

WHC Nomination Documentation

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SITE NAME ("TITLE") Indipendence Hall

DATE OF INSCRIPTION ("SUBJECT") 26/10/1979

STATE PARTY ("AUTHOR") UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CRITERIA ("KEY WORDS") C (vi)

DECISION OF THE WORLD HERITAGE COMMITTEE:

The Committee made no statement

BRIEF DESCRIPTION:

The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution were signed in this hall in the heart of Philadelphia, in 1776 and 1787 respectively. Since then, the universal principles set forth in these two documents of fundamental importance to American history have continued to guide lawmakers all over the world.

1.b. State, province or region: Commonwealth (State) of Pennsylvania

1.d Exact location: Long. 75°9' W ; Lat. 39°57' N

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL
SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL
ORGANIZATION

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Convention concerning the Protection of the
World Cultural and Natural Heritage

*Entered on list
at 3rd Session
of Committee*

WORLD HERITAGE LIST

Nomination submitted by the United States of America

Independence Hall

1. SPECIFIC LOCATIONa) Country

United States of America

b) State, Province, or Region

Commonwealth (State) of Pennsylvania

c) Name of property

Independence Hall

Originally, this building was the State House of the colonial Province of Pennsylvania. After independence, in 1776, it retained the same name but served the State. Following the removal of the State Capital from Philadelphia in 1799, the structure was known as the Old State House. The designations Hall, or Halls, of Independence, and, alternatively, Independence Hall were acquired gradually. Independence Hall is the current usage.

d) Exact location on map and indication of geographical co-ordinates

39° 57' North Latitude, 75° 9' West Longitude

Independence Hall occupies an unnumbered site abutting on Chestnut Street, midway between Fifth and Sixth Streets, in the block bounded by Chestnut, Walnut, Fifth, and Sixth Streets, in the city of Philadelphia. This block, known as Independence Square, is the boundary of the nominated area.

2. JURIDICAL DATAa) Owner

City of Philadelphia
City Hall
Broad and Market Streets
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107

b) Legal status

Independence Hall is the nucleus of Independence National Historical Park. The structures and properties in the park, most of which are open to the public, include, among others, those owned by the city of Philadelphia but administered by the National Park Service. These consist of Independence Hall, Congress Hall, Old City Hall, and Independence Square, the plot of land on which these buildings are located. The American Philosophical Society holds title to Philosophical Hall, the only privately owned structure on Independence Square.

All these structures are essentially intact originals. The exterior appearances of Old City Hall and Congress Hall have changed little since the 1790's. The interior of Congress Hall has been restored as the meetingplace of the U.S. Congress in the 1790's. Exhibits in Old City Hall relate to the activities of the U.S. Supreme Court and Philadelphia life in the same period. American Philosophical Society Hall is still the headquarters of the society.

In recent years, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has created Independence Mall, a largely open landscaped area, in the 3 blocks directly north of Independence Square. The National Park Service administers it.

The other major portion of the park, the three blocks directly east of Independence Square, has also been carefully landscaped. This area contains a number of historic structures from the late 18th and early 19th centuries. Most of these are in Federal ownership.

Federally owned buildings in the park include the First and Second Banks of the United States; the Deshler-Morris House, operated by the Germantown Historical Society; Todd House; Bishop White House; New Hall; Pemberton House; and the Philadelphia Exchange. Among those privately owned buildings whose owners have cooperative agreements with the National Park Service are Carpenters' Hall, Christ Church, Gloria Dei (Old Swede's) Church, and Mikveh Israel Cemetery. These agreements assure the preservation and protection of the structures.

Public Law 795, 80th U.S. Congress, approved on June 28, 1948, created the park "for the purpose of preserving for the benefit of the American people...certain historical structures and properties of outstanding national significance located in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and associated with the American Revolution and the founding and growth of the United States...." Its "administration, protection, and development" were to be "exercised under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior by the National Park Service."

In furtherance of particular terms of the act, the Secretary of the Interior entered into a cooperative agreement with the City of Philadelphia on July 14, 1950, providing for administration and preservation of Independence Hall as a unit of the Park. Specifically, the agreement assured "access at all reasonable times to all public portions of the property," and that "no changes or alterations should be made in...its buildings and grounds...except by mutual agreement between the Secretary of the Interior and the [City of Philadelphia]..." The National Park Service assumed custody of Independence Hall on January 1, 1951. The building is in the charge of Park authorities and is open to the public every day of the year.

Cultural areas under the administration of the Federal Government possess the highest level of protection available to such properties in the United States. Ordinarily, they are immune to intervention from external private interests. Governmental entities seeking to modify or alter the condition or surroundings of such properties must proceed through designated administrative channels, whereby the interests of the Nation and the affected publics may be fully considered.

c) Responsible administration

Superintendent
Independence National Historical Park
313 Walnut Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106

Director
National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

Secretary of the Interior
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

3. IDENTIFICATION

a) Description and inventory

Independence Hall is a two-story red brick structure with attic and basement. Construction began about 1732 and continued through the 1740's. The main block measures 105 feet by 45 feet. It has an ashlar foundation and a gabled shingle roof. There are nine window openings along the front, or Chestnut Street side, the first floor center one of which accommodates the main door.

Two story, hipped roof brick wings, known as the East and West Wing Buildings, flank the core structure and are joined to it by arcades of the same material. While much of the main part of the building is original, the present wings and arcades, built in 1897-98, are approximate representations of long-vanished subsidiary structures that housed offices and connecting passageways.

The belltower, attached to the Hall at the center rear (south), dominates that facade. The structure's brick lower stages date to the 1750's. The wooden steeple, which rises to a height of 167 feet 8 inches, was designed by William Strickland and was erected in 1828 to replace one that had been taken down earlier.

The belltower's lower stages illustrate the striking use of brick for decorative effect that characterized 18th-century Philadelphia buildings of note: molded brick and common form pilasters and other wall features. At every level is one or more detail of interest, from the Etruscan columns and entablature of the rear doorway of the first to the lintels' carved wooden faces of the fourth. The steeple with its oversize clock dials and their carved wreaths, its octagonal bell cupola, its carved urns, and its corner pilasters with their Corinthian capitals are the features that have made Independence Hall an easily recognized structure.

The Hall's structural system consists essentially of masonry loadbearing outer and partition walls. The roof is supported by wooden trusses, posts, and beams, assisted by modern steel trusses and associated elements. Structural steel also supplements the timber girders and joists that carry the floors. Timber partitions are found throughout the second floor.

Stylistically, Independence Hall is related to other colonial American buildings of the Georgian mode that derived their inspiration from the plates of English country houses presented in James Gibbs' London-published Book of Architecture (1728).

The Chestnut Street facade incorporates such architectural embellishments as flush marble panels inset between the first and second story window openings; marble keystones and band course; serpentine copings, quoins and water table moldings; lintels of rubbed brick over the windows and cellar window openings; and a heavy carved wooden cornice.

Few details appear on the gable and rear elevations, their walls being finished plain with a brick band course that is stepped around the corners. Also within view at an angle from the front are the end walls' grouped chimneys and the balustraded roof deck.

Practically all these exterior elements of structure and design are survivals of the Hall's original fabric.

The double doors of the Chestnut Street entrance open into a great central hall 40 feet long and 20 feet wide. The room's original woodwork, completed by Edmund Woolley in the 1750's, is largely intact. The walls, panelled from floor to ceiling, are decorated by engaged columns, a Roman Doric entablature, and a cornice with modillions. Two tabernacle frames, ornamented by cornflower drops as well as moldings of egg and dart and grass leaf design, flank the entrance to the Assembly Room. The hallway floor is paved in brick.

The Assembly Room stands to the east side of the hallway. Here the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention formulated and signed the U. S. Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. The chamber measures about 40 feet square, large for a room in the period of the building's construction, given the absence of internal structural supports. Furnishings sufficient to accommodate more than fifty officials, a secretary, clerks, doorkeepers, and visitors are in place. The arrangement duplicates that at the time of the Continental Congress. On the presiding officer's platform are the chamber's two most historic objects: the silver inkstand with quill box and shaker used to sign the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, and the "Rising Sun" chair used by George Washington when he presided over the Constitutional Convention.

Three of the Assembly Room's walls are wainscotted pedestal high with plaster panel moldings above. The facing wall, panelled floor to ceiling, features massive fluted pilasters raised on pedestals, a doorway at either corner, twin segmental-arched fireplaces, and a large tabernacle frame in the center. A crystal chandelier hangs from the coved plaster ceiling 20 feet above. Only the tabernacle frame's delicately carved cockleshell frieze is original to the chamber. A balustraded bar with a ramped handrail separates the floor of the house from the spectator gallery. Over the principal door is a bold wooden pediment supported by carved brackets. A heavy Roman Doric entablature borders the ceiling.

On the west side of the central hallway, visible through three large arches, is the Supreme Court Chamber, which is roughly 40 feet square. It customarily housed the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania and later other State and local courts. Massive fluted pilasters of the Roman Doric order decorate the panelled walls. Except for the dado and entablature, all of the woodwork is original and dates from the 1740's. The fixtures, including the raised judges' bench on the west wall and the flanking jury boxes, are reconstructions.

At the rear of the central hallway is the two-story tower stairhall, which is finished in the Ionic order. The 34 by 30 feet space features a Palladian window flanked by two tabernacle frames; across the whole is a full entablature with simple modillioned cornice. Another massive cornice, ornamented with alternating rosettes and acanthus leaf modillions, borders the 50-foot ceiling. Decorative elements of the staircase itself include a ramped mahogany handrail, carved balusters and stair brackets, and an elaborate frieze edging the landings.

On the second floor of the main building are a 20-foot-square vestibule; flanking Governor's Council Chamber and Committee Room, each 20 by 40 feet; and the Long Gallery, 100 by 20 feet, which runs the length of the building on the front. These rooms are furnished to represent the activities of the Pennsylvania legislature and government prior to 1775. All the chambers are finished plainly with wainscotting, plaster walls, simple molded cornices, and cove ceilings. The end walls are panelled floor to ceiling; fluted Ionic pilasters set off the marble-faced fireplaces.

The Liberty Bell, the most widely known artifact associated with Independence Hall, is currently displayed in a special pavilion on Independence Mall across Chestnut Street from Independence Hall.

b) Maps and/or plans

The most important early original documentation of Independence Hall is in the collections of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, 1300 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107. Most valuable for use by the general researcher are the collections of Independence National Historical Park itself. They may be consulted by reference to the park headquarters, 313 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106.

Restoration reports and historical research reports prepared by the National Park Service since it assumed jurisdiction have not been published. However, through the cooperation of the American Philosophical Society, most of these reports have been microfilmed. Information on the use of these materials may be obtained from the Society at its headquarters in Independence Square, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106.

In addition, the Cultural Resources Management Division, U.S. National Park Service, Department of the Interior Building, Washington, D.C. 20240, maintains a collection which includes many of the same historical and restoration materials as the Independence Park collection and that of the American Philosophical Society.

The following items are included with this nomination:^{RR}

Independence Hall: Site Plan (Delineator: Bethanie C. Grashof, Historic American Buildings Survey, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, 440 G Street, NW., Washington, D.C. 20243)

Official United States Geological Survey Quadrangle Map of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Scale 1:24,000)

c) Photographic and/or cinematographic documentation^{RR}

~~RR~~ see attached note

d) History

Independence Hall's history may be divided into four principal periods: service as the Pennsylvania State House, 1732-99 (during which time it housed the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention); use as a museum, 1802-28; service as a municipal building, 1818-95; and operation as an historic shrine, 1898 to the present. The structure has been subjected to a number of changes and several restoration efforts.

Andrew Hamilton, a prominent attorney, was the guiding force behind the building of Independence Hall as the State House for the Pennsylvania Assembly, or Legislature. As Speaker of that body, he sought to provide a dignified setting for its meetings, which had previously been held in private homes and taverns. Construction began in 1732.

Hamilton gained title to several lots in a block then on the town's outskirts, moved funding legislation through the Assembly, and brought forward the first of a number of plans for consideration. After much discussion and disagreement among members of the managing committee, the Assembly approved that advocated by Hamilton and the work commenced.

Insofar as is known, the design of the building was the result of Hamilton's overall architectural conceptions and master builder Edmund Woolley's ability to give them form. A gentleman with an interest in building and architectural design and a master carpenter no less concerned with these interests thus pooled their abilities to raise this important historic structure.

By 1735 east and west wings were added to the project, so the Province's administrative agencies might have offices at the legislative center of government. The structures were mere shells, but the Assembly occupied its unfinished chamber that same year. Before long money had run out, and in 1741 Hamilton died, leaving the project incomplete. In 1742 the Assembly Room was finally given its interior finish, and by 1749 the rest of the building stood complete, including an octagonal cupola on the rooftop.

In 1750, the Assembly ordered that a structure to house a new staircase and "a suitable place thereon for hanging a bell" be erected. Edmund Woolley again supervised construction. By mid-1753 enough of the steeple's work was in place to enable the new bell, bearing the inscription, "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof," to be raised to its place in the lantern.

A library and committee room adjacent to the Assembly Room, as well as an oversized tall-case clock for the State House's west gable wall and a corresponding dial for the east gable, were added to the project. Devised by Thomas Stretch, the clockwork mechanism for both was located at the attic's midpoint; long iron rods turned the hands.

No other major modifications were made to the building before 1775, when the Second Continental Congress convened in the Assembly Room. The Congress met there off and on until 1783, after the end of the war. In that room it chose George Washington as commander-in-chief of the Continental Army, adopted and signed the Declaration of Independence, and functioned as the first national government. During the British Army's occupation of Philadelphia, in 1777-78, the State House served as a hospital, prison, and barracks, and suffered much damage.

When American forces regained control of the city, Congress returned to the Assembly Room. Late in 1778, the State Assembly remodelled the second floor to create a 40-foot-square chamber for their meetings until Congress should withdraw. The following year the Supreme Court Chamber was also remodelled. In 1781 the Assembly had the tower's wooden section removed, as it had rotted out and become a hazard. A low pyramidal roof and spire replaced the steeple. At that time the State House bell was repositioned in the tower's upper brick level.

