals have been imposed which the states are expected to fill using a limited form of draft;

Combined: In order to recruit maximum manpower into continental service, the government is offering both special enticements and imposing quotas for enlistments.

• Tory Policy: The government's current policy toward Loyalists. Tory policies are:

Conciliatory: The government is actively minimizing the issues of independence and loyalty, and protecting suspected Tories from radical revolutionaries;

Tolerant: The government has adopted a neutral attitude toward the Tories, neither courting nor combatting them;

Prosecutory: The government is actively seeking to suppress loyalism within the structure of careful and deliberate legal actions;

Persecutory: The government is harassing suspected Tories through all available means, using its legal powers and accepting and even promoting popular mob actions.

• Patriotism: The level of active support for the revolutionary government. The levels include:

None: support for the revolutionaries is practically non-existent;

Weak: Only a little support exists for the revolution;

Strong: A good number of people actively support the revolution;

Solid: Supporters of the revolution are both numerous and active.

• Loyalism: The level of active support for the British. The levels are the same as for patriotism given above, but indicate the degree of opposition to the revolution.

STATES: Displays a map with information on each of the thirteen states (although of course they're not officially states until you declare independence).

• Free Population.

• Slaves.

• Western Lands: Shows each state's claims to western lands, if any.

• Confederation Vote: Shows whether the state voted "yea" or "nay" on the Articles of Confederation.

CITIES: These boxes display relevant information for each of the six port cities that play a role in the game.

• Population: If the city and the region it is in are controlled by different sides, then the total population of the region will be reduced accordingly.

• Tax Base: The amount of wealth contained in the city. If the city and the region are controlled by opposite sides, the tax base of the region will be reduced accordingly.

• Port: The nature of the city's port, which determines its potential for ship construction, the number of privateers that can operate from it, its economic importance, and its attractiveness to the British for use as a base. The different types of port are:

Major Port: The city has a large port that makes it a vital economic center, a strong naval base, and an attractive base for the British.

Minor Port: The city's port is of limited capacity, making it of limited economic importance and strategic interest.

• Privateer Potential: The maximum number of ships that can sail from the port to prey upon British shipping.

• Active Privateers: The number of ships from the city actually engaged in privateering.

• Shipbuilding Capacity: The maximum number of frigates that can be constructed per year at the port.

• Fortifications: The significance of fortifications for any defense of the city. The possible sizes are:

No Fort: The city has no significant fortifications;

Minor Fort: The city has only limited fortifications;

Major Fort: The city has extensive fortifications;

World Class Fort: The city is heavily fortified and has natural features that make it even stronger.

• Control: Identifies the side, American or British, that currently has military control of the city.

COUNTRIES: This chart gives statistics onBRITAIN, FRANCE, SPAIN, HOLLAND and OTHERS, the latter being a catch-all for various European countries that could have helped the Americans. The information on Britain is slightly different than that on the other countries since America's relationship with Britain was quite different from its relationship to the others—precisely the opposite, in fact.

BRITAIN
• Population: The total population of the British Isles.

• American Policy: The peace terms presently proposed by the British government. They include all of the terms that can be proposed by the player, plus an additional one: Surrender. Surrender, the British policy at the start of the game, simply means that the Americans should lay down their arms and submit to the lawful authority of His Majesty's government.

• Government: The political party backed by a majority of the members of Parliament. The two parties are:

The Tory Party: Not connected to the Tory faction in America, the Tory Party is the governing party at the beginning of the revolution. It is committed to keep the American colonies in the Empire, even if this means war.

The Whig Party: The opposition party at the beginning of the revolution, the Whigs were persistent critics of the Tory's American policy. Sympathetic to the Americans' protests, they favored leniency before war broke out and peace once it had started, even if this meant granting the American independence.

• Government Majority: The number of votes *more* than the opposition that the government party controls. The stronger the support for the government is, the larger its majority. As this majority shrinks, the government becomes weaker until, if it drops below 1, the government falls and the opposition forms a new government. In a sense, this is the most critical indicator for the revolutionaries; if the Tory government loses its majority and the Whigs take over, it is almost certain that the British will recognize American independence.

• Government Revenues: The total income of the British government.

• Total Army: The total number of troops available for deployment around the world. Because of British interests elsewhere, only a fraction of these can be sent against America, but this is a measure of British power *vis-a-vis* the European states.

• Troops for America: From Britain's total army, the number of troops stationed in Britain actually available for service in America in the coming year.

