

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

How did Americans in the decades following the Declaration of Independence translate that document's lofty ideals into practice? What did citizenship in the American republic mean? What were the rights and privileges associated with citizenship, and what were the duties and responsibilities? Who exactly was a citizen, and who wasn't? What did it mean to violate the terms of one's citizenship through unlawful acts?

Despite its founding statement that "all men are created equal," the early republic struggled with many forms of social and political inequality. While people paid homage to the ideal of equal rights, the ideal came up against entrenched social and political practices and beliefs. It was tested in matters involving race and ethnicity, religious freedom, gender and social class, and voting rights. And yet, "citizenship" had no broadly accepted legal definition until the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution (1868), where it was stated, simply, that "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside..." Designed to provide full citizenship rights to former enslaved persons, the Amendment left many questions open. It

also established the doctrine of "birthright citizenship," which would become controversial in the following century.

In this first section we set out some foundational documents and also look into a number of topics specific to the era running from the Federalist Period through Reconstruction. What did the incorporation of the vast Louisiana Purchase territory (in 1804) portend for the nation at large? How about the annexation of Texas (1845)? What did the ceding by Mexico of California and much of what is now the southwestern United States (Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 1848) mean in terms of the changing face of citizenship? These three milestone developments serve to shed light on later struggles within the nation as viewed through the lens of citizenship and democracy.

Also explored in this section is the first mass wave of immigration to the eastern section of the country, a wave consisting mostly of Irish migrants seeking relief from troubles at home. Their arrival was welcomed by some, yet opposed by nativist voices. The same mixed reaction would occur near the turn of the nineteenth century when a great influx of migrants from southern and eastern Europe entered the United States.

■ Naturalization Act of 1790

Date: March 26, 1790

Author: U.S. Congress

Genre: act of congress

Summary Overview

From the earliest colonial settlements in America what would become the United States developed as a multicultural society. Poles, Swiss, Dutch/Germans, Italians, and others resided in 17th century Jamestown alongside its English residents. Eighteen different languages were said to have been spoken in Dutch New Amsterdam (later New York) while Swedes established a colony near modern Philadelphia and large numbers of Germans settled in Pennsylvania and in New York's Mohawk Valley. Irish immigrants spread throughout the colonies, while Scots-Irish were found mostly in New Jersey and along the frontier regions. A study of religious organization in 1775 identified 668 Congregational Churches, 558 Presbyterian, 495 Anglican, 494 Baptist, 310 Quaker, 159 German Reformed, 150 Lutheran, 120 Dutch Reformed, 65 Methodist, 56 Catholic, and 6 Jewish congregations.

By the beginning of the American Revolution in 1775 estimates place the population of the thirteen colonies at about three million. Of these, approximately 85 percent traced their ancestry to the British Isles—English, Irish, Welsh, Scots, and Scots-Irish—8.8 percent were of German ancestry, and 3.5 percent of Dutch descent. Eventually, when the first United States census was undertaken in 1790, the enumeration included 3,929,214 people. Of these, some 2.1 million were of English ancestry, along with 757,000 African, 300,000 Scots-Irish, 270,000 German, 150,000 Scots, 100,000 Dutch, 15,000 French, 10,000 Welsh, 2,000 Jews, 2,000 Swedes, and about 200,000 total of various other ancestries. Clearly, the history of the nation was already the history of immigration, thus some means had to be established for newcomers to gain official citizenship.

Defining Moment

Each of the colonies which the Declaration of Independence transformed into states had their own requirements for political participation. These varied considerably from state to state but in most cases required some form of property ownership as a qualification for voting and holding elective office. Often, especially in the southern states, property qualifications could be significant thus limiting the franchise considerably. It has been estimated that at the time of George Washington's election as the first president only about six percent of the population

was eligible to vote. With the creation of a national government it became important to clearly define national citizenship before the voting rights issue could be clarified. And to define citizenship also required clarification whether, and under what circumstances, an immigrant, the subject of a different sovereignty, might be granted citizenship.