Under the country's first comprehensive written frame of government, the Articles of Confederation, which came into effect in 1781, the Continental Congress continued to meet in the Assembly Room. Its tenancy came to an end in June 1783, after an incident involving the Congress and unpaid Pennsylvania militiamen.

The Assembly Room next served temporarily as a judicial robing chamber and for a time as a gallery for artist Robert Edge Pine. In 1784 alterations and general repairs were made, and the next year the Pennsylvania Assembly reoccupied its traditional meeting-place.

Once again, in 1787, the Assembly surrendered use of its chamber. On this occasion, the Constitutional Convention met to draw up a new frame of government for the American States. The delegates deliberated from May to September behind closed doors. George Washington chaired the sessions. Benjamin Franklin, James Madison, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris, and Alexander Hamilton were among the luminaries present. After the signing of the document on September 17, the delegates departed and the State House reverted to its accustomed use.

When the Federal Government came to Philadelphia in 1790, the U. S. Congress met in Congress Hall, built in 1787-89, in Independence Square, at the corner of Chestnut and Sixth Streets, to serve as a county court house. By this same time, the State House Garden had been developed in the Square, and the American Philosophical Society Hall had been constructed.

In 1789 a change in Pennsylvania's government necessitated further alterations. The Supreme Court Chamber was remodelled to accommodate the enlarged bench of the appeals court. On two occasions during the 1790's the Supreme Court of the United States met in this courtroom, when quarters were not to be had in the City Hall Building (1790-91), adjacent to Independence Hall at Chestnut and Fifth Streets.

In 1799 the government of Pennsylvania moved to Lancaster and the next year the Federal Government moved to Washington, D.C. City and county officials continued to use the first floor of the Independence Hall for a while, and elections were held there, but the second floor had no occupant. Three years later, artist-naturalist Charles Willson Peale petitioned for the use of the State House as a gallery. His application was approved to the extent of allowing him the east end of the first floor and the entire second floor. He immediately embarked on a program of alterations, which was completed by midyear, and opened his museum by July.

Until 1812 the State House remained largely unaltered. Then, to answer a need for fireproof offices, the State permitted city and county authorities to tear down the wing buildings and the arcades that connected them to the State House, and replace them with two large office wings designed by architect Robert Mills. Henceforth, these became known as State House Row. Mills also demolished the committee room and library.

Next, the State decided to sell the State House to the city of Philadelphia. The governor signed the contract early in 1816, but the deed was not transferred until more than two years later. Since that time Philadelphia has owned the State House and its associated buildings and grounds. The city adapted the buildings in the square as a sort of civic center. In the course of fitting the Assembly Room for courtroom use, the wainscotting, Ionic pilasters, pediments, and entablature were torn out and replaced. The remnants were disposed of.

Public reaction to the changes in the building led to an attempt to restore it. Before then, the visit of the Marquis de Lafayette in 1824 had focused attention on the State House. Observances held in the Assembly Room emphasized its sad condition. Interest in restoring the building began to increase. Independence Hall thus became the object of one of the early American efforts at historic preservation.

Starting with the tower in 1828, the city rebuilt the steeple according to a design by architect William Strickland; took down the Stretch clock dials on the end walls of the main building; and installed four new ones on the second level of the new steeple.

After the death of Peale in 1828, the U.S. Marshall for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania leased the second floor of the State House for use as courtrooms and offices. In anticipation of this move, the city retained architect John Haviland to examine the building's structure and arrangements. With petitions on hand from citizens calling for restoration of the Assembly Room, the city councils requested that he consider ways of accomplishing that end.

Lacking substantive data to go by, Haviland chose to model his restoration of the Assembly Room on the Supreme Court Chamber. In doing so he harmed no one, though his work was to mislead several generations of visitors as to the original character of the room. Haviland's panelling, installed in 1831-32, would remain in place until the National Park Service began to restore the building.

For more than 20 years Independence Hall, as the building now became increasingly known, remained unchanged. The Federal courts moved out. Consolidation of Philadelphia City and Philadelphia County, in 1854, greatly enlarged service areas and government as well. The Common and Select Councils moved out of City Hall and into remodelled chambers that took in the entire second floor area of Independence Hall. Ceiling deflections were corrected, furnaces installed, and galleries erected.

Although the alterations of 1854 endured for 40 years, they meant better days for the Assembly Room. Following Lafayette's visit it had no assigned function, save for a brief period of use as a courtroom. Occasionally it served as a levee room for distinguished visitors to Philadelphia, and generally was "reserved as a sacred showplace for strangers." Antiquarian relics, including the Liberty Bell by 1852, slowly gathered there. In 1854 the room was renovated and recently acquired portraits from Peale's gallery were placed with the William Rush statue of George Washington.

Nearly 20 years more were to pass before Independence Hall again became the recipient of the Philadelphia councils' attentions to its historic associations. In 1872 they resolved that the Assembly Room be "set apart forever, and appropriated exclusively to receive such furniture and equipment of the room as it originally contained in July, 1776, together with the portraits of . . . men of the revolution." A committee formed to this end and set about the restoration of the entire building. By 1873 the court of common pleas had vacated the Supreme Court Room, and replacement of worn and rotten woodwork was underway. Though no true restoration resulted, Independence Hall presented a bright appearance for the centennial celebration of 1876. In its wake, the so-called National Museum was established. Through the years, the museum gathered much artifact material related to the period of the American Revolution.

Yet another 20 years passed with the National Museum firmly ensconced on the first floor and the councils on the second. But in 1895 the Select and Common Councils moved to quarters in the new City Hall at Broad and Market Streets. For the first time in more than 150 years Independence Hall was no longer the scene of governmental operations. Now, the patriotic societies made restoration their goal. The Daughters of the American Revolution received permission to restore the second floor. They retained architect T. Mellon Rogers. Along the way the city became involved with restoration of the entire building.

Using the original drawings as a guide, Rogers attempted a restoration. While the second floor partitions were repositioned accurately enough, elements of architectural decor were highly inaccurate. In the Supreme Court Chamber he removed original entablature in order to lower the ceiling. He tore down the Mills buildings and replaced them with incorrectly proportioned imitations of the 1735 structures. The work of 1897-98, as the first overall restoration, happened upon but failed to record and interpret correctly much physical evidence of the past. Today's wing buildings and arcades remain from this restoration.

About 1920, the Philadelphia chapter of the American Institute of Architects (AIA) began to take an active interest in Independence Hall. The restoration committee of the AIA took particular heed of structural weaknesses and strove to correct them with as little cost to the structure as possible.

In time the Hall came under the care of a city curator, who supervised operation of the National Museum and the other buildings on Independence Square as well. Guard and maintenance staffs struggled with the problems of maintaining an aging building visited annually by hundreds of thousands of people. The growing difficulties led to the organization of the Independence Hall Association in 1942. The association began to lobby for the creation of a national historical park incorporating the Independence Square structures and other important buildings and sites in Philadelphia.

e) Bibliography ~~See~~

~~**~~ See attached note

4. STATE OF PRESERVATION/CONSERVATIONa) Diagnosis

Independence Hall is in the highest possible state of preservation. The building is in excellent condition structurally as well as externally. It has received the benefits of careful and comprehensive restoration studies and expert technical advice in the execution of their findings.

Heavy visitation poses certain maintenance problems. (The park welcomed 5.5 million visitors in the first 9 months of 1976 and 3.8 million in a comparable period of 1978.) However, a highly trained and competent staff provides a thorough range of maintenance, technical preservation, and visitor services, which minimize wear and tear on the historic fabric.

b) Agents responsible for preservation/conservation

Superintendent
Independence National Historical Park
313 Walnut Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106

Director
National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

Secretary of the Interior
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

c) History of preservation/conservation

In the last three decades, Independence Hall has benefited from one of the most thorough conservation and restoration efforts in the history of historic preservation conducted under U.S. Government auspices.

Early efforts at restoration of Independence Hall had cost the building some of its original fabric and posed doubts as to the authenticity of certain features that remained in place. Hard use as a public place, followed by millions of visitors during its use as a museum, left the structure seriously weakened.

Beginning in the early 1950's, National Park Service personnel began a long and steady process of preservation that has carried almost to the present. Following an initial stage of research, study, and planning, limited architectural investigation started by the mid-1950's. Documentary research on an extensive scale went on for 15 years and produced much useful data. At the same time, exhaustive structural investigation revealed the details of what had happened to the building through the years.

These processes continued as limited dismantling, for the purpose of structural rehabilitation, progressed. A series of comprehensive reports set forth the discoveries made during the investigations and prepared the way for decisions on the nature and extent of restoration and rehabilitation. The actual rehabilitation process began in 1962 and went on for nearly a decade. The building has been rendered structurally sound and strong as well as very close in appearance to the State House known to the leaders of the American Revolution.

During structural rehabilitation, the masonry walls and partitions were found to have strength enough to bear the weight of structural steel needed to stabilize sagging floors and ceilings. Fortuitously, it was also determined that sufficient space remained at the walls' strong points to support steel beams needed into place without taking the roof apart. The tower also received steel supports at this time. Externally, the west end clock was rebuilt. In addition, the trim was repaired, the stone base repointed, and the roof restored.

Evidence for interior restoration came from varied sources. Fragments and outlines of original features found on the walls assisted in the process. Analyses of paint layers removed from the mid-18th century paneling in the Supreme Court Room and Center Hall permitted restoration of the original color schemes.

Edward Savage's 1790's engraving, "Congress Voting Independence," showed details useful in restoration of the Assembly Room. Features from other buildings of the same era were used to supply missing details, including the marble trim on the Assembly Room's mantelpieces.

Systems for control of heat and humidity and for the cleaning of the Hall's air were also installed. These will help to conserve the remaining fabric of the building for many years to come.

No further conservation work is contemplated in the foreseeable future.

Excellent summaries of the restoration work at Independence Hall are available in the following materials. The authors have been key figures in carrying out the restoration of the building:

Batcheler, Penelope Hartshorne. "Independence Hall: Its Appearance Restored," pp. 298-318, in Charles E. Peterson (ed.), Building Early America (Radnor, Pennsylvania: Chilton Book Company, 1976).

Nelson, Lee H. "Restoration in Independence Hall," Antiques (July 1966).

Nelson, Lee H. "Independence Hall: Its Fabric Reinforced," pp. 279-297 in Charles E. Peterson (ed.), Building Early America (Radnor, Pennsylvania: Chilton Book Company, 1976).

Riley, Edward M., "The Independence Hall Group," pp. 7-42, in American Philosophical Society, Historic Philadelphia from the Founding until the Early Nineteenth Century. Issued as Volume 43, Part I, of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society. Philadelphia, 1953.

d) Means for preservation/conservation

Preservation of Independence Hall has been mandated by enactment of the National Legislature, which provides means for this purpose through annual appropriations. The present staff includes nearly 200 permanent employees and an additional peak average of 80 seasonal employees. The current annual budget is approximately \$4.6 million. About \$3.5 million of that sum represents personnel costs.

Specialized personnel of the Independence National Historical Park staff are at hand around the clock to afford repair and maintenance services as required. Security staff personnel, supported by alarm systems, guard against mischief. The Federal Bureau of Investigation, an agency of the U.S. Department of Justice, offers further support and protection, as do the Philadelphia municipal police and fire departments.

Technical services, in research, planning, and building conservation, are available through the National Park Service's centers at Denver, Colorado, and Harpers Ferry, West Virginia. These facilities supplement the services of the park's trained specialists.

e) Management plans

For properties under its administration, the U.S. National Park Service has created comprehensive management plans. These provide short-term and long-range strategies for meeting management objectives in the operation of particular facilities. Park operation is analyzed by an integrated systems approach. Resource limitations are related to such requirements as visitor service, building conservation, and environmental protection.

Independence National Historical Park currently operates under a plan approved in 1972. Responsibility for compliance is vested in the superintendent of the park.

5. JUSTIFICATION FOR INCLUSION IN THE WORLD HERITAGE LIST

a) Cultural property

Independence Hall is proposed for the World Heritage List under Criterion VI for cultural properties. It possesses important associations with ideas, beliefs, and events of outstanding historical importance.

Independence Hall witnessed the adoption and signing of two of the most important political documents in human history: the United States Declaration of Independence (1776) and Constitution (1787). Marking the transition of the country from colonial status to independence and self-government, these two instruments were devised to serve national ends. Nevertheless, they enunciate enduring as well as universal principles and eloquently express mankind's aspirations for justice and freedom. The two charters have transcended the particular circumstances of their creation and any deficiencies in their scope or application to become part of the political and philosophical heritage of the world.

These documents have enlightened and inspired political thinkers in many parts of the globe. They also have contributed to international dialogue on the nature and role of government. Leaders of many nations, of diverse political orientations, when forming or perfecting their own governments, have adapted the concepts, phraseology, or spirit of the instruments to their own circumstances, needs, and national goals. This influence has overcome barriers of time, culture, language, and ideology.

As U Nu, Prime Minister of Burma, said in a speech in 1954 at Independence Hall:

"The ideas and ideals, the ringing words and slogans of the American Revolution have a tremendous emotional importance to all men who struggle for liberty."

In the same vein, Jawaharlal Nehru of India, while jailed for pro-independence activities during the early 1930's, reviewed man's progress toward self-government. He wrote:

"The fine-sounding words and phrases of the American Declaration of Independence and the French Declaration of Rights stirred people to the depths. To the millions who were oppressed and exploited they brought a thrill and a message of deliverance. Both the declarations spoke of liberty and equality and of the right to happiness which every one has. The proud declaration of these precious rights did not result in the people obtaining them....But even the declaration of these principles was extraordinary and life-giving."

The Declaration of Independence was the most important official document of the American Revolution as well as a manifesto for the rights of man. It expressed the desire of many Americans for a national existence separate from Great Britain, stated the grievances that impelled them to act, and enunciated the principles by which they proposed to direct their efforts.* The Constitution established a governmental framework that transformed the United States from a loose alliance of virtually self-governing States into a Federal Nation.