• Ships of the Line: The total number of ships of the line in the Royal Navy. These were the capital ships of the era, equivalent to aircraft carriers today or battleships in World War I, and they were far stronger than the light frigates the Americans could build. The Royal Navy thus enjoyed total superiority over the Americans. However, the French,

Spanish, and Dutch did have sizable numbers of ships of the line, and in a coalition could challenge British control of the sea lanes. Thus, a country's number of ships of the line is an important measure of its international power.

• Ships in America: The number of British ships of the line stationed in America. It serves as both a general indicator of the strength of the British naval forces deployed against the Americans and as the naval power that any European nation allied with America must beat in order to seize control of American waters from the British.

FRANCE, SPAIN, HOLLAND, OTHERS
• American Policy: The current level of relationship sought by the country.

• Government Revenue: The total income of the nation's government. Only a fraction of this is available for military activities, but it is a good overall indicator of a country's war-making potential.

• Subsidy to U.S.: The amount of money being paid by this country to the American rebels as a grant or as a loan. Subsidies will be granted in ascending amounts as part of Overt Support, Co-belligerency, and Alliance.

• Total Army: The total number of land troops deployed by the country's armed forces. In all cases, these face significant threats from other European land powers, so only a fraction are available for overseas duty, but this is the most basic measure of a country's power.

• Troops to America: The number of troops available as reinforcements for the continental army. Only countries actually allied to America will have any troops for America; co-belligerents will contribute to the land war only indirectly, by drawing off British reinforcements that would otherwise be sent to America.

• Ships of the Line: The number of capital ships in the country's navy. An overall indicator of the country's military strength.

• Ships of the Line in America: The number of ships of the line actually stationed in American waters. Only countries allied with America will have ships of the line in America.

ARMIES: Displays the American and British military situation in the five American regions and six cities.

• General (American)/Commander (British): A leader's abilities affect the army's losses due to desertions, its likelihood of staging a mutiny, and its performance in combat. Generals are necessary in order to move a force of regulars from one area to another during the campaign phase.

• Regulars: The number of fully trained, full-time soldiers on each side in the area. Only regulars can move with a general from one area to another.

• Militia/Tories: The number of part-time soldiers available to each side in the area. Militia are the irregular forces of the revolutionaries; Tories are the local Loyalists who fight for the British. Neither militia nor Tories can move from one area to another, although the British may recruit some Loyalists into their regular forces during the recruitment phase.

• Morale: The attitude of the soldiers. Victories and/or plentiful supplies will raise morale; defeats and/or deprivation will decrease it. Morale affects the army's desertion rate and its performance in battle.

• American Supply: Gives the supply level of the American army, an important determinant of a force's power.

• Fort: If the area is a city, the value of the fort will be displayed under the forces occupying it.

• American Training: The level of training the military has. This is a very important factor in battle.

AMERICAN GENERALS: These are the dossiers on the American leaders who are available to command the revolutionary armies.

• Name.

• Home State: Where a general is from is important politically, for each region jealously monitors the regional balance among the revolutionary leadership, and patriotism will decline in a region that feels slighted.

• Popularity: Appointing a popular general will increase support for the revolution, and will thereby offset the effects of regional loyalties to some extent. The levels of popularity are:

Unknown: The general has no reputation, and his appointment will have no special political effect;

Disgraced: The general has suffered a humiliating defeat, and his appointment will be taken as a sign of desperation, decreasing support of the revolution;

Acceptable: The general is widely known, but does not inspire a strong reaction one way or another;

Popular: The general is well known and is well regarded. His appointment will be politically beneficial. Conversely, replacement of a popular general will reduce patriotism, unless his replacement is of equal or higher status.

A Hero: The general is universally acclaimed. Appointment will inspire much confidence; replacement will be poorly received.

• Generalship: The general's military skill. The higher the skill, the better his troops will perform on the battlefield.

• Leadership: The general's ability to inspire the confidence of his troops. The higher the leadership, the less the army will be plagued by desertions and mutinies.

• Command: The area in which the general is currently in command of friendly forces.

• Orders: The general's current orders, if any. The possible orders are:

Move: The general is leading a group of regulars from one area to another, taking command of all regulars and militia in the destination area if so ordered;

Defend: The general is taking command of the regulars and militia already present in an area.

• Origin: The area from which the general is moving an army if his orders are to move.

• Destination: The area into which the general is to lead his forces if his orders are to move, or the area he is to lead the defense of, if his orders are to defend.

• Troops: The number of regulars that a General ordered to move has under his command during movement.