The Constitution adopted in 1787 outlined the form of government and the responsibilities of each of its three branches. Article I, section 8, clause 4 explicitly conferred on Congress the authority and responsibility "To establish a uniform Rule of Naturalization."

Author Biography

There was no single author for the first immigration and nationalization law adopted by Congress; rather, it was loosely based on British precedents with some modification to fit the prevailing preferences. In 1740 Parliament had adopted “An Act for naturalizing such foreign Protestants, and others therein mentioned, as are settled, or shall settle in any of His Majesty’s colonies in America.” This act stipulated that anyone who had lived in any of the English colonies in North America for a minimum of seven years could make application for naturalization as a British subject provided that the person was not absent from the colony for more than two months and that the applicant take an oath of allegiance to the crown and be a member of a Protestant or Reformed congregation.

Aside from the religious provisions, the law provided an easy avenue to citizenship. As such, it was designed to promote immigration to the colonies not only through its liberal provisions but by effectively placing the issue under the direct control of Parliament rather than the individual colonies, although the colonial courts were authorized to determine when applicants had successfully met the required conditions. Despite this attempt, many of the colonial courts acted on their own responsibility so that the intent of the law was not uniformly applied. This resulted in the withdrawal of authority for colonial courts to rule in these cases in 1773. Nevertheless, this act served as the initial basis for the legislation adopted by the First Congress in 1790.

HISTORICAL DOCUMENT: Naturalization Act of 1790

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That any Alien being a free white person, who shall have resided within the limits and under the jurisdiction of the United States for the term of two years, may be admitted to become a citizen thereof on application to any common law Court of record in any one of the States wherein he shall have resided for the term of one year at least, and making proof to the satisfaction of such Court that he is a person of good character, and taking the oath or affirmation prescribed by law to support the Constitution of the United States, which Oath or Affirmation such Court shall administer, and the Clerk of such Court shall record such Application, and the proceedings thereon; and thereupon such person shall be considered as a Citizen of the United States. And the children of such person so naturalized, dwelling within the United States, being under the age of twenty one years at the time of such naturalization, shall also be considered as citizens of the United States. And the children of citizens of the United States that may be born beyond Sea, or out of the limits of the United States, shall be considered as natural born Citizens: Provided, that the right of citizenship shall not descend to persons whose fathers have never been resident in the United States: Provided also, that no person heretofore proscribed by any States, shall be admitted a citizen as aforesaid, except by an Act of the Legislature of the State in which such person was proscribed.

GLOSSARY

Alien: An alien is someone who is not a citizen, someone whose political allegiance is to a different nation.

Common Law Court: A court in which decisions are based on judicial precedents established by judges or courts and which can also serve as precedents for future cases.

Naturalization: A process by which someone who is not a citizen achieves citizenship.

Document Analysis

Given the existing ethnic and religious diversity of the states at the time the Constitution was adopted, and the perceived need to attract new immigrants to boost the national economy, one of the priorities for the First Congress was establishing some national regulation of the naturalization process. Inasmuch as some of the more divisive arguments during the Constitutional Convention involved the issue of slavery, the first thing that this short legislation did was to establish that the only individual eligible for citizenship was a “free white person.” This provided a legal basis for denying citizenship not only to those of African ancestry, but to Asians, indigenous people, and anyone else deemed to be anything except “white.”

If the applicant met the initial criteria, the remaining requirements were quite liberal in keeping with the desire to attract new immigrants. One could apply for naturalization to any common court in any state after a residence in the country of only two years and in the state of just one year. The aspiring citizen need only prove that s/he was of “good character,” which could be done by a sworn witness, and take an oath of allegiance to the United States. The act also specifies that any children under the age of

21 who are living in the country when a person is naturalized are also automatically naturalized and that any child born to U.S. citizens while the parents are abroad will also be considered a citizen. The only restrictions were that the child of a female citizen born abroad to a father who had never resided in the U.S. would *not* be considered a citizen, nor would anyone be eligible who had already been rejected for citizenship by any of the states.

