Module 2

The American Colonies

Essential Question

Why did American colonies in different regions develop varying economic, political, and societal practices?

In this module you will learn about the European colonization of the Americas and how the original 13 English colonies took hold and grew in what is now the United States.

What You Will Learn . . .

Lesson 1: The English Settle Virginia . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 48
The Big Idea The first permanent English settlement in North America was founded at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607.

Lesson 2: Colonial Settlement Continues . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 56
The Big Idea English Puritans came to North America beginning in 1620. The Dutch settled New Netherland; English Quakers settled Pennsylvania.

Lesson 3: Relations with England . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 72
The Big Idea England and its largely self-governing colonies prospered under a mutually beneficial trade relationship.

Lesson 4: Colonial Economies . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 79
The Big Idea In the southern colonies, a predominantly agricultural economy developed. The northern colonies developed an economy based on mostly commerce and trade.

Lesson 5: Life in the Colonies . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 87
The Big Idea Both the northern and southern colonies developed diverse societies. The South was mostly rural, and the North was mostly urban.

Lesson 6: The French and Indian War . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 96
The Big Idea British victories helped spread the English language throughout North America.
Timeline of Events 1584–1764

**Events in the Americas**

- **1585** English colonists establish a colony at Roanoke Island.
- **1607** John Smith and other colonists establish Jamestown.
- **1620** English “Pilgrims” found Plymouth Colony.
- **1630** English Puritans found the Massachusetts Bay Colony.
- **1651** English Parliament passes the first of the Navigation Acts.
- **1681** William Penn receives the charter for Pennsylvania.
- **1686** James II creates the Dominion of New England.
- **1693** The College of William and Mary is chartered in Williamsburg, Virginia.
- **1733** Benjamin Franklin publishes Poor Richard’s Almanac.
- **1754** The French and Indian War begins.
- **1763** The Treaty of Paris ends the French and Indian War.
- **1775** The American Revolution begins.

**World Events**

- **1584** England defeats the Spanish Armada.
- **1588** The Thirty Years War between Catholics and Protestants begins in central Europe.
- **1595** Oliver Cromwell establishes the Puritan Commonwealth in England.
- **1652** Dutch settlers establish Cape Town in South Africa.
- **1660** The English monarchy is restored when Charles II returns from exile.
- **1688** The Glorious Revolution in England establishes the supremacy of Parliament.
- **1707** The Act of Union unites England and Wales with Scotland to form Great Britain.
- **1739** In Japan, 84,000 farmers protest heavy taxation.
- **1763** The Treaty of Paris recognizes British control over much of India.
With the help of Smith’s leadership and, later, the production of the profitable crop of tobacco, England’s small North American settlement survived.
English Settlers Struggle in North America

England’s first attempts to carve out a colony of its own in North America nearly collapsed because of disease and starvation.

THE BUSINESS OF COLONIZATION Unlike Spanish colonies, which were funded by Spanish rulers, English colonies were originally funded and maintained by joint-stock companies. Stock companies allowed several investors to pool their wealth in support of a colony that would, hopefully, yield a profit. Once they had obtained a charter, or official permit, a stock company accepted responsibility for maintaining the colony, in return for which they would be entitled to receive back most of the profit that the colony might yield.

In 1606 King James I of England granted a charter to the Virginia Company. The company hoped to found a colony along the eastern shores of North America in territory explored earlier by Sir Walter Raleigh. Raleigh had named the territory Virginia after Elizabeth I (1533–1603), “the virgin queen.” The Virginia Company had lured financial supporters by asking for a relatively small investment. Stockholders would be entitled to receive four-fifths of all gold and silver found by the colonists. The king would receive the remaining fifth.

The Virginia Company’s three ships—Susan Constant, Discovery, and Godspeed—with nearly 150 passengers and crew members aboard, reached the shores of Virginia in April 1607. They slipped into a broad coastal river and sailed inland until they reached a small peninsula. There, the colonists claimed the land as theirs. They named the settlement Jamestown and the river the James, in honor of their king.

A DISASTROUS START John Smith sensed trouble from the beginning. As he wrote later, “There was no talk, no hope, no work, but dig gold, wash gold, refine gold, load gold.” Smith warned of disaster, but few listened to the arrogant captain, who had made few friends on the voyage over.