POLITICIANS: These displays contain information about the leaders available to fill political posts in the revolutionary movement.

• Home State: Where a politician comes from is important, since each region wants to make sure that it gets as strong a representation as possible, and will become alienated from the revolutionary cause if it is too badly underrepresented.

• Faction: In addition to geographic divisions, the strength of the revolutionary movement is affected by the balance of the ideological factions within it. The two factions are:

Radicals: The strongly revolutionary patriots, who are determined to break away from Britain. They are particularly strong in New England and the Chesapeake regions.

Moderates: The more cautious patriots, who oppose British policies but are reluctant to end the political ties to Britain. They are particularly strong in the Middle States and the Carolinas.

• Administrative Talent: The leader's ability to manage the day-to-day affairs of a department of the government. The higher the ability, the better the results of activities under his supervision.

• Negotiating Talent: The leader's ability to persuade others to a point of view or course of action. The higher the ability, the more likely foreign governments to which the leader is ambassador will agree to American proposals.

• Current Service: The type of position the leader currently holds. The possible types are:

Congress: The leader has no special position currently;

Committee Chair/Executive: The leader currently serves as head of one of the administrative branches of government: finance, army, navy, or foreign affairs. The difference between Committee Chair and Executive reflects the country's organizational level: leaders are chairmen of congressional committees unless an Executive has been created.

Ambassador: The leader is currently representing the United States to a foreign country, either to negotiate peace (with Britain) or to seek support for the American cause (from France, Spain, Holland, or Others).

• Assignment: The politician's specific assignment.

Treasury: The leader supervises the collection of taxes;

Army: The leader supervises recruitment of troops and provision of supplies;

Navy: The leader supervises the building of ships and the activities of the active navy;

Foreign/State: The leader supervises relations with all other countries;

Ambassador: Negotiates relations with the specific country to he has been sent.

BRITISH GENERALS: Dossiers giving information about the generals who could potentially lead forces against the revolutionary armies.

• Seniority: The order in which generals will be picked to command.

• Status: The regard in which a general is held. The possible levels are the same as for the American generals.

• Generalship: The general's military skill. You will want to keep an eye on this to make sure that there are no serious mis-matches between your generals and their British adversaries.

• Command: The area in which the general is currently in command of forces.

• Orders: The general's current orders. The possible orders are:

Move: The general is leading a group of regulars from one area to another, taking command of all regulars and Tories in the destination area.

Defend: The general is taking command of the regulars and Tories already present in an area.

• Origin: The area from which the general is to move an army if his orders are to move.

• Destination: The area into which the General is to lead his forces if his orders are to move, or the area he is to lead the defense of, if his orders are to defend.

• Troops: The number of regulars that a general ordered to move has under his command during movement.

In general, remember that the revolution was a war, but it was much more than just a war. It was a political struggle within the American population; it was a diplomatic contest played out, on a world scale; it was an economic challenge to both America and Britain; and, in the end, it was a battle of nerves between two groups of men, each determined to prevail, but each tied to other groups less committed and less determined. You must strive to keep all these elements in balance as you play: to gain military victories, to be sure, but also to cultivate alliances, to maintain the nation's economic health, and to forge the institutions of the world's first democracy. It is not necessary to win all the battles; in fact it is unlikely that you can. But if you play your cards right, the British will gradually lose heart anyway and recognize America's independence. On the other hand, if you do not manage all aspects of the struggle carefully, the American rebellion will join the crowded ranks of popular uprisings crushed by imperial powers.

PHASES

ASSIGN LEADERS: The first activity of the game, forming the government, is crucial to success. The abilities of the administrators will impact most undertakings of their branch of government: costs, performance, and the probability of success. Therefore, it is important to pick leaders with high administration ratings (although remember that the Treasurer will have to *negotiate* with the states to get taxes). On the other hand, all factions of patriots, both regional and ideological, will want a fair representation in the government, so your appointments cannot disregard this political pressure. Technical proficiency will do you little good if you alienate significant groups from the revolutionary cause.

Administer

TAXATION: During the revolution it turned out that the Americans were almost as resistant to taxation *with* representation as they were to taxation without it. In the first years you will undoubtedly be frustrated by the regions' reluctance to levy taxes, but just be patient. As time passes,

they will be more forthcoming, assuming that their patriotism is high and you have a persuasive Finance Chairman.