To implement the new policy, the law required the clerk of the court in which the naturalization oath was taken and the person approved to record the proceeding and the approval of the person so naturalized. However, the legislation did not specify the exact oath to be administered so in practice this varied across the country.

Essential Themes

In large part the 1790 legislation continued the relatively easy naturalization process adopted by the British government in 1740 with some significant differences. The most important of these was the elimination of the religious provisions of the earlier law, a change that was in accord with the Constitutional provision for freedom of religion in the First Amendment. It also reduced the residency requirement from

AFRICAN AMERICANS AND CITIZENSHIP

Citizenship in nineteenth-century America was something of a moving target. The Constitution did not specify its exact meaning, leaving lawmakers and other Americans to struggle over the fundamental questions of who could be a citizen, how a person attained that status, and what were the privileges such citizenship bestowed. As late as 1862, U.S. Attorney General Edward Bates observed that citizenship was “now as little understood . . . and the question as open to argument and speculative criticism as it was at the founding of the Government.”

The most serious problem involved the status of African Americans. In the *Dred Scott* case (1857), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that blacks, free or slave, were not and could not be citizens under the Constitution. This decision, which was closely connected to the conflicts leading to the Civil War, was invalidated after the war by the Fourteenth Amendment. The amendment deprived the states of authority over the determination of citizenship status, and made all persons born or naturalized in the United States citizens of both the nation and the state in which they lived.

Nevertheless, for at least the next century African Americans continued to suffer overt discrimination. Jim Crow laws, or “black codes,” institutionalized racial segregation throughout

the South (and allowed it in other parts of the country). A policy of “separate but equal” became the norm in public facilities, even though such separation made blacks de facto second-class citizens. Poll taxes and literacy tests were put in place to keep African Americans from participating in the vote. Small but committed groups of early black activists used newspapers, public gatherings, and conventions to make arguments about who could be a citizen, the protections that citizenship brought, and the obligations it imposed. They played a role in the long struggle to determine who belonged in the nation and the terms of that belonging.

By the mid-twentieth century, the doctrine of “separate but equal” had been set aside by the U.S. Supreme Court (in *Brown v. Board of Education*), and yet ongoing discrimination produced a mass civil rights movement; indeed, a whole era in American history known as the Civil Rights Era (1954–68) came into being. While the present work does not delve deeply into the history of that era (see *Defining Documents in American History: Civil Rights*; 2015), it covers a series of key documents from the 1964–65 period concerning *voting rights* legislation designed to guarantee African Americans their right as citizens to go to the polls and vote for the candidates of their choice.

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An advertisement to purchase a copy of the Chief Justice's opinion in the Dred Scott decision. Photo courtesy of Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division, via Wikimedia Commons. [Public domain.]

■ *Dred Scott v. Sandford*

Date: March 6, 1857

Author: Roger B. Taney

Genre: court opinion

Summary Overview

Delivered in a heated atmosphere of sectional tensions over slavery, the US Supreme Court decision in *Dred Scott v. Sandford* delighted proslavery forces, horrified antislavery activists, and unquestionably pushed the nation closer to the looming crisis of the Civil War. Written by Chief Justice Roger B. Taney, the ruling not only denied liberty to the plaintiff, an African American man who claimed that his temporary residence in a free state had earned him his freedom, but also declared that the US Constitution failed to grant the right of citizenship to any black American. The decision fueled the rise of the antislavery Republican Party and provided a rallying point for those opposed to the institution throughout the United States. As a result, sectional divides grew even larger, and within only a few years, the peace that some politicians had hoped the decision would assure had come to a complete end.