The ideas of codifying human rights and of conducting government on the basis of written forms did not originate in the United States. The framers of the Declaration of Independence and Constitution were intellectually indebted to the philosophical concepts and political theorists of numerous nations and of earlier generations, back to the Greeks and Romans. Both instruments are imbued with European and classical precedents, especially British concepts of law, and derive much from the philosophy of the Enlightenment. These two documents, nevertheless, and the dramatic way in which they were created, have captured and held the attention of the world.

The Declaration has served as a vital precedent for nations struggling to win independence from colonial powers, for nationalities seeking identity as nations, and for individuals and groups striving to alter the framework of their governments.

Early in July 1789, for example, the Marquis de Lafayette presented to the National Assembly of France a draft declaration of rights modeled in part on the U.S. Declaration. Lafayette's submission played a role in the framing of the highly significant Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen later that year.

The influences of the revolutionary ideologies of the American and French Revolutions, while great in Europe, were also prevalent in Latin America in the early 1800's. In 1811 Francisco de Miranda, who had returned to his native Venezuela after serving in the French armies during the American and French Revolutions, led the first, though unsuccessful, revolution in the Spanish colonies of Latin America. An extract from the Venezuelan Declaration of Independence (1811) bears a striking resemblance in phraseology to that of the United States:

*The texts of the U.S. Declaration of Independence and Constitution follow this justification.
(see attached note)

"We, therefore, in the name and by the will and authority which we hold from the virtuous people of Venezuela, declare solemnly to the world that her United Provinces are and ought to be by fact and right, free, sovereign, and independent states, that they are absolved from any dependence on the Spanish crown or on those who call themselves its agents or representatives, that, as a free and independent State, Venezuela has full power to adopt that type of government which will conform to the general wish of the people, that she has power to declare war, to make peace, to form alliances, to negotiate treaties of commerce, limits, and navigation, and to make and execute all other acts performed by free and independent nations. To make this, our solemn Declaration, valid, firm, and durable, we hereby mutually bind each province to the other provinces and pledge our lives, our fortunes, and the sacred tie of our national honor."

When a series of revolutions swept Europe in 1848, certain leaders identified with the philosophy of the U.S. Declaration of Independence. Louis Kossuth, for example, exiled from Hungary, traveled to the United States to seek support and in 1851 paid a symbolic visit to Independence Hall.

The Declaration of Independence of the First Philippine Republic from Spain (1898) espoused principles strikingly similar to those in the U.S. Declaration and even borrowed some of its language. A portion of the Philippine Declaration reads as follows:

"Summoning as a witness of the rectitude of our intentions, the Supreme Judge of the Universe, and under the protection of the mighty and Humane North American Nation, we proclaim and solemnly declare, in the name and by authority of the inhabitants of all these Philippine Islands, that they are and have the right to be free and independent; that they are released from all obedience to the crown of Spain; that every political tie between the two is and must be completely severed and annulled; and that, like all free and independent states, they have complete authority to make war, conclude peace, establish treaties of commerce, enter into alliance, regulate commerce, and execute all other acts and things that Independent states have the right to do. Reposing firm confidence in the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge for the support of this declaration, our lives, our fortunes, and our most sacred possession, which is our honor."

Just a few years later, in 1903, Sun Yat-sen, then largely unknown outside China, came to the United States to seek support for a revolution in his country. In a pamphlet entitled The True Solution of the Chinese Question he presented a list of grievances against the imperial government reminiscent of those found in the U.S. Declaration:

- "(1) The Tartars run the government for their own benefit and not for the benefit of the governed.
- (2) They check our intellectual and material development.
- (3) They treat us as a subjected race and deny us equal rights and privileges.
- (4) They violate our inalienable rights of life, liberty, and property.
- (5) They practise or connive at official corruption and bribery.
- (6) They suppress the liberty of speech.
- (7) They impose heavy and irregular taxes on us without our consent."

During World War I and immediately after it, many nationalities sought to establish independent nations with the right of self-government. A conference of Eastern European leaders met in Independence Hall in October 1918 and proclaimed a "Declaration of Common Aims of the Independent Mid-European Nations." This document took the form and much of the style of the U.S. Declaration.

In the opening of the Declaration of Independence of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam (1945), Ho Chi Minh emphatically asserted the international applicability of the principles of the U.S. Declaration of Independence. A translation follows:

"All men are created equal. They are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.

This immortal statement was made in the Declaration of Independence of the United States of America in 1776. In a broader sense, this means: All peoples of the earth are equal from birth, all the peoples have a right to live, to be happy and free."

His document concluded with a list of grievances against the French in the manner of the U.S. Declaration.

The Williamsburg (Va.) Declaration in 1952 also paraphrased portions of the same "immortal statement." A group of prominent exiles from Eastern Europe prepared this instrument. It highlighted their dissatisfaction with the governments dominant in their native countries.

The U.S. Constitution has also had a distinct global impact. The constitution makers of a number of nations have paraphrased portions of it or adapted many of its provisions. This process has occurred in places and times beyond those in which the constitutional influences of the United States ordinarily might be expected to extend.

One instance of the document's international recognition occurred in Brazil. In 1789 when the leader of the unsuccessful Tiradentes Conspiracy, Silva Xavier, was apprehended, he had on his person a copy of the U.S. Constitution. Brazil remained a Portuguese colony until 1822 and then became an independent empire. When the nation became a republic in 1889, however, it was renamed the United States of Brazil and its constitution (1891) was patterned rather closely after that of the United States of America.

In other Latin American countries, the U.S. Constitution's influence has also been noteworthy. The 1811 Constitution of Venezuela incorporated sections of it almost verbatim. The individuals who drew up the Mexican Constitution of 1824 and that of Uruguay in 1830 also consulted the U.S. document carefully. Simón Bolívar (1783-1830), pre-eminent leader of the independence movements in northern South America, while opposing application of the principle of federalism in Latin America, praised other features of the U.S. Constitution.

In Europe, the draft of the French Constitution of 1793 drew on that of the United States as a source, as did the Constitution of the Second French Republic. The French documents themselves were, in turn, highly influential.

In Czarist Russia, some leaders of the Decembrist movement in the early 19th century studied the American Constitution. Nikita Murav'yev followed it in many respects when he drew up a proposed constitution in the early 1820's. He even paraphrased the Presidential oath to provide one for the Czar.

The Preamble of the U.S. Constitution is closely reflected in the Malolos Constitution of the Philippines (1899):

"Nosotros los Representantes del Pueblo Filipino, convocados legitimamente para establecer la justicia, proveer a la defensa comun, promover el bien general y asegurar los beneficios de la libertad, implorando el auxilio del Soberano Legislador del Universo para alcanzar estos fines, hemos votado, descretado y sancionado la siguiente."

Similarly, the Preamble to the United Nations Charter (1945) not only conceptually resembles the U.S. Constitution, but its opening words "We the Peoples" also echo that document.

The Constitution is significant for world political culture as the oldest extant formal document of its sort still in use, and for the adaptations by many nations of the governmental structure it created. It is most important, however, because it unified a diverse collection of States that had substantial disagreements among themselves and helped them achieve major goals through mutual cooperation. This concept--the establishment of broad principles of government and the furtherance of common needs by collaboration, debate, and compromise--is central to the international meaning of the Constitution.

The Declaration of Independence and Constitution of the United States, together with the world's other great charters and political creeds, express humanity's political traditions and wisdom. Independence Hall, the place where the key American documents were created, is deserving of recognition in the World Heritage List. It is not an architectural masterpiece, and its appointments might be described as stately rather than luxurious. Yet this modest structure has the capacity to inspire those who visit it. People in many parts of the world, whatever their reasons and the uses to which they have put the documents, have acknowledged the significance of the events there for their own aspirations.

Documentation supporting the nomination of
Independence Hall to the World Heritage List

The documents and other material listed below, which have been received from the United States of America in support of the above-mentioned nomination, can be examined in the Division of Cultural Heritage of Unesco and will be made available for consultation at the meetings of the Bureau of the World Heritage Committee and of the Committee itself :

1. Independence Hall : Site Plan.
2. Official United States Geological Survey Quadrangle Map of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
3. 16 photographs.
4. Bibliography.
5. Texts of the U.S. Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution.

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Printed

THE CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS

PREAMBLE

WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS

determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and

to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and value of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and

to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and

to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

and for these ends

to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbors, and

to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and

by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, to ensure that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and

to employ international machinery for the promotion of economic and social advancement of all peoples,

have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims.

Accordingly, our respective governments, through representatives assembled in the City of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations.

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~~SECRET~~

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*Printed
Add this to
Charter
at beginning*

Text of the Declaration

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America,

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.—That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.—That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are

more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security.—Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the meantime exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:

For Quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent:

For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury:

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies:

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:

For suspending our own Legislatures and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions we have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation

tion, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America. in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do.

And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

Text of the Constitution

WE THE PEOPLE of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE. I.

SECTION. 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their

respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

SECTION. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted

shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

SECTION. 4. The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

SECTION. 5. Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been encreased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

SECTION. 7. All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to

reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

SECTION. 8. The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

To establish Post Offices and post Roads;

To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations;

To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings;—And

To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

SECTION. 9. The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.

SECTION. 10. No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of

the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE. II.

SECTION. 1. The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows

Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; A quorum for this purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice President.

The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the Same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be encreased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION. 2. The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

SECTION. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

SECTION. 4. The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION. 1. The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behaviour, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

SECTION. 2. The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority;—to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls;—to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction;—to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party;—to Controversies between two or more States;—between a State and Citizens of another State;—between Citizens of different States,—between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

SECTION. 3. Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

ARTICLE. IV.

SECTION. 1. Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

SECTION. 2. The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof,

escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.

SECTION. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

ARTICLE. V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of it's equal Suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE. VI.

All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

ARTICLE. VII.

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

DONE in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independance of the United States of America the Twelfth. **IN WITNESS** whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names.

ORGANISATION DES NATIONS UNIES
POUR L'EDUCATION, LA SCIENCE
ET LA CULTURE

Date de réception : 2.3.79
No. d'ordre : 78
Original : Anglais

Convention concernant la protection
du patrimoine mondial, culturel et naturel

LISTE DU PATRIMOINE MONDIAL

Proposition d'inscription présentée par les Etats-Unis d'Amérique

Independance Hall

1. Localisation précise

- (a) Pays Etats-Unis d'Amérique
(b) Etat, province ou région Etat de Pennsylvanie
(c) Nom du bien Independence Hall

A l'origine, cet édifice était le "State House" (Parlement) de la province coloniale de Pennsylvanie. Après l'indépendance (1776), sous le même nom, il devient celui de l'Etat de Pennsylvanie. Lorsqu'en 1779, Philadelphie perd son statut de capitale de l'Etat, l'édifice est rebaptisé "Old State House". Avec le temps, son nom se transforme en "Hall - ou Halls - of Independence", puis en "Independence Hall" désignation qui reste la sienne actuellement.

- (d) Localisation exacte sur les cartes avec indication des coordonnées géographiques 39° 57' de latitude nord et 75° 9' de longitude ouest.

Independence Hall occupe un emplacement non numéroté en bordure de Chestnut Street, à mi-chemin de Fifth et de Sixth Streets, dans un îlot délimité par Chestnut, Walnut, Fifth et Sixth Streets, dans la ville de Philadelphie. Cet îlot, qui porte le nom d'Independence Square, constitue la zone dont l'inscription est demandée.

2. Données Juridiques

- (a) Propriétaire Ville de Philadelphie, City Hall, Broad and Market Streets, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107.

- (b) Statut juridique Independence Hall constitue le noyau de l'Independence National Historical Park. Les bâtiments et les biens situés dans ce parc sont pour la plupart ouverts au public. Certains sont propriété de la ville de Philadelphie, mais sont administrés par le "National Park Service." Il s'agit d'Independence Hall, du Congress Hall, de l'Old City Hall et d'Independence Square - le terrain sur lequel ces bâtiments sont édifiés. L'"American Philosophical Society" est propriétaire du Philosophical Hall, seul édifice bâti dans Independence Square qui soit propriété privée.

Tous ces édifices sont, pour l'essentiel, des originaux intacts. L'aspect extérieur de l'Old City Hall et du Congress Hall a subi peu de modifications depuis les années 1790. L'intérieur du Congress Hall - où se réunissait le Congrès des Etats-Unis dans les années 1790 - a été remis dans l'état qui était alors le sien. Les objets exposés dans l'Old City Hall ont trait aux activités de la Cour Suprême des Etats-Unis et à la vie de Philadelphie à cette époque. L'American Philosophical Society Hall est toujours le siège de cette société.

Ces dernières années, l'Etat de Pennsylvanie a créé Independence Hall, constitué par un espace

(b) Statut Juridique
(suite)

largement dégagé et des jardins paysagé, occupant les trois îlots situés directement au nord d'Independence Square. Le Hall est administré par le "National Park Service."

L'autre grande partie du parc (les trois îlots situés directement à l'est d'Independence Square a été elle-aussi soigneusement dessinée. Ce secteur comprend un certain nombre d'édifices historiques qui remontent à la fin du XVIIIe et au début du XIXe siècles. La plupart sont propriété de l'Etat fédéral.

Les bâtiments compris dans le parc dont l'Etat fédéral est propriétaire sont la Première et la Seconde Banques des Etats-Unis; Deshler-Morris House, gérée par la "Germanstown Historical Society"; Todd House; Bishop White House; New Hall; Pemberton House et la Bourse de Philadelphie. Au nombre des bâtiments qui sont propriété privée mais dont les propriétaires ont conclu des accords de coopération avec le "National Park Service", citons Carpenters' Hall, Christ Church, Gloria Dei (Old Swede's) Church et le cimetière Mikveh Israel. Ces accords garantissent la conservation et la protection des édifices.

C'est par un texte de loi (Public Law 795) que la 80ème session du Congrès des Etats-Unis approuvait le 28 juin 1948 la création du parc "dans le dessein de préserver à l'intention du peuple américain... certains édifices et biens historiques situés à Philadelphie (Pennsylvanie) qui présentent le plus haut intérêt national, et qui sont liés à la Révolution américaine ainsi qu'à la fondation et au développement des Etats-Unis..." L'Administration, la protection et la mise en valeur de ce parc ont été "confiées au National Park Service, sous tutelle du Ministre de l'intérieur."