TORY POLICY: How you treat the Tories (those remaining loyal to the King) will have a big impact on how well you do. You must know when and how to treat them. You will learn this through experience, but keep in mind that they are very conscious of how their local support stacks up against yours. If they are strong and the patriots are weak, then being too forceful can backfire. Conversely, if the loyalists are very weak and the patriots very strong, then cracking down may make them into the underdogs. The time to crack down is when the two sides are about equal.

Recruit

The key to recruitment is a three-way balance between the privateers, the militia, and the regulars. It is easiest to recruit privateers, because of the lure of the booty, but there is a natural limit to how many privateers can put to sea. Otherwise, men are readier to serve in the militia than in the regulars, because they can stay at home, attend to business, and avoid the privation and danger of active service. In order to tempt significant numbers into regular service, you must either offer bonuses (expensive) or impose quotas (unpopular). Using both is most effective, but it has the disadvantages of both as well.

What recruitment policies you set should reflect the manpower needs you will have this year in the region. Regulars are most effective in combat, and can be moved from region to region, but they are expensive to recruit and supply. You should recruit them in regions you fear will be major targets of the British, regions that are adjacent to such regions, or regions from which you expect to launch an offensive against a British-controlled area.

Militia are less powerful than regulars and can't move from area to area, but they don't cost you anything to raise or maintain. Therefore, they should be raised wherever you expect a British attack. Also a militia may deter a British move—remember, an area left undefended invites attack.

Privateers play a vital role in the game by eroding support for the war in Parliament. You will not see the results immediately, but several years of raids on the British merchant marine will begin to tell. You should be sure to encourage privateers whenever you do not need the manpower for more pressing business.

Supply

ARMY: In general, the more supplies the better your army will fight; if it goes too long on meager rations it will mutiny. However, there are two countervailing factors. One is availability: Much military equipment must be procured overseas, and for that you will need diplomatic support. Second is cost: as the war drags on, you may find that the economic burden is greater than the military danger, and deliberately reduce your supply level to keep the country solvent.

NAVY BUILDING: The Americans did not have the knowledge or the funds to build ships of the line, the battleships of the eighteenth century that determined who controlled the seas. The best they could do was frigates, smaller, more lightly armed, but also more sprightly ships that served fleets as scouts and messengers, and served the Americans as exalted privateers. However, they did have an effect on morale: victories against British warships, albeit against other frigates the Royal Navy itself scarcely counted, raised patriotism while at the same time eroding British confidence. Frigates are expensive, but they can also deliver a needed shot in the arm to American morale when other aspects of the war are going poorly.

Campaign

Military success is vital to the success of the revolution. The mechanics of the campaign phase are a bit more involved than those of other phases, but are easily mastered with a little practice.

The two main issues of the campaign phase are: the political pressure to defend threatened areas or regain occupied

areas versus the manifest military superiority of the British; and the importance of good leadership versus both the political pressure to maintain regional balance and the individual ambitions of the generals.

In the first case, you will pay a stiff price in support of the rebellion if you abandon areas to the British, but you also pay a price for loosing battles. A defeat in the open can usually be survived, for most American generals are able to retreat with at least a few troops, but they all will be lost if trapped in a city. Even so, you may have to sacrifice a force to avoid a crippling loss of face.

In the second case, you must make similar trade-offs between talent and politics in assigning generals as in forming a government. In addition, generals have ambitions which you must not frustrate. Pay attention to their protests when you replace them: the more they say, the more danger they pose to the rebellion.

A useful tip is to remember that whenever regulars move into a British-held area, at least some local militia will rise to support them. They can be an important adjunct to a determined force of regulars, and even 1,000 regulars can thereby cause some real damage to the British.

Overall, the British are strong, but do not have unlimited resources. Their biggest threat will be in the first couple of years after 1775; if they are going to win militarily, they must do so then. If the war drags on, they may still win, but it will rather be because they outlast you economically and politically. Initially, you should concentrate on survival, and later on attrition: in the end, time is on your side, especially if you can get help from your friends abroad.

Diplomacy

With EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: You need help. You need greater supplies and you need for British troops to be tied down in other parts of the world. You can also use extra money, bases for your privateers in European waters that are closer to the merchant shipping on which they

prey, and you can certainly use a few thousand extra regulars. If your allies gain control of the seas you may be able to deliver the *coup de grace* to a British force, and if you get really lucky the French and Spanish may get control of the English Channel and force the British to defend their homeland instead of reconquering America.

How do you get this help? Be diplomatic. Put yourself in the other guy's shoes. Think how you'd feel in his place. Ask for too much and you'll get nothing. Ask for too little, and you may not get enough. It's a fine line.