Defining Moment

By the time the US Supreme Court issued its decision in *Dred Scott v. Sandford*—also written as *Dred Scott v. Sanford* due to a typographical error in the original court ruling—the United States was inflamed by sectional tensions over slavery. Although the Compromise of 1850 had sought to ease rising sectional issues over the westward spread of slavery and the continued existence of the institution itself by throwing out the Wilmot Proviso, supporting the doctrine of popular sovereignty, and making a concession to proslavery interests in the form of a harsh Fugitive Slave Act, the hoped-for era of peace had failed to materialize.

Instead, sectional tensions greatly worsened. The debate over the expansion of slavery into the territories, fueled by the breaking of the Missouri Compromise line in favor of popular sovereignty under the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, created the violent era known as Bleeding Kansas, which lasted until 1861. The application of the Fugitive Slave Act enraged North-

erners, who were forced to become active participants in Southern slavery through the law's requirement that they actively assist in the capture and return of suspected fugitives to their owners, without a fair or equitable judicial system to hear claims. The publication of Harriet Beecher Stowe's enormously popular antislavery novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* in 1852 persuaded a great number of Northerners that the institution should be abolished. Political rifts over slavery led to the fall of the long-standing Whig Party and the rise of the new Republican Party, which opposed the expansion of slavery into new territories or states. In the spring of 1856, congressional debate over slavery exploded into violence when Southern congressman Preston Brooks physically attacked Northern senator Charles Sumner over the content of a speech that the abolitionist Sumner had delivered.

In November of 1856, voters elected James Buchanan to the presidency. A Democrat who had spent much of the era of rising tensions serving in government posts abroad, Buchanan had little grasp of the volatility of the national

situation. Believing that the measures of the past would serve to resolve the sectional tensions of the present, he appointed Northern and Southern officials to his administration and assumed that the debate over slavery could be solved by appeals to Americans' belief in their Constitution. The issuance of the *Dred Scott* decision by the Supreme Court just two days into his term showed how wrong Buchanan was. In his inaugural address, the new president—who presumably had an inkling of what the court's ruling would be—had argued that the impending Supreme Court decision would settle the question of slavery once and for all. Instead, it fed sectional antagonism and moved the nation inexorably closer to civil war.

Author Biography

Although each the justices of the US Supreme Court issued individual opinions on the ruling, the opinion of Chief Justice Roger B. Taney is generally considered the most historically significant. A native of Maryland, Taney was a member of one of the state's leading planter families. He studied law in his youth and served briefly in the Maryland state legislature in his early twenties, remaining interested in politics even after losing office in 1800. Despite conflicts with the Federalist Party over its lack of support for the War of 1812, he nevertheless became a leading voice in the state Federalist Party and returned to the Maryland legislature as a state senator in 1816. Over the next several years, Taney became attached to the Democratic Party under Andrew Jackson, and in 1831, he became attorney general in the Jackson administration.

In this role, Taney helped lead the legal fight against the Second Bank of the United States. In 1835, Jackson nominated Taney to the Supreme Court seat left vacant by the death of Chief Justice John Marshall. Considerable opposition was mounted in Congress to his appointment, but Taney eventually won confirmation. He assumed his new office in 1836 and held it until his death in 1864.

Taney's court opinions and the events of his life indicate a man deeply uncomfortable with the existence of the slave trade and institution of slavery, yet also firmly convinced of the moral, intellectual, and political inferiority of African Americans. In 1819, he spoke out against slavery as an "evil" and "a blot on our national character" when he defended a preacher charged with inciting a slave insurrection. By the 1820s, he had freed all of his own slaves. Yet his legal record shows his acceptance of slavery as a fact of life. While serving in the Supreme Court, he tended to support states' rights in matters involving slavery while upholding the doctrine of federalism as established under the Marshall court. Like Marshall, for example, Taney tended to believe that the federal Bill of Rights did not apply to the states. When dealing with slavery, he hoped that it would be ended as a moral wrong, but he preferred and trusted that this could be done via gradual emancipation by the states in which slavery existed rather than through direct and, he thought, unconstitutional federal action against slave owners' property rights. Nevertheless, he also held clearly racist opinions about the capabilities of blacks—opinions made evident in his most famous decision, the *Dred Scott* case.