En application de certaines dispositions de cette loi, le Ministre de l'intérieur a passé avec la ville de Philadelphie, le 14 juillet 1950, un accord de coopération intégrant Independence Hall au Parc aux fins de sa gestion et de sa conservation. Plus précisément, l'accord garantissait l'accès, aux heures normales d'ouverture, à toutes les parties publiques du bien, et stipulait qu'"aucune transformation, ou modification ne pourrait être apportée ... aux bâtiments et terrains ... sans le commun accord du Ministre de l'intérieur et de la (Ville de Philadelphie)..." Le "National Park Service" a pris la charge d'Independence Hall le 1er janvier 1951. Le bâtiment est donc commis aux soins des autorités du Parc et il est ouvert au public tous les jours de l'année.

(b) Statut juridique
(suite)

Les domaines culturels qui relèvent de l'administration du Gouvernement fédéral bénéficient de la meilleure protection que puissent recevoir de tels biens aux Etats-Unis. Ceux-ci sont normalement à l'abri de toute intervention de la part d'intérêts privés extérieurs. Il est fait obligation aux organismes publics qui chercheraient à modifier ou à transformer l'état de tels biens ou de leur environnement de passer par les voies administratives prévues, de sorte qu'il puisse être pleinement tenu compte des intérêts de la nation et de ceux des secteurs intéressés de la population.

(c) Administration
responsable

Superintendent
Independence National Historical Park
313 Chestnut Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106

Director
National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

Secretary of the Interior
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

3. Identification

(a) Description et
inventaire

Independence Hall est un édifice de deux étages en brique rouge avec cave et comble. Sa construction a débuté en 1732 et s'est poursuivie durant les années 1740. Le corps de bâtiment principal mesure 32 mètres par 13.70 mètres. Les fondations sont en pierre de taille et la toiture à deux pentes est couverte de bardeaux. Neuf fenêtres s'ouvrent sur la façade, qui donne sur Chestnut Street; la baie centrale du rez-de-chaussée constitue la porte principale.

Deux ailes de bâtiments de deux étages en brique, couvertes d'une toiture à quatre pentes - formant ce qu'on appelle les bâtiments de l'aile ouest et de l'aile est - flanquent l'édifice central auquel elles sont reliées par des arcades faites du même matériau. Si le corps principal est d'époque dans sa majeure partie, les ailes et les arcades actuelles, construites en 1897-98, sont des copies approximatives de bâtiments auxiliaires depuis longtemps disparus qui abritaient des bureaux et des passages.

Le campanile attenant au hall à l'arrière centre (côté sud), domine cette façade. Les étages inférieurs en brique de cet édifice datent des

(a) Description et inventaire (suite)

années 1750. La flèche du clocher, construite en bois et qui s'élève à une hauteur de 51 mètres, a été dessinée par William Strickland et fut érigée en 1828 pour remplacer une flèche antérieure qui avait été enlevée.

Les étages inférieurs du campanile offrent un exemple frappant de l'emploi de la brique à des fins d'ornementation, caractéristique des beaux édifices XVIIIe de Philadelphie: brique moulée, pilastres de facture courante et autres éléments de décoration murale. Chaque niveau compte un ou plusieurs détails intéressants; cela va des colonnes et de l'entablement étrusques de l'encadrement de la porte ouvrant sur l'arrière au premier niveau, aux visages en bois sculpté des linteaux du quatrième niveau. Le clocher, avec les cadrans gigantesques de son horloge et leurs guirlandes sculptées, le dôme octogonal qui abrite la cloche, ses urnes sculptées et ses pilastres d'angle surmontés de chapiteaux constituent les traits marquants qui ont fait d'Independence Hall un édifice reconnaissable entre tous.

La structure du Hall est constituée pour l'essentiel de murs extérieurs porteurs et de cloisons de maçonnerie. Le toit est soutenu par des fermes et des pannes en bois, renforcés par des fermes et autres éléments de charpente modernes en acier. Des pièces métalliques viennent aussi consolider les poutres et solives qui portent les planchers. Tout le premier étage comporte des cloisons en bois.

Du point de vue du style, Independence Hall s'apparente aux autres édifices de la période coloniale, de style anglais classique (1720-1830), dont l'architecture s'inspirait des gravures de maisons rurales anglaises qu'avait présentées James Gibb dans son Book of Architecture, publié à Londres, en 1728.

La façade qui donne sur Chestnut Street présente un certain nombre d'ornements architecturaux : panneaux pleins de marbre encastrés entre les fenêtres du premier et du deuxième étages; clés et plates bandes de marbre; chaperons, des pierres d'angle et d'assise en marbre serpentin, des linteaux de brique polie surmontant les fenêtres et les soupiraux, et une corniche en bois richement sculptée.

On relève peu de détails architecturaux sur les pignons et les façades arrière dont les murs se terminent simplement par un bandeau de brique

(a) Description et inventaire (suite)

ornée de redans aux encoignures. L'on peut voir aussi, faisant angle avec la façade, les cheminées groupées sur les murs pignons et la balustrade ornant la partie supérieure de la toiture.

Praticquement tous ces éléments extérieurs de construction et de décoration datent de l'époque de la construction du Hall.

Les doubles portes de l'entrée de Chestnut Street donnent accès à une vaste salle centrale de 12,20 mètres de long sur 6,10 mètres de large. Les boiseries d'origine, qui furent achevées par Edmund Woolley dans les années 1750, sont presque entièrement intactes. Les murs, lambrissés du plancher au plafond, sont décorés de colonnes engagées, d'un entablement dorique romain et d'une corniche à modillons. Deux niches en tabernacle, ornés de pendentifs en pétales de bleuet de montures à godrons coupés de dards et de feuilles d'acanthé, flanquent l'entrée de l'Assembly Room. Le vestibule est pavé de briques.

L'Assembly Room se trouve sur le côté est du vestibule. C'est là que le Congrès continental et la Convention constitutionnelle ont élaboré et signé la Déclaration d'Indépendance et la Constitution des Etats-Unis. La pièce mesure environ 12 mètres de côté, ce qui est beaucoup pour une pièce de cette époque, construite sans poteaux intérieurs de soutien. L'ameublement de cette salle est suffisant pour recevoir plus de cinquante personnalités, un secrétaire, des employés, des huissiers et des visiteurs. La disposition des lieux reproduit fidèlement celle qui existait à l'époque où se tint le Congrès continental. Sur l'estrade du président de séance, on peut voir les deux objets historiques les plus importants de la pièce, le grand encrier d'argent (avec boîte de plumes d'oie et son poudrier) qui servit à signer la Déclaration d'Indépendance et la Constitution, et la chaise "Soleil Levant" sur laquelle était assis George Washington lorsqu'il présida la Convention constitutionnelle.

Trois des murs de l'Assembly Room sont couverts de boiseries lambrissés dans leur partie basse et surmontés de panneaux de plâtre à moulures. Le mur qui fait face à l'entrée, lambrissé sur toute sa hauteur, et décoré de pilastres massifs cannelés supportés par des piédestaux; il compte une porte à chaque encoignure, deux cheminées jumelles avec arc surbaissé, et une grande niche en tabernacle au centre. Un lustre en cristal pend du plafond

(a) Description et
inventaire
(suite)

à gorge; blanchi à la chaux, d'une hauteur de 6 mètres. Seule la frise aux coquilles délicatement sculptées qui orne la niche date de l'origine de la pièce. Une balustrade sépare cette partie de la pièce de la galerie réservée au public. La porte principale est surmontée d'un petit fronton en bois, audacieux dans sa conception, soutenu par des consoles sculptées. Un riche entablement de style dorique romain borde le plafond.

A l'ouest du vestibule central, on aperçoit à travers trois grandes arcades la salle de la Cour Suprême, qui mesure environ 12 mètres de côté. Elle fut le siège habituel de la Cour Suprême de Pennsylvanie, puis celui d'autres tribunaux d'Etat ou locaux. Des pilastres cannelés massifs d'ordre dorique romain décorent les murs lambrissés. A l'exception de la plinthe et de l'entablement, la totalité des boiseries est d'époque et date des années 1740. Le mobilier fixe, y compris le siège surélevé du juge contre le mur ouest et les bancs des jurés disposés de part et d'autre, sont des reconstitutions.

Derrière le vestibule central se trouve la cage en forme de tour de l'escalier à deux paliers décoré en ionique. Cet espace de 10 mètres sur 9 mètres comporte une fenêtre palladienne flanquée de deux niches en tabernacle; un entablement complet avec une corniche simple à modillons, en parcourt toute la longueur. Une autre corniche massive, ornée de modillons qui figurent alternativement des rosaces et des feuilles d'acanthé, borde le plafond situé à 15 mètres de haut. Les éléments décoratifs de l'escalier proprement dit comprennent une rampe en acajou, des balustres et un limon à crémaillère sculptés, ainsi qu'une frise très ouvragée qui borde les paliers.

Au premier étage du corps principal, on découvre un vestibule carré de 6 mètres de côté et, de part et d'autre, deux salles; "Governor's Council Chamber" et "Committee Room", chacune mesurant 6 mètres sur 12 mètres; enfin la "Long Gallery", qui fait 30 mètres sur 6 et traverse tout l'avant du bâtiment. Le mobilier de ces salles permet de se faire une idée des activités du corps législatif et du gouvernement de Pennsylvanie avant 1775. Toutes les pièces sont décorées sobrement: lambris, enduits de plâtre, simples corniches moulées et plafonds à gorge. Les murs du fond sont recouverts de boiseries sur toute leur hauteur; des pilastres ioniques cannelés parent les cheminées revêtues de marbre.

(a) Description et inventaire (suite).

La "Liberty Bell" (Cloche de la Liberté), l'objet le plus célèbre d'Independence Hall, est actuellement exposée dans un pavillon spécial situé sur Independence Mall, de l'autre côté de Chestnut Street.

(b) Cartes et/ou plans

L'essentiel des documents originaux anciens concernant Independence Hall se trouvent dans les collections de l'"Historical Society of Pennsylvania", 1300 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19107. Le chercheur non spécialiste aura intérêt à consulter surtout les collections de l'"Independence National Historical Park". Il pourra les consulter en s'adressant au siège du Park, 313 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106.

Les rapports concernant la restauration et la recherche historique, établis par les soins du "National Park Service" depuis que la responsabilité de l'édifice lui a été confiée, n'ont pas été publiés. Toutefois, grâce à la coopération de l'"American Philosophical Society", la majeure partie de ces rapports a été microfilmée. Pour tout renseignement quant à l'emploi de ce matériel de travail s'adresser au siège de la Société, Independence Square, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106.

En outre, la "Cultural Resources Management Division", US National Park Service, Department of the Interior Building, Washington, D.C. 20240, détient en stock des copies d'une bonne partie des documents concernant la restauration et l'histoire d'Independence Hall conservés à l'Independence Park et à l'"American Philosophical Society."

Les documents suivants sont joints à la présente demande d'inscription : (1)

Independence Hall : Plan de situation: Etabli par Bethanie C. Grashof, Historic American Buildings Survey, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, US Department of the Interior, 440 G Street, NW., Washington, D.C. 20243).

Official United States Geological Survey Quadrangle Map of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Carte de Philadelphie établie par les services géologiques officiels des Etat-Unis) (Echelle : 1/24.000).

(c) Documentation photographique et/ou cinématographique (1)

(1) voir note jointe

(d) Historique

L'histoire d'Independence Hall peut se diviser en quatre périodes principales : celle où le Hall servit de State House (Parlement) de Pennsylvanie et qui va de 1732 à 1799 (période pendant laquelle il accueillit le Congrès continental et la Convention constitutionnelle); la période comprise entre 1802 et 1828 où le Hall fut un musée; celle qui s'étend de 1818 à 1895, où il fit office de bâtiment municipal; enfin, celle qui va de 1898 à nos jours, où il devint monument historique. L'édifice a subi un certain nombre de modifications et a été l'objet de plusieurs tentatives de restauration.

C'est un éminent homme de loi, Andrew Hamilton, qui s'est fait le principal artisan de l'édification d'Independence Hall en tant que parlement de l'Assemblée de Pennsylvanie. En sa qualité de Président de cette Assemblée, il s'efforça de la doter d'un lieu de réunion qui fût plus digne de ses fonctions que les demeures particulières ou les tavernes où elle se tenait jusque-là. La construction fut entreprise en 1732.

Hamilton acquit les droits de propriété de plusieurs parcelles d'un terrain alors situé à la périphérie de la ville; il fit approuver par l'Assemblée des mesures de financement et présenta pour examen le premier d'une série de projets. Après force discussions et différends entre les membres du comité de gestion, l'Assemblée adopta le projet qu'avait défendu Hamilton et les travaux purent commencer.

Pour autant qu'on le sache, les plans de l'édifice traduisent les conceptions générales qui étaient celles d'Hamilton en matière d'architecture, habilement concrétisées par son maître d'oeuvre, Edmund Woolley. C'est ainsi qu'une personne de condition qui s'intéressait à la construction et à la conception architecturale, et un maître charpentier non moins intéressé par ces questions, mirent en commun leurs talents pour édifier cet important monument historique.

En 1735, les ailes est et ouest furent adjointes au projet initial, afin que les services administratifs de la Province pussent disposer de bureaux au centre législatif du gouvernement. Les bâtiments n'étaient encore que des coques vides, mais l'Assemblée prit possession cette même année d'une salle encore inachevée. Peu après, l'argent vint à manquer, et lorsqu'en

(d) Historique
(suite)

1741 Hamilton mourut, son projet n'était que partiellement réalisé. En 1742, "L'Assembly Room" fut enfin aménagée et décorée et, en 1749, le reste du bâtiment était achevé, y compris le dôme octogonal qui ornait le toit.

En 1750, l'Assemblée ordonna l'érection d'un édifice qui abriterait un nouvel escalier et "un lieu où il fut possible de suspendre une cloche". Ce fut encore une fois Edmund Wooley qui dirigea les travaux. Dès le milieu de l'année 1753, le gros oeuvre du campanile était suffisamment avancé pour que la nouvelle cloche, portant l'inscription : "Proclame la liberté dans tout le pays, à tous ses habitants", puisse être mise en place dans la lanterne.