Disease from contaminated river water struck first. Hunger soon followed. The colonists, many of whom were unaccustomed to a life of labor, had refused to clear fields, plant crops, or even gather shellfish from the river’s edge. One settler later described the terrifying predicament.

“Thus we lived for the space of five months in this miserable distress . . . our men night and day groaning in every corner of the fort, most pitiful to hear. If there were any conscience in men, it would make their hearts to bleed to hear the pitiful murmurings and outcries of our sick men for relief, every night and day for the space of six weeks: some departing out of the World, many times three or four in a night; in the morning their bodies being trailed out of their cabins like dogs, to be buried.”

—A Jamestown colonist, quoted in A New World
On a cold winter day in 1607, standing among the 38 colonists who remained alive, John Smith took control of the settlement. "You see that power now rests wholly with me," he announced. "You must now obey this law, . . . he that will not work shall not eat." Smith held the colony together by forcing the colonists to farm. He also persuaded the nearby Powhatan people to provide food. Unfortunately, later that winter, a stray spark ignited a gunpowder bag Smith was wearing and set him on fire. Badly burned, Smith headed back to England, leaving Jamestown to fend for itself.

Rediscovering Fort James
Erosion turned the Jamestown Peninsula into an island and, for many years, the site of the original Fort James was assumed to be under water. However, in 1996 archaeologists from the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities discovered artifacts on what they concluded was the original site of the fort. Since then, archaeologists have discovered armor, weapons, even games used by the first colonists. Archaeologists and historians are constantly learning more and more about this long-buried treasure of American history.

This illustration re-creates what historians and archaeologists now believe Fort James looked like early in its history.

Analyze Historical Sources
Why is it important for historians to keep up with the discoveries of modern archaeologists, such as those who continue to excavate Fort James?
In the spring of 1609, about 600 new colonists arrived with hopes of starting a new life in the colony. The Powhatan, by now alarmed at the growing number of settlers, began to kill the colonists’ livestock and destroy their farms. By the following winter, conditions in Jamestown had deteriorated to the point of famine. In what became known as the “starving time,” the colonists ate roots, rats, snakes, and even boiled shoe leather. Of those 600 new colonists, only about 60 survived.

JAMESTOWN BEGINS TO FLOURISH The surviving colonists decided to abandon the seemingly doomed settlement. However, as they sailed down the James River, they were met by a second English ship whose passengers convinced the fleeing colonists to turn around. Under the watchful eye of new leaders, who did not hesitate to flog or even hang colonists found neglecting their work, Jamestown stabilized, and the colony began to expand farther inland along the James River. However, equally important in the colony’s growth was the development of a highly profitable crop: tobacco.

“BROWN GOLD” AND INDENTURED SERVANTS Europeans had become aware of tobacco soon after Columbus’s first return from the West Indies. In 1612 Jamestown colonist John Rolfe experimented by crossbreeding tobacco from Brazil with a harsh strain of the weed that local Native Americans had grown for years. Rolfe’s experiment resulted in a high-quality tobacco strain for which the citizens of England soon clamored. By the late 1620s colonists exported more than 1.5 million pounds of “brown gold” to England each year.

In order to grow tobacco, the Virginia Company needed a key ingredient that was missing from the colony—field laborers. In an effort to lure settlers to Jamestown, the Virginia Company introduced the headright system in 1618. Under this system, anyone who paid for their own or another’s passage to Virginia received 50 acres of land. Immigration to the colony jumped.

The headright system yielded huge land grants for anyone who was wealthy enough to transport large numbers of people to Virginia. The company used the term plantation for the group of people who settled the land grant, but eventually, the term was used to refer to the land itself. To work their plantations, many owners imported indentured servants from England. They were usually from the lower classes of English society.

In exchange for passage to North America and food and shelter upon arrival, an indentured servant agreed to a limited term of servitude—usually four to seven years. Many former indentured servants became successful farmers or artisans. But many others found themselves without a job or a good future.

ANCOTHER PERSPECTIVE

Fantasies of the “New World” By the early 1600s many Englishmen, weary of wars and living in overcrowded cities, listened eagerly to early reports about Virginia. Playwrights, poets, and adventurers, most of whom had never seen the “New World,” turned those reports into fantasies of a “promised land,” a place of fair climate, friendly natives, rich harvests, and bright futures.