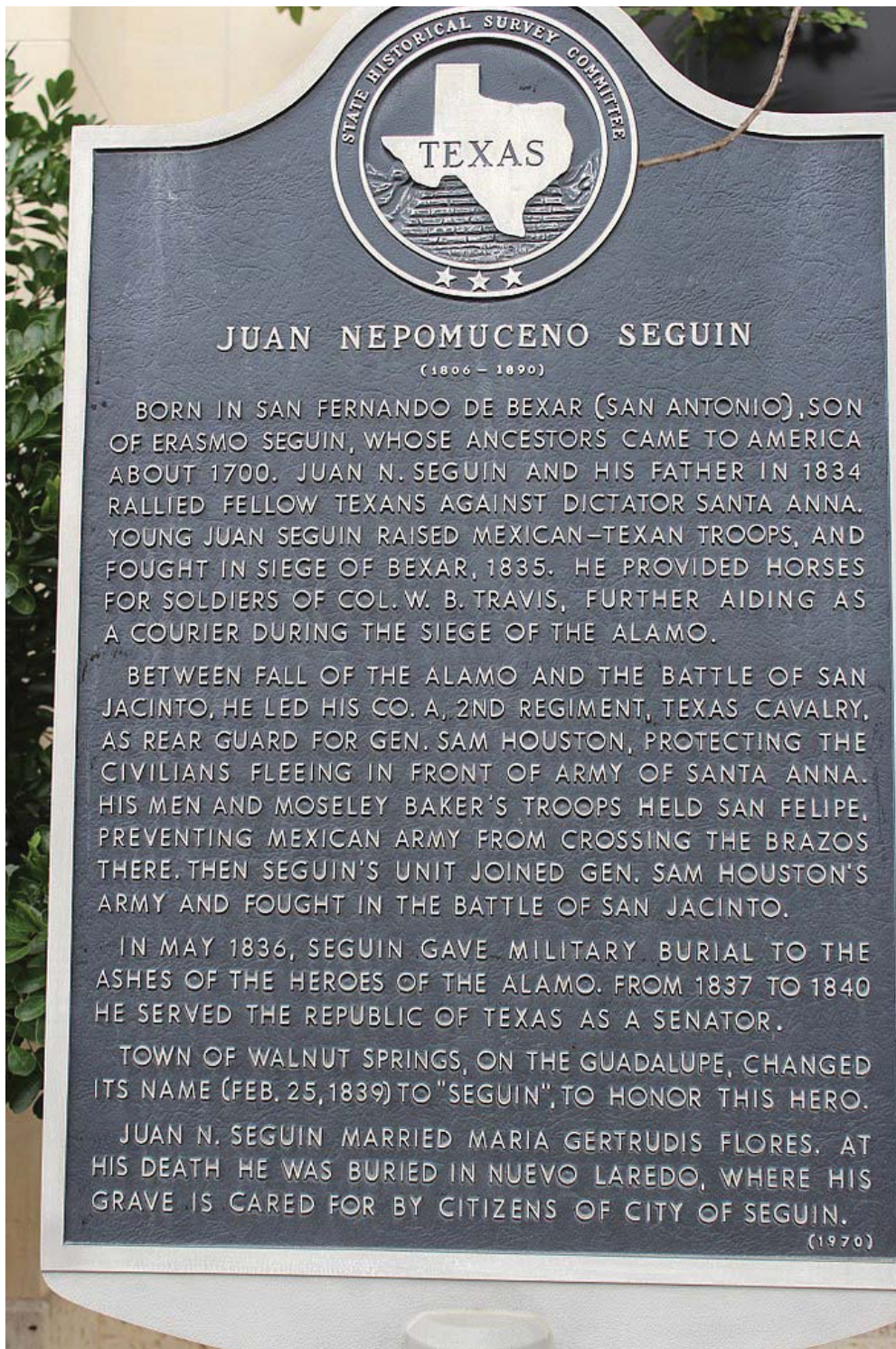
LATINOS/AS AND CITIZENSHIP

For a decade between 1836 and 1846, Texas was its own sovereign republic. A former province of Mexico, it had been populated mostly by indigenous peoples and a small number of Mexicans before Stephen F. Austin led a group of American settlers to the region in 1825. More white settlement followed, and by 1836 Texas had declared its independence. The change left many of its original inhabitants feeling left out, especially since citizenship was not automatically granted to them. The situation did not improve much when Texas joined the United States in 1845 as a slave state.

The year 1848 saw the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which ended the U.S. Mexican War and raised additional questions about U.S. citizenship for the existing inhabitants of a swath of former Mexican territory larger, even, than that represented by Texas. The new Mexican Americans had now to envision themselves

as U.S. citizens. In subsequent generations, as migration from Central America, the Caribbean, and South America increased, this large and diverse Hispanic population would struggle to see themselves and their communities as a cohesive whole.

This section looks at the varied political status of Latinos in the context of changing meanings of citizenship and belonging in the United States. It focuses on Latinos' historical and continuing struggles against exclusion, along with issues such as immigration status, migrant worker programs, American anti-immigration