Au projet initial vinrent s'ajouter une bibliothèque et une salle des commissions (committee room) contiguë à l'Assembly Room, en même temps qu'une horloge monumentale sur le mur à pignon ouest du State House et un cadran correspondant pour le pignon est. Le mécanisme d'horlogerie correspondant à ces deux cadrans, conçu par Thomas Stretch, fut fixé au centre du comble; de longues tiges de fer faisaient tourner les aiguilles.

Aucune autre modification majeure ne fut apportée au bâtiment jusqu'en 1775, date à laquelle le Second Congrès continental se réunit dans l'Assembly Room. Le Congrès s'y tint à différentes reprises jusqu'en 1783, après la fin de la guerre. C'est dans cette pièce qu'il nomma George Washington commandant en chef de l'Armée continentale, qu'il adopta et signa la Déclaration d'Indépendance et qu'il agit en tant que premier gouvernement national. Quand Philadelphie fut occupée par l'Armée britannique, en 1777-78, le State House servit tout à la fois d'hôpital, de prison et de caserne et subit d'importants dégâts.

Lorsque les forces américaines contrôlèrent à nouveau la ville, le Congrès reprit possession de l'Assembly Room. A la fin de 1778, l'Assemblée de l'Etat décida de transformer le premier étage pour créer une salle de 12 mètres de côté où elle pourrait se réunir en attendant que le Congrès quitte les lieux. L'année suivante, la Salle de la Cour Suprême fut aussi réaménagée. En 1781, l'Assemblée fit enlever la partie en bois de la tour: le matériau avait pourri et la tour devenait dangereuse. Le clocher fut remplacé par un toit bas, pyramidal, surmonté d'une flèche.

(d) Historique
(suite)

C'est à cette époque que la cloche du State House fut replacée à l'étage supérieur en brique de la Tour.

En vertu des premiers textes écrits établissant le cadre général de gouvernement du pays - les Articles de la Confédération, qui entrèrent en vigueur en 1781 - le Congrès continental continua de se réunir dans l'Assembly Room. Le bail vint à expiration en juin 1783, après un incident qui mit aux prises le Congrès et des miliciens de Pennsylvanie qui n'avaient pas touché leur solde.

L'Assembly Room servit ensuite temporairement de vestiaire des juges, puis, pendant un temps, de salle d'exposition pour l'artiste-peintre Robert Edge Pine. En 1784, des modifications et des réparations d'ensemble y furent effectuées et l'année suivante, l'Assemblée de Pennsylvanie reprit possession de son lieu de réunion traditionnel.

En 1787, l'Assemblée se priva une fois encore de sa salle de réunion. La Convention constitutionnelle se réunissait pour rédiger un nouveau cadre de gouvernement pour les Etats américains. Les délégués délibérèrent à huis clos de mai à septembre. George Washington présidait les séances. Benjamin Franklin, James Madison, James Wilson, le Gouverneur Morris et Alexander Hamilton étaient au nombre des hautes personnalités présentes. Après la signature du document, le 17 septembre, les délégués se séparèrent et le State House fut rendu à son usage habituel.

Lorsque le Gouvernement fédéral s'installa à Philadelphie en 1790, le Congrès des Etats-Unis se réunit dans le Congress Hall, qui avait été construit en 1787-89, sur Independence Square, au coin de Chestnut Street et de Sixth Street, pour servir de tribunal de comité. Dans l'intervalle, le Jardin du State House agrandi était devenu le Square et l'American Philosophical Society Hall avait été construit.

En 1789, un changement dans le gouvernement de la Pennsylvanie rendit nécessaire de nouvelles modifications. La Salle de la Cour Suprême fut transformée pour être à même de recevoir la magistrature élargie de la cour d'appel. A deux reprises, dans les années 1790, la Cour

(d) Historique
(suite)

Suprême des Etats-Unis se réunit dans cette salle d'audience, lorsqu'elle ne put tenir séance dans le bâtiment du City Hall (1790-91), attenant à Independence Hall, à l'angle de Chestnut et de Fifth Streets.

En 1799, le gouvernement de Pennsylvanie se transporta à Lancaster et, l'année suivante, le Gouvernement fédéral alla s'installer à Washington, D.C. Les fonctionnaires de la ville et du comité continuèrent d'utiliser le rez-de-chaussée d'Independence Hall pendant un temps, et c'est là que l'on procéda aux élections; mais le premier étage resta inoccupé. Trois ans plus tard, le peintre naturaliste Charles Willson Peale demanda à utiliser le State House comme salle d'exposition. Sa requête fut acceptée et l'on mit même à sa disposition la partie est du rez-de-chaussée et tout le premier étage. Il mit immédiatement en oeuvre un programme de transformations qui furent achevées au milieu de l'année et, dès juillet, il put ouvrir son musée au public.

Jusqu'en 1812, le State House ne subit que de rares modifications. Puis, parce qu'il fallait des bureaux à l'épreuve du feu, l'Etat autorisa la municipalité et le comité à démolir les ailes ainsi que les arcades qui les reliaient au State House, et à les remplacer par deux grandes ailes de bureaux conçues par l'architecte Robert Mills. Dès lors, ces bâtiments portèrent le nom de State House Row. Mills fit aussi abattre la salle des commissions et la bibliothèque. Puis l'Etat décida de vendre le State House à la ville de Philadelphie. Le gouverneur signa le contrat au début de l'année 1816, mais l'acte de cession ne prit effet que plus de deux ans après. Depuis lors, la ville de Philadelphie est restée propriétaire du State House ainsi que des bâtiments et des terrains qui s'y rattachent. La ville aménagea les bâtiments du square pour en faire une sorte de centre civique. Pendant les travaux d'aménagement de l'Assembly Room en salle de tribunal, les lambris, les pilastres ioniques, les frontons et l'entablement furent enlevés, jetés et remplacés.

L'opinion s'émut des changements apportés au bâtiment et il s'ensuivit une tentative de restauration. Avant cela, la visite du Marquis de Lafayette en 1824 avait déjà attiré l'attention sur le State House. Les cérémonies qui s'étaient déroulées dans l'Assembly Room avaient mis en

(d) Historique
(suite)

évidence l'état déplorable où se trouvait cette salle. La restauration du bâtiment suscita un intérêt croissant. Independence Hall fit alors l'objet d'un des premiers efforts réalisés aux Etats-Unis pour la conservation des monuments historiques.

On commença par la tour, en 1828: la ville fit reconstruire le clocher d'après les plans de l'architecte William Strickland; puis l'on démontra les cadrans de l'horloge de Stretch qui se trouvaient sur les murs pignons du corps de bâtiment principal, et on en installa quatre autres au second niveau du nouveau clocher.

Après la mort de Peale en 1828, le U.S. Marshall, pour le District est de Pennsylvanie, loua l'étage du State House pour y installer des salles d'audience et des bureaux. Mais en prévision de cette réorganisation, la ville avait chargé l'architecte John Haviland d'examiner la structure et les aménagements du bâtiment. A la suite de pétitions adressées par les habitants en faveur de la restauration de l'Assembly Room, le conseil municipal demanda à l'architecte d'étudier les moyens de le faire.

Ne disposant d'aucunes données précises sur lesquelles se fonder, Haviland décida de s'inspirer de la Salle de la Cour Suprême pour restaurer l'Assembly Room. L'idée n'était pas mauvaise et pourtant, son oeuvre de restauration allait leurrer plusieurs générations de visiteurs sur le caractère originel de la salle. Les boiseries d'Haviland, mises en place in 1831-32, allaient y rester jusqu'à ce que le "National Park Service" commence la restauration du bâtiment.

Pendant plus de vingt ans, Independence Hall - dénomination qui devenait de plus en plus couramment la sienne - ne subit aucune modification. Les tribunaux fédéraux quittèrent les lieux. La fusion réalisée entre la municipalité et le comté de Philadelphie, en 1854, conduisit à étendre considérablement les services et l'administration. "Common Council" et le "Select Council" déménagèrent de City Hall pour s'installer dans les salles réaménagées et occuper tout l'étage d'Independence Hall. Les déformations des plafonds furent corrigées, des poêles installés, et des galeries construites.

Bien que les travaux de transformation entrepris en 1854 se soient poursuivis durant quarante ans, ils présageaient des jours meilleurs pour l'Assembly Room. Après la visite de Lafayette, cette salle

(d) Historique
(suite)

n'eut pas de fonction assignée, sauf pour une courte période pendant laquelle elle fit fonction de salle d'audience. Elle servit à l'occasion de salle de réception pour les visiteurs de marque de la ville de Philadelphie, mais en général elle fut "préservée comme un lieu sacré que l'on montrait aux étrangers." Des reliques historiques dont la Cloche de la Liberté en 1852, y furent peu à peu rassemblées. En 1854, cette salle fut rénovée et des portraits du musée de l'école récemment accuis allèrent rejoindre la statue de George Washington, oeuvre de William Rush.

Il fallut attendre encore une cinquantaine d'années pour qu'Independence Hall - riche en souvenirs historiques - soit l'objet des attentions des conseils de Philadelphie. En 1872, ils décidèrent que l'Assembly Room serait "à jamais un lieu classé et destiné exclusivement à recevoir le mobilier et l'aménagement qui étaient les siens à l'origine, en juillet 1776, ainsi que les portraits des " ... hommes de la révolution." Un comité se constitua à cet effet et il s'attaqua à la restauration de la totalité de l'édifice. Dès 1873, la Court of Common Pleas évacua la Salle de la Cour Suprême, et le remplacement des boiseries abîmées et pourries fut entrepris. Ce n'était certes pas une restauration véritable, mais Independence Hall, pour la célébration du centenaire de l'Indépendance, en 1876, avait noble apparence. Dans l'élan du centenaire, on fonda le Musée National ainsi nommé. Au cours des ans, le musée s'emplit de beaucoup d'objets qui avaient trait à la période de la Révolution américaine.

Une autre vingtaine d'années s'écoula pendant lesquelles le National Museum demeura logé au rez-de-chaussée, et les conseils au premier étage. Mais, en 1895, le Select et le Common Councils vinrent s'installer dans le nouvel Hotel de Ville (City Hall), à l'angle de Broad et de Market Streets. Pour la première fois en plus de 150 ans, Independence Hall n'était plus le théâtre des activités gouvernementales. Dès lors, les sociétés patriotiques firent de sa restauration leur objectif. Les Filles de la Révolution américaine furent autorisés à restaurer le premier étage. Elles engagèrent l'architecte T. Mellon Rogers. A un moment donné, la ville dut entreprendre de restaurer la totalité de l'édifice.

Pour sa tentative de restauration Rogers s'inspira des dessins originaux. Si les cloisons du premier

(d) Historique
(suite)

étage retrouvèrent assés exactement leur emplacement initial, on ne peut en dire autant des éléments du décor architectural, très infidèles au modèle. Dans la Salle de la Cour Suprême, Rogers enleva l'entablement d'origine afin de pouvoir abaisser le plafond. Il démolit les bâtiments que Mills avait fait édifier pour les remplacer par des imitations, aux proportions incorrectes, des édifices de 1735. Les travaux de 1897-98 - qui constituaient la première restauration d'ensemble - mirent à jour de nombreux vestiges du passé qu'on ne sut ni répertorier, ni interpréter correctement. Les ailes et les arcades que l'on peut voir aujourd'hui datent de cette restauration.

Vers 1920, la branche locale de l'"American Institute of Architects" (A.I.A.) commença à s'intéresser activement à l'Independence Hall. Le comité de restauration de l'A.I.A. s'inquiéta particulièrement de certains faiblesses structurelles et s'efforça d'y remédier en touchant le moins possible à l'ossature de l'édifice.

Plus tard, le Hall fut confié aux soins d'un conservateur municipal, chargé de la gestion du National Museum, ainsi que de celles des autres bâtiments situés sur Independence Square. Le personnel de garde et d'entretien se trouva aux prises avec les problèmes posés par l'entretien d'un édifice vieillissant, visité annuellement par des centaines de milliers de personnes. Les difficultés croissantes auxquelles ils durent faire face aboutirent à la constitution de l'Association pour l'Independence Hall ("Independence Hall Association") en 1942. L'association fit campagne pour obtenir la création d'un parc historique national regroupant les édifices d'Independence Square et les autres sites et bâtiments importants de Philadelphie.

(e) Bibliographie

Voir annexe I

Etat de préservation/
de conservation

(a) Diagnostic

Independence Hall est aussi bien conservée que possible. Le bâtiment est en excellent état, tant du point de vue de sa structure que de celui de son apparence extérieure. Il a fait l'objet d'études de restauration soigneuses et approfondies, dont on a su avec l'aide de techniciens

(a) Diagnostic
(suite)

avertis, lui appliquer les résultats.

L'afflux des visiteurs pose certains problèmes d'entretien. (Le parc a accueilli 5 millions et demi de visiteurs dans les neuf premiers mois de 1976 et 3 millions 800 000 visiteurs pendant la même période comparable en 1978.) Toutefois un personnel hautement qualifié et compétent assure toute la gamme des opérations d'entretien, de préservation technique et de prise en charge des visiteurs - ce qui réduit au minimum la dégradation de cet ensemble historique.

(b) Agents
responsables de
la préservation
ou de la
conservation

Superintendent
Independence National Historical Park
313 Walnut Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106

Director
National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

Secretary of the Interior
U.S. Department of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

(c) Historique de
la préservation
ou de la
conservation

Ces trente dernières années, Independence Hall a fait l'objet d'un des plus sérieux efforts de conservation et de restauration jamais entrepris sous les auspices du gouvernement des Etats-Unis.