A play produced in London in 1605 described Virginia as a place where native children wore rubies and diamonds in their coats and caps. In 1606 English poet Michael Drayton called Virginia “that delicious land” because of its rich soil and fantastic harvests.

By 1607 the Virginia Company officers translated those fantasies into advertisements. During the “starving time,” Jamestown colonists must have bitterly recalled the promises made in those advertisements.
THE FIRST AFRICAN LABORERS  Another group of laborers—Africans—first arrived in Virginia aboard a Dutch merchant ship in 1619. Records suggest that the Jamestown colonists treated the group of about 20 Africans as indentured servants. After a few years, most of the Africans received land and freedom. Meanwhile, other Africans continued to arrive in the colony in small numbers, but it would be several decades before the English colonists in North America began the systematic use of Africans as slave labor.

One reason for this was economics. In Virginia, where tobacco served as currency in the early 1600s, an indentured servant could be purchased for 1,000 pounds of tobacco, while a slave might cost double or triple that amount. However, by the late 1600s a decline in the indentured servant population, coupled with an increase in the colonies’ overall wealth, spurred the colonists to begin importing slaves in huge numbers. While the life of indentured servants was difficult, slaves endured far worse conditions. Servants could eventually become full members of society, but slaves were condemned to a life of harsh labor.

The Settlers Clash with Native Americans

As the English settlers expanded their settlement, their uneasy relations with the Native Americans worsened. The colonists’ desire for more land led to warfare with the original inhabitants of Virginia.

THE ENGLISH PATTERN OF CONQUEST  Unlike the Spanish, whose colonists intermarried with Native Americans, the English followed the pattern used when they conquered the Irish during the 1500s and 1600s. England’s
Laws of Conquest declared, in part, “Every Irishman shall be forbidden to wear English apparel or weapons upon pain of death.” The same law also banned marriages between the English and the Irish.

The English brought this pattern of colonization with them to North America. Viewing the Native Americans as being “like the wild Irish,” the English settlers had no desire to live among or intermarry with the Native Americans they defeated.

**THE SETTLERS BATTLE NATIVE AMERICANS** As the English settlers recovered in the years following the starving time, they never forgot the Powhatan’s hostility during the starving time. In retaliation, the leaders of Jamestown demanded tributes of corn and labor from the local native peoples. Soldiers pressed these demands by setting Powhatan villages on fire and kidnapping hostages, especially children. One of the kidnapped children, Chief Powhatan’s daughter, Pocahontas, married John Rolfe in 1614. This lay the groundwork for a halfhearted peace. However, the peace would not last, as colonists continued to move further into Native American territory and seize more land to grow tobacco.

By 1622 English settlers had worn out the patience of Chief Opechancanough, Chief Powhatan’s brother and successor. In a well-planned attack, Powhatan raiding parties struck at colonial villages up and down the James River, killing more than 340 colonists. The attack forced the Virginia Company to send in more troops and supplies, leaving it nearly bankrupt. In 1624 James I, disgusted by the turmoil in Virginia, revoked the company’s charter and made Virginia a **royal colony**—one under direct control of the king. England sent more troops and settlers to strengthen the colony and to conquer the Powhatan. By 1644 nearly 10,000 English men and women lived in Virginia, while the Powhatan population continued to fall.

**Conflict with Virginia’s Government**

Since the Middle Ages, English people had been proud of the political rights and freedoms they had gained from Magna Carta. The first charter of Virginia promised settlers the same basic English rights. Now the Virginia Company acted on that promise by establishing the first representative government in colonial America—the House of Burgesses.

However, by the 1670s the colony’s government faced conflict. Many of the free white men in Virginia were former indentured servants who, although they had completed their servitude, had little money to buy land. Because they did not own land, they could not vote and therefore enjoyed almost no rights in colonial society.

**THE HOUSE OF BURGESSES** The House of Burgesses first met in Jamestown in 1619. It included two citizens, or burgesses, from each of Virginia’s 11 districts.
The House claimed the authority to raise taxes and make laws. However, the English governor had the right to veto any legislation the House passed. While the House represented a limited constituency—since only white male landowners could vote—it contributed to the development of representative government in English America. A century and a half after its founding, the House of Burgesses would supply delegates to the Continental Congress—the revolutionary body that orchestrated the break from Great Britain.