sentiments, Latino civil rights, education and citizenship, and citizenship and transnational loyalties. Among other things, it discusses the matter of the "illegal immigrant" (or undocumented migrant) in American society, exploring why and how illegal migration became one of the central problems in U.S. politics.



JUAN NEPOMUCENO SEGUIN

(1806 - 1890)

BORN IN SAN FERNANDO DE BEXAR (SAN ANTONIO), SON OF ERASMO SEGUIN, WHOSE ANCESTORS CAME TO AMERICA ABOUT 1700. JUAN N. SEGUIN AND HIS FATHER IN 1834 RALLIED FELLOW TEXANS AGAINST DICTATOR SANTA ANNA. YOUNG JUAN SEGUIN RAISED MEXICAN-TEXAN TROOPS, AND FOUGHT IN SIEGE OF BEXAR, 1835. HE PROVIDED HORSES FOR SOLDIERS OF COL. W. B. TRAVIS, FURTHER AIDING AS A COURIER DURING THE SIEGE OF THE ALAMO.

BETWEEN FALL OF THE ALAMO AND THE BATTLE OF SAN JACINTO, HE LED HIS CO. A, 2ND REGIMENT, TEXAS CAVALRY, AS REAR GUARD FOR GEN. SAM HOUSTON, PROTECTING THE CIVILIANS FLEEING IN FRONT OF ARMY OF SANTA ANNA. HIS MEN AND MOSELEY BAKER'S TROOPS HELD SAN FELIPE, PREVENTING MEXICAN ARMY FROM CROSSING THE BRAZOS THERE. THEN SEGUIN'S UNIT JOINED GEN. SAM HOUSTON'S ARMY AND FOUGHT IN THE BATTLE OF SAN JACINTO.

IN MAY 1836, SEGUIN GAVE MILITARY BURIAL TO THE ASHES OF THE HEROES OF THE ALAMO. FROM 1837 TO 1840 HE SERVED THE REPUBLIC OF TEXAS AS A SENATOR.

TOWN OF WALNUT SPRINGS, ON THE GUADALUPE, CHANGED ITS NAME (FEB. 25, 1839) TO "SEGUIN", TO HONOR THIS HERO.

JUAN N. SEGUIN MARRIED MARIA GERTRUDIS FLORES. AT HIS DEATH HE WAS BURIED IN NUEVO LAREDO, WHERE HIS GRAVE IS CARED FOR BY CITIZENS OF CITY OF SEGUIN.