Les premiers essais de restauration d'Independence Hall avaient coûté à l'édifice une partie de sa structure d'origine et fait naître des doutes quant à l'authenticité de certains éléments restés en place. Une utilisation intensive comme centre administratif, puis le passage de millions de visiteurs après sa transformation en musée, avait sérieusement ébranlé l'édifice. C'est au début des années 1950 que le personnel du "National Park Service" s'engagea dans une opération de préservation de longue haleine qui s'est poursuivie presque jusqu'à nos jours. Après une phase initiale de recherche, d'étude et de planification, une étude architecturale limitée fut entreprise vers 1955. Une recherche documentaire de grande ampleur, menée sur quinze ans, fournit des données très utiles. En même temps, un examen approfondi de la structure de l'édifice permit de connaître dans le détail tout ce que le bâtiment avait subi au cours des ans.

(c) Historique de
la préservation
ou de la
conservation

Ces études se poursuivirent en même temps que progressaient les opérations limitées de démontage nécessaires à la remise en état de l'ossature de l'édifice. Une série de rapports complets et détaillés rendit compte des découvertes effectuées durant les travaux de recherches et prépara la voie aux décisions à prendre quant à la nature et l'étendue des opérations de restauration et de remise en état. Les travaux de remise en état proprement dits commencèrent en 1962 et durèrent pendant près de dix ans. L'édifice a été consolidé et renforcé et il est aujourd'hui très proche d'aspect du State House que les chefs de la Révolution américaine ont connu.

Lors de la remise en état des parties portantes, on se rendit compte que les murs et les cloisons en maçonnerie étaient assez solides pour supporter le poids des fers nécessaires à la consolidation des planchers et des plafonds affaissés. On constata heureusement aussi qu'il était possible d'encastrier des poutrelles d'acier dans les murs sans avoir à démonter le toit. La tour fut aussi par la même occasion équipée de renforts métalliques. À l'extérieur, l'horloge située à l'extrémité ouest fut reconstruite. De plus, les moulures furent réparées, le soubassement en pierre rejointoyé et le toit restauré.

On puisa à quantité de sources diverses pour mener à bien la restauration de l'intérieur. Les fragments et les traces des détails originels sur les murs furent d'un grand secours dans cette entreprise. Les analyses des couches de peinture enlevées sur les boiseries datant du milieu de XVIII^e siècle, dans la Salle de la Cour Suprême et dans Centre Hall, permirent la restauration des coloris d'origine.

La gravure d'Edward Savage (1790), "Le Congrès votant l'indépendance", révélait des détails utiles pour la restauration de l'Assembly Room. On s'inspira d'éléments appartenant à d'autres édifices de la même époque pour remplacer les détails manquants, y compris les moulures de marbre des manteaux de cheminées de l'Assembly Room.

Des systèmes de régulation de la température et de l'hygrométrie ambiante ainsi que de purification de l'air furent aussi installés dans le Hall. Ils contribueront à la conservation de ce qui reste de la structure originelle de l'édifice pendant encore de nombreuses années.

(c) Historique de la préservation ou de la conservation

Aucun travail supplémentaire de conservation n'est envisagé dans un avenir prévisible.

On trouvera dans les ouvrages suivants d'excellents aperçus sur les travaux de restauration d'Independence Hall. Leurs auteurs ont joué un rôle clef dans les opérations de restauration de l'édifice:

Batcheler, Fenelope Hartshorne. "Independence Hall: Its Appearance Restored," pp. 298-318, in Charles E. Peterson (ed.), Building Early America (Radnor, Pennsylvania: Chilton Book Company, 1976).

Nelson, Lee H. "Restoration in Independence Hall," Antiques (July 1966).

Nelson, Lee H. "Independence Hall: Its Fabric Reinforced," pp. 279-297 in Charles E. Peterson (ed.), Building Early America (Radnor, Pennsylvania: Chilton Book Company, 1976).

Riley, Edward M., "The Independence Hall Group," pp. 7-42, in American Philosophical Society, Historic Philadelphia from the Founding until the Early Nineteenth Century. Issued as Volume 43, Part 1, of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society. Philadelphia, 1953.

(d) Moyens de préservation ou de conservation

La préservation d'Independence Hall a été ordonnée par l'assemblée législative de l'Etat, par une loi affectant des crédits budgétaires annuels à cet effet. Le personnel actuel comprend près de 200 employés permanents auxquels viennent s'ajouter une moyenne de 80 employés saisonniers en période de pointe. Le budget annuel s'élève actuellement à quelque 4 600 000 dollars. Sur cette somme, environ 3 500 000 dollars représentent le coût du personnel.

Les membres du personnel spécialisé de l'Independence National Historical Park sont à pied d'oeuvre vingt-quatre heures sur vingt-quatre pour effectuer toutes les tâches d'entretien et de réparation voulues. Les membres du personnel de sécurité, aidés dans leurs travail par des systèmes d'alerte, sont là pour parer à tout acte de malveillance. Le Federal Bureau of Investigation (F.B.I.) organe du Ministère de la Justice des Etats-Unis, offre une protection et une aide supplémentaires; il en va de même des services municipaux de police et de pompiers de Philadelphie.

(d) Moyens de
préservation
ou de
conservation

Les centres du "National Park Service" de Denver (Colorado) et de Harpers Ferry (Virginie occidentale) apportent le concours de leurs services techniques en matière de recherche, de planification et de conservation des bâtiments. Ces dispositifs complètent les services prêtés par les spécialistes qualifiés du parc.

(e) Plans de
gestion

Pour les biens qui relèvent de son administration, le "National Park Service des Etats-Unis" a élaboré des plans généraux de gestion. Ces plans définissent des stratégies à court terme et à long terme afin d'atteindre les objectifs prévus en matière de gestion de tel ou tel ensemble. L'exploitation du parc fait l'objet d'une analyse systématique intégrée. On s'efforce dans la mesure des ressources limitées disponibles de satisfaire les besoins, notamment en ce qui concerne le service des visiteurs, la conservation des bâtiments et la protection de l'environnement.

L'Independence National Historical Park est actuellement géré selon un plan approuvé en 1972. C'est au directeur du parc qu'il appartient de l'appliquer.

Justification de
l'inscription sur
la liste du
patrimoine mondial

(a) Bien culturel

L'inscription d'Independence Hall sur la Liste du patrimoine mondial est proposée en vertu du Critère VI concernant les biens culturels. L'édifice est fortement associé à des idées, des croyances et des événements d'une signification historique considérable.

Independence Hall a été le témoin de l'adoption et de la signature de deux des plus importants documents politiques de l'histoire de l'humanité : la Déclaration d'Indépendance des Etats-Unis (1776) et la Constitution (1787). Ces deux documents, qui marquaient pour les Etats-Unis le passage du statut de colonie à celui de pays indépendant, maître de son destin, étaient des instruments conçus pour servir les finalités nationales. Il n'en reste pas moins qu'ils énoncent des principes constants autant qu'universels et qu'ils expriment éloquemment les aspirations de l'humanité à plus de justice et de bonheur. Ces deux chartes ont transcendé les circonstances particulières dans lesquelles elles ont vu

(a) Bien culturel
(suite)

le jour et les insuffisances que pouvaient comporter leurs perspectives ou leur application pour devenir partie intégrante de l'héritage politique et philosophique universel.

Ces documents ont éclairé et inspiré les penseurs politiques de nombreuses régions du globe. Ils ont également enrichi la réflexion internationale quant à la nature et au rôle de tout gouvernement. Les dirigeants de bien des nations, quelle que soit la diversité de leurs orientations politiques, lorsqu'ils ont élaboré ou perfectionné leur propre système de gouvernement, ont adapté les concepts, le langage ou l'esprit de ces documents aux circonstances particulières où ils se trouvaient placés, ainsi qu'aux nécessités et aux finalités nationales propres à leur pays. Cette influence a surmonté les obstacles du temps, de la culture, de la langue et de l'idéologie.

Comme l'a dit U Nu, Premier Ministre de Birmanie, lors d'un discours qu'il prononça en 1954 dans Independence Hall :

"Les idées et les idéaux, les paroles et les mots d'ordre vibrants de la Révolution américaine ont une portée émotionnelle immense pour tous les hommes qui luttent pour la liberté."

Dans la même veine, l'Indien Jawaharlal Nehru, alors qu'il était emprisonné pour ses activités en faveur de l'indépendance, au début des années 30, examinant les progrès que l'homme avait enregistrés sur la voie de l'autonomie des Etats, écrivit ceci :

"Les paroles et les formules admirables de la Déclaration d'Indépendance des Etats-Unis et de la Déclaration des Droits de l'Homme de la Révolution française ont remué les hommes au plus profonds d'eux-mêmes. Elles ont galvanisé des millions d'êtres humains opprimés et exploités et leur ont apporté un message de délivrance. Toutes deux parlaient de liberté, d'égalité et du droit au bonheur que possède tout homme. Il n'a pas suffi de proclamer ces droits précieux pour que les hommes les obtiennent ... Mais la simple déclaration de ces principes était déjà en soi quelque chose d'extraordinaire et de vivifiant."

(a) Bien culturel
(suite)

La Déclaration d'Indépendance fut le document officiel le plus important de la Révolution américaine en même temps qu'un manifeste des droits de l'homme. Elle exprimait l'aspiration de nombreux Américains à une existence nationale séparée de la Grande Bretagne; elle exposait les griefs qui poussaient ces mêmes Américains à agir et énonçait les principes dont ils entendaient que s'inspirent leurs efforts.(1) La Constitution établissait une structure de gouvernement qui faisait désormais des Etats-Unis une Nation fédérale et non plus seulement une vague alliance d'Etats virtuellement autonomes.

L'idée de codifier les droits de l'homme pas plus que celle de gouverner en se fondant sur des textes écrits ne sont nées aux Etats-Unis. Ceux qui ont rédigé la Déclaration d'Indépendance et la Constitution étaient intellectuellement redevable aux conceptions philosophiques et aux théories politiques qui furent celles de nombreuses nations et des générations précédentes, à commencer par les Grecs et les Romains. Ces deux documents sont imprégnés de tradition européenne et classique, particulièrement des conceptions britanniques en matière de droit, et ils se sont largement inspirés des philosophes du siècle des lumières. Il n'en reste pas moins que ces deux documents, et les circonstances dramatiques qui ont entouré leur élaboration, ont capté et retenu l'attention du monde entier.

La Déclaration a constitué un précédent essentiel pour les nations qui luttèrent pour obtenir des puissances coloniales que l'indépendance leur fût accordée, mais également pour des nationalités en quête de leur identité en tant que nations, et pour tous les individus et les groupes qui s'efforcent de changer leur système de gouvernement.

Dès juillet 1789, par exemple, le Marquis de Lafayette présenta à l'Assemblée nationale française un projet de déclaration des droits calqué en partie sur la Déclaration américaine. Le projet soumis par Lafayette joua un rôle dans la rédaction de la très importante Déclaration des droits de l'homme et du citoyen, qui fut rédigée quelques mois plus tard.

(1) Les textes de la Déclaration d'Indépendance et de la Constitution suivent la présente justification (voir note jointe)

(a) Bien culturel
(suite)

L'influence conjuguée des idéologies révolutionnaires des Révolutions américaine et française s'exerça fortement non seulement en Europe mais aussi bien en Amérique latine, dès le début du XIXème siècle. En 1811, Francisco de Miranda, qui était retourné dans son pays natal, le Venezuela, après avoir servi dans les armées françaises des Révolutions française et américaine, prit la tête de la première révolution qui éclata - et échoua - dans les colonies espagnoles d'Amérique latine. L'extrait suivant, tiré de la Déclaration vénézuélienne d'Indépendance (1811) offre une ressemblance frappante dans sa terminologie avec celle des Etats-Unis :

"Nous, par conséquent, au nom du vaillant peuple du Venezuela et par la volonté et l'autorité qu'il nous a conférées, déclarons solennellement au monde que ses Provinces Unies sont et doivent être, en fait et en droit, des états libres, souverains et indépendants, qu'elles sont affranchies de toute dépendance à l'égard de la couronne espagnole ou de ceux qui s'instituent ses agents ou ses représentants, que le Venezuela, en tant qu'Etat libre et indépendant, a tout pouvoir d'adopter le système de gouvernement conforme aux vœux de la majorité de son peuple et que cet Etat est habilité à déclarer la guerre, à faire la paix, à conclure des alliances, à négocier des traités en matière de commerce, de frontières et de navigation, et à entreprendre et mener à bien tout autre action de la compétence des nations libres et indépendantes. Pour que notre Déclaration solennelle soit valide, immuable et durable, nous lions par le présent document chaque province à toutes les autres et nous engageons nos vies, nos fortunes et le lien sacré de notre honneur national."

Lorsqu'une vague de révolutions déferla sur l'Europe en 1848, certains chefs se reconnurent dans la philosophie de la Déclaration d'Indépendance américaine. Louis Kossuth, par exemple, exilé de Hongrie, se rendit aux Etats-Unis pour y chercher des appuis et, en 1851, il fit une visite symbolique à l'Independence Hall. La Déclaration d'Indépendance marquant la séparation de la Première République philippine de l'Espagne (1898) épousa des principes remarquablement similaires à ceux de la Déclaration américaine et emprunta même, partiellement, sa terminologie. Une partie de la Déclaration philippine est

(a) Bien Culturel
(suite)

ainsi conçue :

"Invoquant comme témoin de la droiture de nos intentions le Juge Suprême de l'Univers, et sous la protection de la puissante et clémentie Nation nord-américaine, nous proclamons et déclarons solennellement, au nom et en vertu de l'autorité des habitants de toutes ces Iles Philippines, qu'elles sont - et ont le droit d'être - libres et indépendantes; qu'elles sont dégagées de toute obédience à la couronne d'Espagne; que tout lien politique entre les deux pays est, et doit être, totalement rompu et aboli; et que, à l'instar de tous les états libres et indépendants, ces Iles ont pleine autorité pour faire la guerre, conclure la paix, nouer des traités de commerce, contracter des alliances, régler le commerce, et accomplir tout autre acte auquel un état indépendant est en droit de se livrer. Plaçant une confiance inébranlable dans la Divine Providence, nous engageons mutuellement, pour soutenir cette déclaration, nos vies, nos fortunes et ce que nous possédons de plus sacré, notre honneur."