Besides your general search for support, there are two issues in diplomacy. One is the "talent versus politics" issue in assigning ambassadors. The other is the issue of "entangling alliances." Should you accept help with strings attached, or hold out for unqualified support? On the one hand, you may need the help now, and your pride won't help you if the British force you to your knees. On the other hand, if you do accept conditional help, you will be expected to live up to your commitments. If you fail to maintain them in further negotiations you may lose the support you already have, and if you make peace when they are unfulfilled, you will be dunned in the evaluation of your victory level.

With BRITAIN: You want America to gain independence, but a large segment of the American population does not share that ambition yet. If you bull ahead, you will frighten them into support of the King. In the first year or two of the game, you must approach the British with one eye on your the moderates. Only if they are convinced of the futility of compromise will they support a revolution.

Once the break is made, expect little from the Tory leaders in England (these Tories are a political party, not the "Tory" Americans who remain loyal to the King). In English politics, a party stands and falls on its policies, and the Tory policy is to crush the rebellion. Unless it is faced by a critical military situation in Europe, it will adhere to this policy as long as it has a majority of votes in Parliament. If the government's majority disappears, the Whigs will come to power pledged to make peace. You will find them

much more amenable to negotiations, particularly if the military situation in Europe or the West Indies is against them. If you are feeling particularly strong, you may want to draw out the negotiations to get more favorable terms. But beware: they may fall from power in their turn, and you will be faced with the old Tory coalition.

Organize Government: Starting in the second year you will need to decide what governmental activity will get the bulk of your attention each year. You will first get a series of messages about the performance of your administrators in the last year. You must decide which you will believe. If you accept them, you must then decide if matters are serious enough to warrant another year of basic organization. More likely, you will want to begin improving the government, first by formally separating it from Britain, and later by creating permanent institutions: Articles of Confederation and an executive branch. Meanwhile, though, you may have to delay one or the other, either to reassign leaders or reform the economy.

DECLARE INDEPENDENCE: If you have laid the groundwork in the previous year's diplomacy, you should be able to declare independence with the broad support of the patriot coalition. It will set the stage for increased diplomatic support, and will enhance your popularity all around.

CONFEDERATE: Once America is independent, it will need a permanent government to replace the *ad hoc* regime of the Second Continental Congress. However, four major issues must be resolved in order to bring the diverse states together:

• Taxation: Should the states collect the taxes and support the federal government with contributions, or should the federal administration have its own sources of revenue? If you can get federal taxes, your money problems will be reduced significantly (although not altogether). Unfortunately, none of the states has any reason to support such an arrangement.

• Representation: Should the states be represented equally,

each having one vote in Congress, or should they be represented in proportion to the size of their populations? Naturally, the large states favor the latter, while the small states favor the former. There is a third way: have two chambers of government, one with proportional, and the other with equal, representation. But this approach represents considerably greater expense. Is it a golden compromise, or will you lose support from all states?

• Western Lands: Keep in mind that only <u>some</u> states have them, and among those, some have much more than others. How each state feels about this issue reflects whether they have interests there or not, and how important this issue is to them depends on how much they have.

• Slave Representation: Slave states think slaves should be counted for purposes of political representation, while non-slave states think they should not. It would appear that you can just count them, slave states versus non-slave states, and predict how they will feel. But, things aren't as simple as that. How much the issue matters will also depend on what form of representation you chose: if every state has one vote, political representation matters less than the economic burden, whereas if representation is proportional, slave-holding states will value the extra voting power. Of course, there's always the possibility of counting the slaves partially, but as with the representation compromise, the question is whether both sides will accept partial satisfaction or will both come away feeling wronged?