(1970)

A plaque at city hall in Seguin, Texas, commemorating the deeds of Juan Seguin. Photo by Darryl Pearson, CC BY-SA 4.0 <<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/>>, via Wikimedia Commons.

■ *A Foreigner in My Own Land*

Date: 1842

Author Name: Juan Nepomuceno Seguín

Genre: memoir; diary

Summary Overview

Seguín's memoir illustrates how a prominent figure in Texas history became denigrated and marginalized in the grand historical narrative; it exposes the shifting sociocultural and political milieu occurring in the Southwest as American foreign policy called for westward expansion during the nineteenth century. Authored by Juan Nepomuceno Seguín—a native and former mayor of San Antonio, Texas—this excerpt attempts to vindicate his purported betrayal of Texas through a detailed recounting of the events that occurred and the players responsible for the decline of his public image.

Once a reliable compatriot in the fight for Texan independence, Seguín quickly became viewed as a traitor and was forced out of Texas without due process. He alludes to the racial undertones of his treatment, which reflects the broader sociocultural trends occurring during this period of rapid expansion when white colonists clashed with natives on the North American continent. Several Tejanos (Mexican Texans) bravely fought for independence for Texas but were subsequently relegated to second-class status in the new Republic of Texas. The desire for white hegemony and an Anglo (i.e., Anglo-American) culture necessitated the removal of Tejanos like Seguín who possessed political clout. This excerpt alludes to Seguín's value to Texas during the revolution and insinuates that the cause of his downfall lay in his status as a Tejano who possessed power in a land the Anglos so desperately wanted. His detailed account of the events surrounding his abrupt transformation into a foreigner in his own land elucidates the shifting political, socioeconomic, and cultural structures wrought by Manifest Destiny and its detrimental effects on non-white citizens. Such structures left an enduring legacy on the land and illustrate the roots of a racial status quo that many feel has endured into the present day.

Defining Moment

During the nineteenth century, the United States experienced significant internal tensions brought about by a foreign policy of expansion and conquest, symbolized in the 1872 allegorical painting *American Progress* by artist John Gast.

The term “Manifest Destiny,” first coined by John O’Sullivan in a 1845 newspaper article, is the belief that the United States was destined and divinely ordained to expand across the North American continent to cover the land

from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean. This concept necessitated a re-imagining of land as vacant despite the presence of peoples who had resided on it for centuries. Seguín's excerpt alludes to the adverse affects of westward movement and the thirst for land and power that resulted in heightened tensions between Anglos and native peoples.

Antagonism towards Seguín and his fellow Tejanos undergirded the complicated and contested image of Seguín as a traitor, despite his heroism and his role in the Texas Revolution. As the United States expanded westward, Texas

had a unique political function, and the imminent battles over the territory provided a stage for Seguín to craft his identity in the minds of Texans and Mexicans.

The Texas Revolution of the 1830s and the events that followed serve to demonstrate American exceptionalism and the swiftly changing political, social, and cultural milieu occurring on the American frontier. The shifting conditions were caused primarily by heavy Anglo migration into Texas, which altered the balance of power and created a venue for white hegemony. Following the Texas Revolution (and after Seguín fled to Mexico), the remaining Tejanos who had fought for Texan independence at first enjoyed some political clout in the new republic. Before long, however, they suffered from arbitrary governmental seizures of their land, livestock, and food. They were treated as second-class citizens, and after Mexico twice invaded Texas during the 1840s, Tejanos—by virtue of their ethnicity—were viewed as aliens in their homeland. The new constitution codified this second-class citizenship by denying the protection of guaranteed rights and land grants to those who did not support the revolution. All Tejanos were categorized as traitors unless they could show clear proof they were not. Additionally, Tejanos who left Texas during the revolution were considered aliens upon their return.