A peine quelques années plus tard, en 1903, Sun Yat-sen, qui était alors à peu près inconnu en dehors de la Chine, vint aux Etats-Unis chercher des appuis pour la révolution qu'il projetait d'entreprendre dans son pays. Dans un pamphlet intitulé La vraie solution de la question chinoise, il établit une liste des griefs qu'il adressait au gouvernement impérial et qui n'étaient pas sans rappeler ceux qu'énumérait la Déclaration américaine :

"(1) Les Tartares conduisent les affaires de l'Etat dans leur propre intérêt et non dans celui des gouvernés.

(2) Ils font obstacle à notre développement intellectuel et matériel.

(3) Ils nous traitent en race assujettie et nous dénieient des droits et des privilèges égaux.

(4) Ils violent nos droits inaliénables à la vie, à la liberté et à la propriété.

(5) Ils pratiquent ou tolèrent la dépravation et la corruption.

(6) Ils suppriment la liberté de parole.

(7) Ils nous imposent de lourds impôts, contraires aux lois, sans notre consentement."

(a) Bien Culturel
(suite)

Durant la Première Guerre mondiale, et immédiatement après, de nombreuses nationalités voulurent se constituer en nations indépendantes dotées d'un gouvernement autonome. Une conférence des dirigeants d'Europe orientale, se tint à Independence Hall en octobre 1918 et adopta une "Déclaration des objectifs communs aux nations indépendantes d'Europe centrale". Ce document était calqué sur la Déclaration américaine et empruntait jusqu'à son style.

Dans le préambule de la Déclaration d'Indépendance de la République démocratique du Viet Nam (1945), Ho Chi Minh affirmait catégoriquement la portée internationale des principes de la Déclaration d'indépendance des Etats-Unis. En voici la teneur :

"Tous les hommes sont créés égaux. Ils ont reçu en partage de leur Créateur certains droits inaliénables, dont le droit à la vie, à la liberté et à la poursuite du bonheur."

Cette proclamation immortelle figure dans la Déclaration d'indépendance des Etats-Unis d'Amérique de 1776. Prise au sens large elle implique que tous les peuples de la terre sont égaux de naissance, que tous les peuples ont le droit de vivre, d'être heureux et libres.

Ce document se termine par une énumération de griefs à l'encontre des Français dans le style de la Déclaration américaine.

La Déclaration de Williamsburg (Va.), en 1952, paraphrasait elle aussi certains passages de cette même proclamation immortelle. Dans ce document, des personnalités d'Europe de l'Est en exil soulignaient leur insatisfaction à l'égard des gouvernements au pouvoir dans leurs pays d'origine.

La Constitution des Etats Unis a eu également un impact global très net. Les auteurs des constitutions d'un certain nombre de nations en ont paraphrasé des passages entiers ou bien ont adapté bon nombre de ses clauses. Le fait s'est produit en des lieux et à des époques où l'on n'aurait guère songé que l'influence de la Constitution des Etats-Unis irait s'exercer. Ce qui s'est passé au Brésil illustre bien la considération internationale dont ce document a été l'objet. En 1789, lorsque Silva Xavier dit "Tiradentes" fut appréhendé pour avoir fomenté une conjuration, il portait sur lui un

(a) Bien culturel
(suite)

exemplaire de la Constitution des Etats-Unis. La conjuration échoua et le Brésil resta colonie portugaise jusqu'en 1822, date à laquelle il se constitua en empire indépendant. Mais, lorsqu'en 1889, la nation devint une république, elle fut rebaptisée "les Etats-Unis du Brésil" et sa constitution (1891) fut calquée d'assez près sur celle des Etats-Unis d'Amérique.

Dans d'autres pays d'Amérique latine, l'influence de la Constitution des Etats-Unis s'est fait aussi sentir fortement. La Constitution du Venezuela de 1811 en a repris certains passages presque mot pour mot. Les hommes qui rédigèrent la Constitution mexicaine de 1824 et celle de l'Uruguay en 1830 étudièrent eux-aussi attentivement le document américain. Simón Bolívar (1783-1830), chef éminent des mouvements d'indépendance nationale dans la partie septentrionale de l'Amérique du Sud, tout en s'opposant à ce que fût appliqué à l'Amérique latine le principe du fédéralisme, tenait en haute estime certains autres aspects de la constitution des Etats Unis.

En Europe, le projet de constitution française de 1793 fut inspiré de celle des Etats Unis. Il en alla de même de la Constitution de la Deuxième République française. Ces documents exercèrent à leur tour une puissante influence.

Dans la Russie tsariste, certains chefs du groupe décembriste au début du XIXe siècle, étudièrent la constitution américaine. Mikita Murav'yev s'y conforma à bien des égards lorsqu'il rédigea un projet de constitution au début des années 1820. Il alla même jusqu'à paraphraser le serment présidentiel pour en faire celui du Tsar.

Aux Philippines la constitution de Malolos (1899) est le reflet du Préambule de la Constitution américaine :

"Nous, Représentants du peuple philippin, légitimement convoqués pour établir la justice, pourvoir à la défense commune, promouvoir le bien général et assurer les bienfaits de la liberté, implorant l'aide du Souverain Législateur de l'Univers pour parvenir à ces fins, nous avons voté, décrété et approuvé ce qui suit."

Le Préambule de la Charte des Nations Unies (1945) pour sa part fait pareillement écho à la Constitution américaine, non seulement par son

(a) Bien culturel
(suite)

fond, mais par ses premiers mots : "Nous, Peuples des Nations Unies ..."

L'importance de la constitution américaine pour la culture politique universelle tient à ce qu'elle est le plus ancien document officiel de ce type qui soit encore en usage. Elle tient aussi au fait que de nombreuses nations ont repris en l'adaptant le système de gouvernement qu'elle instituait. Mieux encore, elle a permis d'unifier un ensemble disparate d'Etats que séparaient de graves différends et elle a aidé ces Etats à coopérer pour atteindre de grands buts. C'est cette idée - l'instauration de principes généraux de gouvernement et la poursuite de l'intérêt commun par la collaboration, la discussion et le compromis - qui fait la portée internationale de la constitution des Etats-Unis.

La Déclaration d'indépendance et la Constitution des Etats-Unis, comme les autres grandes chartes et déclarations politiques universelles, sont l'expression des traditions et de la sagesse politiques de l'humanité. Independence Hall, qui est le lieu où s'élaborèrent les documents clefs de l'Amérique, mérite de figurer sur la Liste du patrimoine Mondial. Ce n'est pas un chef d'oeuvre architectural, et son aménagement est plus imposant que somptueux. Pourtant, ce modeste édifice possède le pouvoir d'inspirer ceux qui le visitent. Aux quatre coins du globe, des hommes dont les raisons et l'usage qu'ils ont fait des documents importants, ont reconnu la signification au regard de leurs propres aspirations, des événements qui s'y déroulèrent.

Documentation soumise à l'appui de la proposition d'inscription
d'Independence Hall sur la liste du patrimoine mondial

Les documents et autres sources d'information énumérés ci-dessous, qui ont été envoyés par les Etats-Unis d'Amérique à l'appui de la proposition d'inscription sus-mentionnée, peuvent être examinés à la Division du patrimoine culturel de l'UNESCO et pourront être consultés aux réunions du Bureau du Comité du patrimoine mondial et du Comité lui-même :

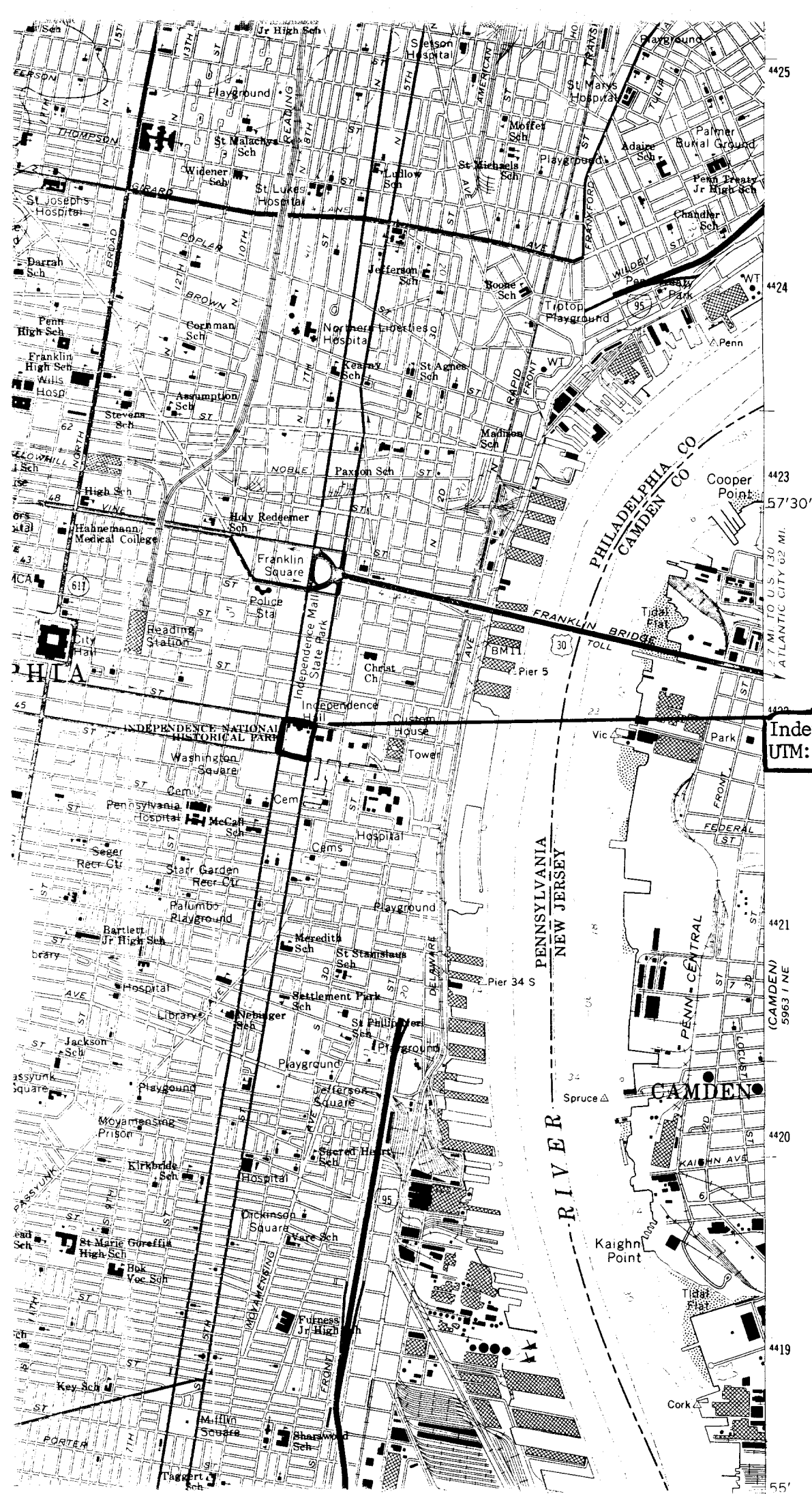
1. Independence Hall : Plan de situation.
2. Carte de la ville de Philadelphie (Pennsylvanie) établie par les services géologiques officiels des Etats-Unis.
3. 16 photographies.
4. Bibliographie, annexe 1.
5. Textes de la Déclaration d'Indépendance et de la Constitution des Etats-Unis.

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Pier 5

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INDEPENDENCE HALL: SITE PLAN

PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CHESTNUT STREET

SIXTH STREET

CONGRESS HALL

INDEPENDENCE HALL

OLD CITY HALL

PHILOSOPHICAL HALL

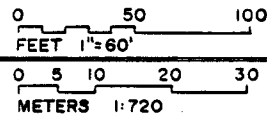
I N D E P E N D E N C E

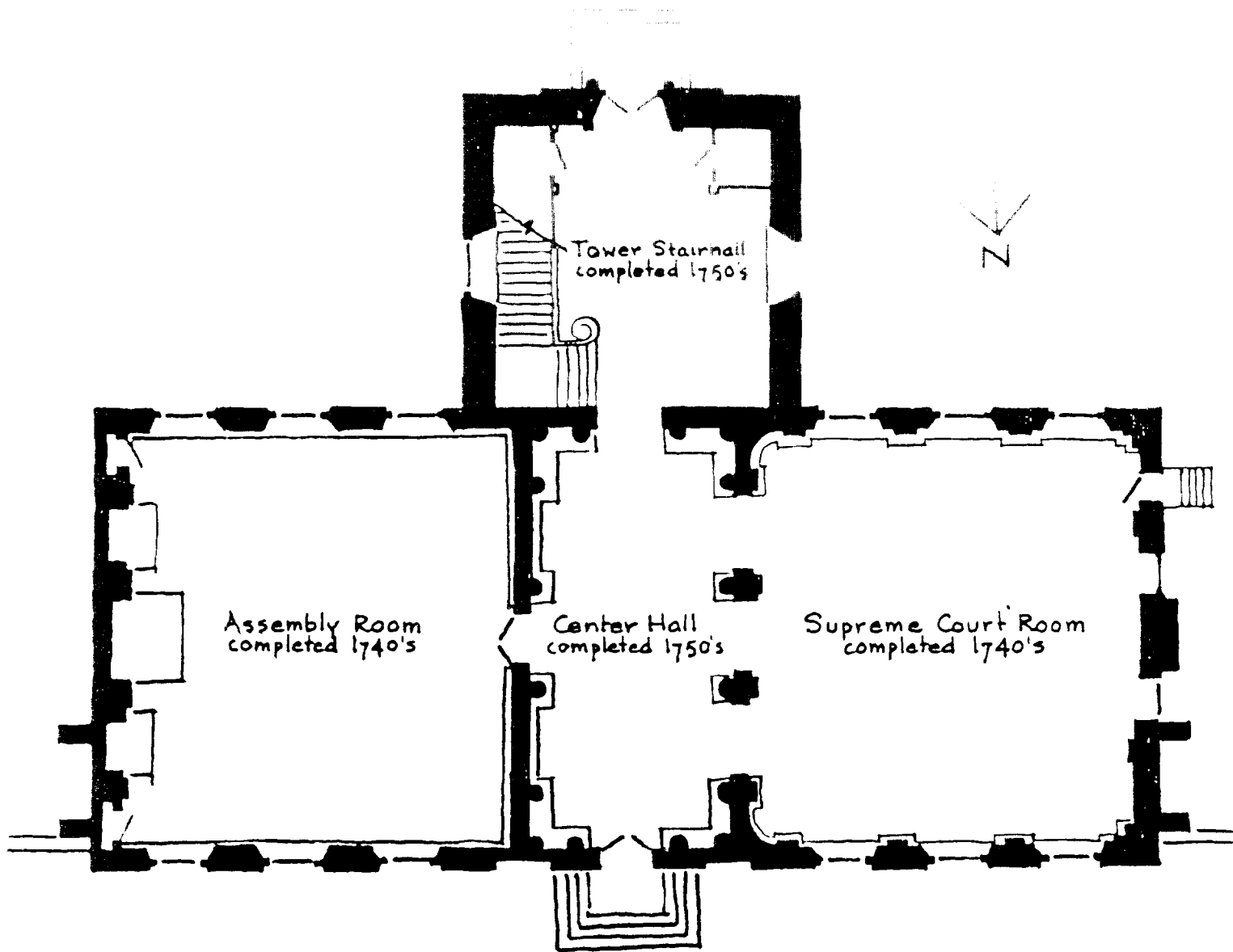


S Q U A R E

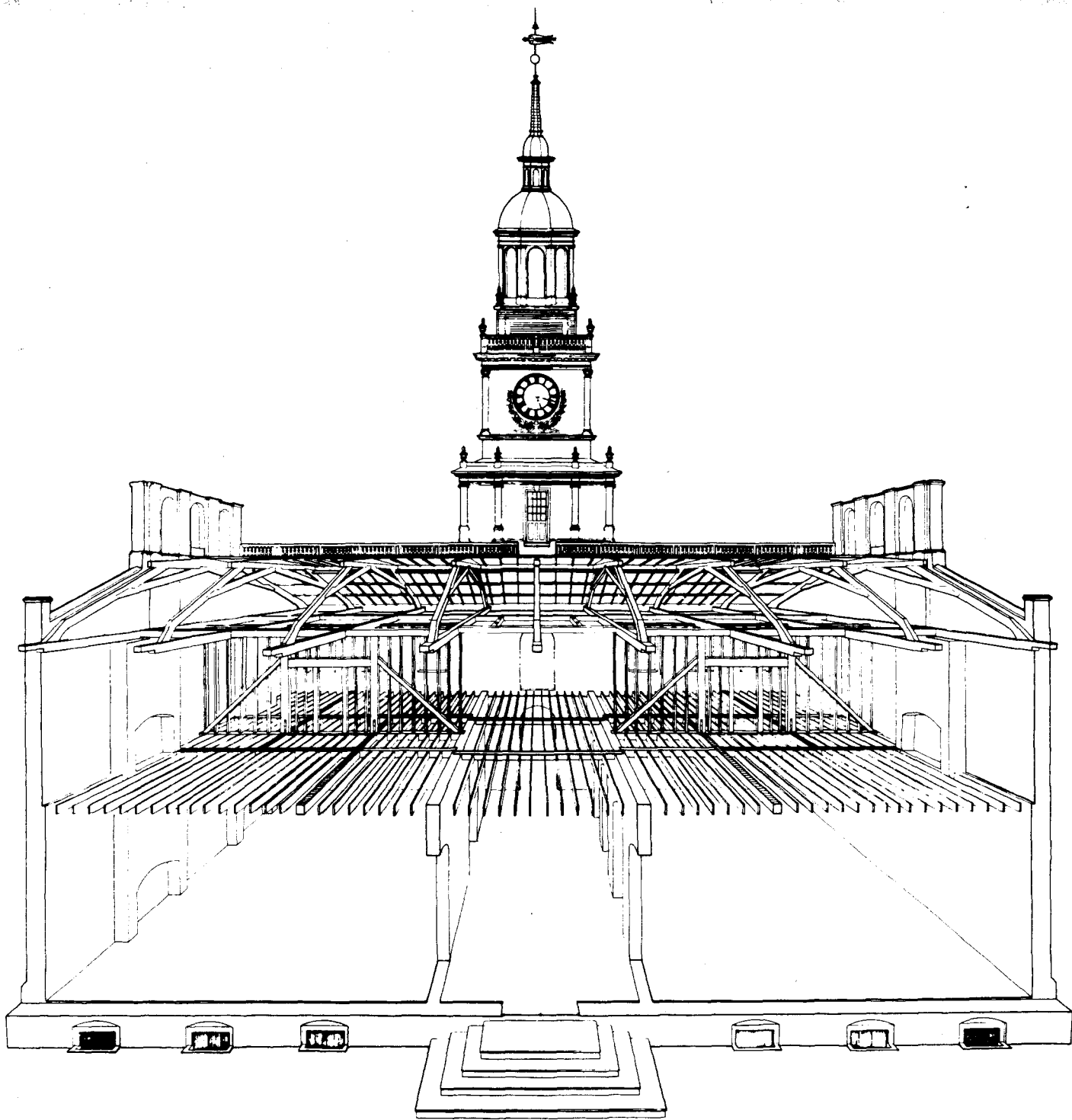
FIFTH STREET

WALNUT STREET





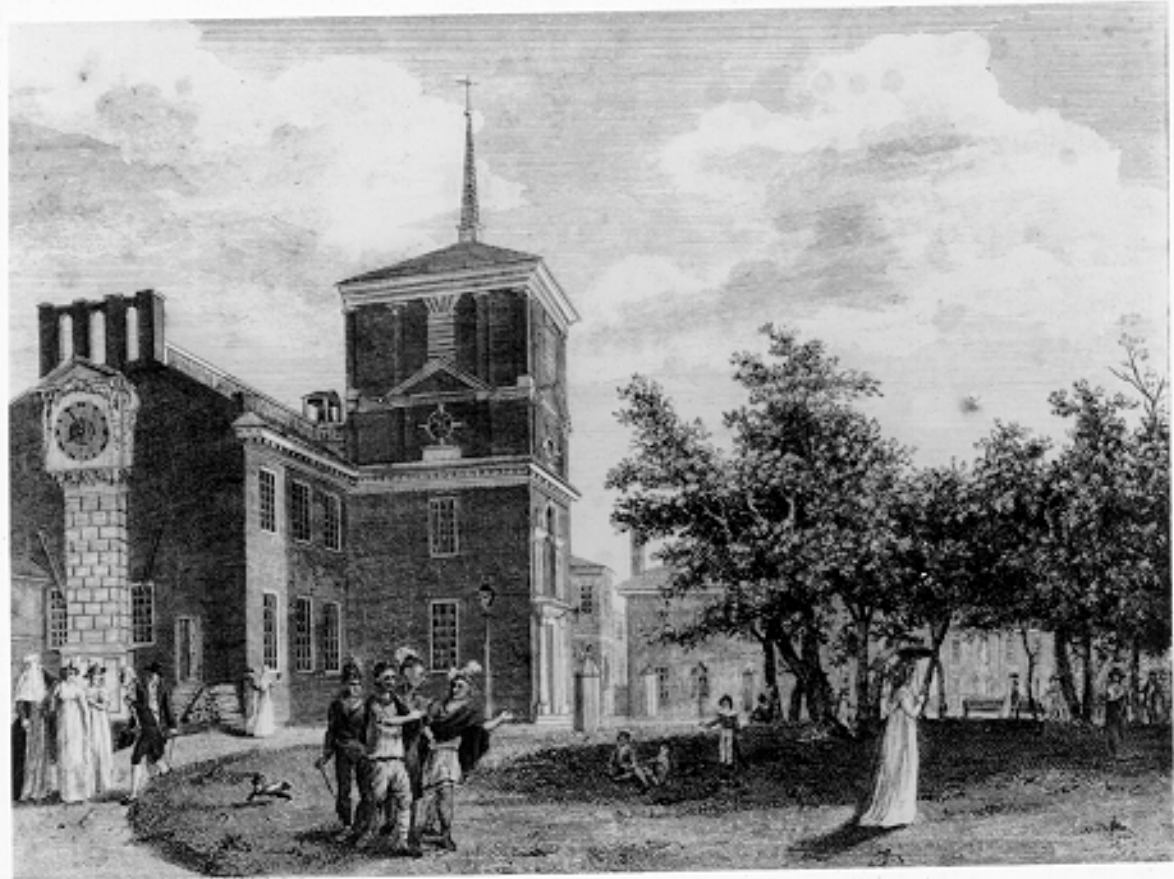
2. Sketch plan of the first floor.



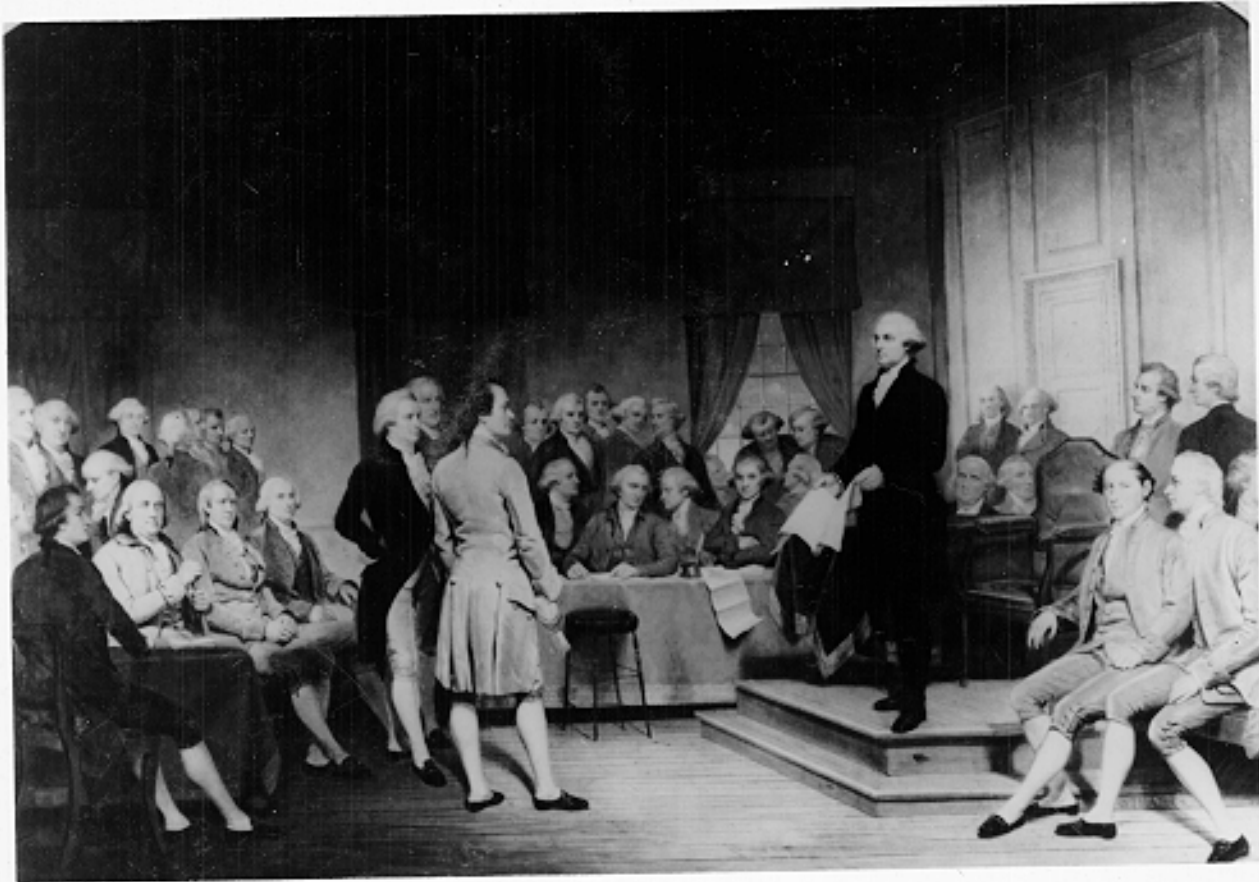
1. Diagrammatic cutaway drawing (from Chestnut Street) showing the principal structural systems.



3. The Assembly Room (1974). The Declaration and Constitution were signed in this room.



9. "Back of the State House" (1799).
The steeple had been removed in 1781.



7. "The Adoption of the Constitution,"
by Junius Brutus Stearns.

INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL ON MONUMENTS AND SITES

ICOMOS

April 10 1979

Nominations on the World Heritage List

REVIEW SHEET

INDEPENDENCE HALL - U.S.A. - °78

Proposed for ICOMOS Bureau recommendation

By virtue of criterion °6, "important historical events" relating to a great nation, the inscription of the Independence Hall can only be favorably received.

Panel:

M. André Chastel

Mr. Henry Millon

M. Jean Taralon

ICOMOS

no 78

29 March 1979

WORLD HERITAGE LIST (CULTURAL PROPERTY)

ICOMOS TECHNICAL REVIEW NOTES

N.B. All comments are keyed and numbered according to the World Heritage Nomination Forms. Information requested is underlined.

(a) Country: U.S.A.

(c) Name of property: Independence Hall (Identification ° 78)

The nomination received by ICOMOS was not signed on behalf of the State Party. In order to complete the dossier for the Committee's consideration, it is suggested that a signature page be furnished.

Otherwise, this is a complete, comprehensive, well-documented nomination.

Information requested above should be forwarded to:

The Secretariat
World Heritage Committee
Division of Cultural Heritage
UNESCO
7, place de Fontenoy
75000 Paris

ICOMOS

10 Avril 1979

Propositions d'inscription à la liste du patrimoine mondial

FICHE CRITIQUE

Independence Hall - U.S.A.- n°78

Bien à soumettre à la recommandation du Bureau de l'ICOMOS

Au titre n°6 des "grands souvenirs historiques" propres à une grande nation, l'inscription de l'Independence Hall ne peut être que favorablement accueillie.

Panel :

M. André Chastel

Mr. Henry Millon

M. Jean Taralon