**HOSTILITIES DEVELOP** During the 1660s and 1670s, Virginia’s poor settlers felt oppressed and frustrated by the policies of the colony’s governor, Sir William Berkeley. More and more, Berkeley levied, or imposed, high taxes, which were paid mostly by the poorer settlers who lived along Virginia’s western frontier. Moreover, the money collected by these taxes was used not for the public good, but instead for the personal profit of the “Grandees,” or “planters,” the wealthy plantation farmers who had settled along the eastern tidewater region of Virginia. Many of these planters occupied positions in the government, positions that they used to protect their own interests. As hostilities began to develop between the settlers along Virginia’s western frontier and the Native Americans who lived there, the settlers demanded to know why money collected in taxes and fines was not being used to build forts for their protection.

In 1675 a bloody clash between Virginia’s frontier settlers and local natives revealed an underlying tension between the colony’s poor whites and its wealthy landowners and sparked a pitched battle between the two classes. In June 1675 a dispute between the Doeg and a Virginia frontier farmer grew into a bloodbath. A group of frontier settlers who were pursuing Doeg warriors murdered 14 friendly Susquehannock and then executed five chiefs during a peace conference. Fighting soon broke out between Native Americans and frontier colonists. The colonists pleaded to Governor Berkeley for military support, but the governor, acting on behalf of the wealthy planters, refused to finance a war to benefit the colony’s poor frontier settlers.

**BACON’S REBELLION** Berkeley’s refusal did not sit well with a 29-year-old planter named Nathaniel Bacon. Bacon, a tall, dark-haired, hot-tempered son of a wealthy Englishman and a well-to-do tobacco planter on the frontier, detested Native Americans. He called them “wolves” who preyed upon “our harmless and innocent lambs.” After his slave overseer was killed in a Native American attack in 1676, Bacon broke from his old friend Berkeley and raised an army to fight Native Americans on the Virginia frontier.

Governor Berkeley quickly declared Bacon’s army—one-third of which was made up of landless settlers and debtors—illegal. Hearing this news, Bacon marched on Jamestown in September 1676 to confront colonial leaders about a number of grievances. Among these grievances was the frontier colonists’ lack of representation in the House of Burgesses, Virginia’s colonial legislature. Virginia’s “rabble,” as many planters called the frontier settlers, resented being taxed and governed without their consent. Ironically, 100 years later in 1776, both wealthy and poor colonists would voice this same complaint against Great Britain at the beginning of the American Revolution.
The march turned violent. The rebels set fire to the town as Berkeley and numerous planters fled by ship. However, Bacon had little time to enjoy his victory. He died of illness a month after storming Jamestown. Upon Bacon’s death, Berkeley returned to Jamestown and easily subdued the leaderless rebels.

Bacon’s Rebellion, as it came to be known, did succeed in drawing King Charles’s attention to Berkeley’s government, and Charles’s commissioners, or investigators, were highly critical of Berkeley’s policies. The old governor was recalled to England to explain himself but died before meeting with the king.

Although it spurred the planter class to cling more tightly to power, Bacon’s Rebellion exposed the growing power of the colony’s former indentured servants. Meanwhile, farther to the north, another group of English colonists, who had journeyed to North America for religious reasons, were steering their own course into the future.

**Lesson 1 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Create a timeline of the major developments in the colonization of Virginia.

   - event one
   - event two
   - event three
   - event four

   Which event do you think was the most critical turning point? Why?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Effects** The success of tobacco farming in Virginia had wide-ranging effects. Describe its impact on each of these groups: the Jamestown colonists, indentured servants, the Powhatan, the planters.

   **Think About:**
   - the headright system and indentured servitude
   - the colonists’ need for more land
   - the conflict between rich and poor colonists

4. **Analyze Primary Sources** The following lines appear in Michael Drayton’s 1606 poem, *To the Virginian Voyage*:

   “When as the luscious smell of that delicious land
   Above the sea that flows
   The clear wind throws,
   Your hearts to swell”

   What do these lines tell you about the expectations many colonists had before they arrived in Virginia?