CREATE EXECUTIVE: A strong executive will definitely give you better control over the revolutionary movement. However, the more radical patriots fear that a strong executive will lead to dictatorship. Lay the groundwork of a clearly defined governmental structure, and they will go along with you; cram it down their throats and they will turn against you.
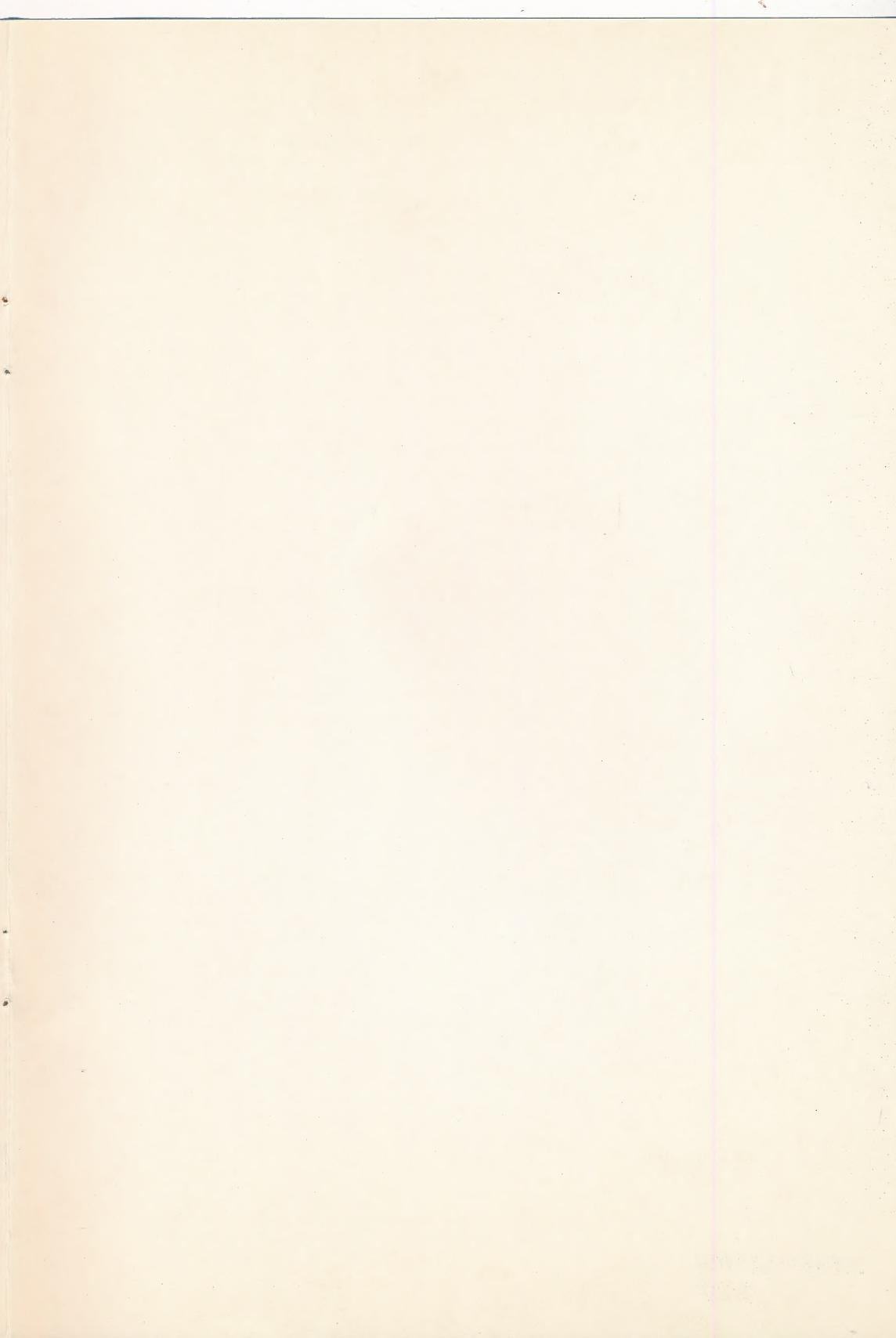
REFORM ECONOMY: In order to run the war effort, you will have to pay. Unfortunately, the only way for you to pay is to print the money you need as you need it, regardless of your actual income. The problem is, as that paper

money enters circulation, more bills will be available to bid for the relatively constant amount of real wealth in the economy, and so the value of each dollar bill will decline. At first this effect will be muted, because historically the colonial economy was actually starved for currency. Take into account that the economy can initially absorb the additional issue. However, after a year or two, prices will begin to rise, and may get out of control. You may be able to keep them under control by keeping spending low, taxes high, and getting payments in *specie* (coin) from abroad. However, even with these, inflation may get out of control. If it does, it will hurt.

As prices rise to the danger point, you will be warned. When the warning comes, take time to reform the economy. How stringent your measures must be will depend on how bad inflation is. If you aim too low, you will not curb the upward spiral. If you aim too high, you will lose popularity because of your draconian policies. In general, remember that price levels above 10 times their starting levels are beginning to be a problem, that levels above 20 are definitely a problem, and that 30 or more represents a crisis. If you hit 40, you'll know it.