The stipulations set forth in the constitution engendered violence against Tejanos, including lynchings and riots, that ultimately led to the reduction of the Tejano population in Texas. This serves as a microcosm for the changes wrought by Manifest Destiny and the chafing of clashing cultures. The acquisition of land became central to the ideology of Manifest Destiny, and land occupation produced serious sociocultural and political changes. After the annexation of Mexican territory at the conclusion of the Mexican-American War, an anti-Mexican sentiment permeated US society and stigmatized Mexican Americans as perpetual others within American

culture. Such sentiments implied that Mexican culture was separate from American culture, thus creating tensions in a region Mexicans had once owned and were native to.

Author Biography

Juan Nepomuceno Seguín was born into a respected and wealthy Tejano family on October 27, 1806, in San Antonio, Texas, to Juan José María Erasmó Seguín and María Josefa Becerra during a time when Texas was important politically. Seguín's father and mother operated the post office in the city of Bexar. Juan was the oldest of three children: Tomas, a younger brother who died during infancy, and a younger sister who was born in 1809. Information regarding his early childhood remains scant due to a scarcity of records.

At a young age, Seguín became a provisional mayor, or *alcade*, of San Antonio, and after holding various political offices he played an active role in the Texas Revolution or War for Independence against Mexico. After banding together Tejanos sympathetic to the Anglo cause, Seguín led them against Mexican General Santa Anna in 1835 and participated in the siege of the Alamo the following year, narrowly escaping death. His engagement in the battle risked his family property and fortune, revealing his loyalty to Texas and its severing from Mexican control. Sympathetic to the Anglos in the wake of the revolution, Seguín campaigned for the controversial Texan senator and Anglo military general Sam Houston, which fostered skepticism and feelings of betrayal in the eyes of some Tejanos; Houston ordered Seguín to protect the Mexican frontier from the encroaching Mexican army. Seguín and his Tejano legion contributed to the defeat of Santa Anna's army at the Battle of San Jacinto, which brought the Texas Revolution to an end. The residual effects of the revolution, however, greatly impacted Seguín's position and the place of other Tejanos within Anglo society

APPENDIXES

■ Chronological List

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■ Web Resources

American Civil Liberties Union

aclu.org

Using litigation, advocacy, and public outreach, the ACLU protects the rights and liberties of immigrants. Its website provides information about its various services, as well as a “Know Your Rights” feature.

American Immigration Council

americanimmigrationcouncil.org

The American Immigration Council is a non-profit, nonpartisan organization whose legal, education, policy, and exchange programs work to strengthen the United States by honoring immigrant history and shaping how Americans think and act toward immigrants.

American Immigration Lawyers Association

aila.org

The American Immigration Lawyers Association is a national organization established to promote justice, advocate for fair and reasonable immigration law and policy, and advance the quality of immigration and nationalization law and practice. Its website offers information about developments in immigration law as well as legal resources and contact information by state.

Asian Americans Advancing for Justice

advanvingjustice-aaajc.org

A national advocacy organization for Asian Americans, the AAJC serves this community through its work in public policy, litigation,

public education, and the development of grassroots organizations.

Central American Resource Center

carecen-la.org

CARECEN is a nonprofit organization founded in the 1980s by Salvadoran refugees determined to secure legal status for the thousands of Central Americans fleeing civil war. Based in Los Angeles, it provides legal services, policy advocacy, education, and other services.

Cities for Citizenship

Citiesforcitizenship.com

Cities for citizenship is a national initiative aimed at increasing citizenship among eligible permanent U.S. residents and encouraging cities across the country to invest in citizenship programs.

Citizenship and Immigration Services, U.S.

uscis.gov

U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS, formerly called INS) is the first stop for many types of immigration applications.

Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor

dol.gov/agencies/eta

Applicants for labor-based visas or green cards, or their employers, will likely need to interact with the Department of Labor’s Employment and Training Administration.

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