5. **Compare and Contrast** What were the similarities and differences between being an indentured servant and a slave?
The Big Idea
English Puritans came to North America, beginning in 1620. The Dutch settled New Netherland; English Quakers settled Pennsylvania.

Why It Matters Now
The United States continues to use a form of representative government begun by Puritans. Tolerance and equality promoted by Quakers remain fundamental American values.

Key Terms and People
Puritans
John Winthrop
Plymouth Colony
Massachusetts Bay Colony
Roger Williams
Anne Hutchinson
Pequot War
Metacom
King Philip’s War
New Netherland
William Penn
Quakers

One American’s Story
In 1628 at age 16, a young English woman named Anne Dudley married Simon Bradstreet, who, like herself, was one of a group of Puritans, church members who wanted to “purify” or reform the Church of England. Simon, Anne, and her parents left England with other Puritans who hoped to create a “holy” community in New England. There, Anne became America’s first English-speaking poet, whose poems would provide future generations with a glimpse of Puritan life and values. When her house burned to the ground on a July night in 1666, Anne composed a poem to express her sorrow and her resolve to remain strong.

“Then, coming out, beheld a space
The flame consume my dwelling place. And when I could no longer look, I blest His name that gave and took.”

—Anne Bradstreet, from “Here Follows Some Verses upon the Burning of Our House (July 10th, 1666)”

Anne Dudley Bradstreet’s book of poetry, The Tenth Muse Lately Sprung Up in America, is regarded as one of the first important works of American literature.
Puritans Create a “New England”

When Anne Bradstreet and her family boarded the *Arbella*, the flagship of the Puritan expedition to America, the English settlement at Jamestown was still struggling to survive. Unlike the profit-minded colonists at Jamestown, however, the Puritans emigrated in order to create a model new society—what John Winthrop, their first governor, called a “City upon a Hill.”

PURITANS AND PILGRIMS Puritanism had its origins in the English Reformation. After King Henry VIII (1491–1547) broke with Roman Catholicism in the 1530s, his daughter, Elizabeth I (1533–1603) formed the Anglican church, or the Church of England. Although the Anglican church was free of Catholic control, some church members felt that it had kept too much of the Catholic ritual and tradition. These people were called Puritans because they wanted to purify the Anglican church by eliminating all traces of Roman Catholicism. Puritans embraced the idea that every worshipper should experience God directly through faith, prayer, and study of the Bible. Puritans held ministers in respect as a source of religious and moral instruction, but they objected to the authority of Anglican bishops.

Some Puritans felt they should remain in the Church of England and reform it from within. Other Puritans did not think that was possible, so they formed independent congregations with their own ministers. These Separatists, known today as the Pilgrims, fled from England to escape persecution, first to Holland and eventually to America. In 1620 this small group of families founded the Plymouth Colony, the second permanent English colony in North America. At first they survived with the aid of friendly Wampanoag Indians. The colony marked its first harvest with a feast, which formed the basis for the modern Thanksgiving holiday.

Although the Pilgrims aimed for Virginia, their ship, the *Mayflower*, strayed far off course to Cape Cod. The Pilgrims knew that New England lay too far north for their colonial charter to be valid. They were also afraid that non-Pilgrim passengers would challenge their authority. Before departing the
ship, the Pilgrim men signed a compact, or agreement, in which they created a civil government and pledged loyalty to the king.

The Mayflower Compact stated that the purpose of their government in America would be to frame “just and equal laws . . . for the general good of the colony.” Laws approved by the majority would be binding on Pilgrims and non-Pilgrims alike. The document became a landmark of American democratic government.

**THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY COMPANY** Meanwhile, other English Puritans in the 1620s who were discouraged about Anglican reform also turned their thoughts toward New England. Like the Separatists, they too felt the burden of increasing religious persecution, political repression, and dismal economic conditions. John Winthrop wrote to his wife in 1629, “[the Lord will] provide a shelter and a hiding place for us.” Winthrop and others believed that this refuge would be in America.

In 1629 Winthrop and some of his well-connected friends obtained a royal charter for a joint-stock enterprise, the Massachusetts Bay Company. Winthrop and the other colonists transferred both the charter and the company’s headquarters to New England. This strategy meant that when the Puritans migrated, they took with them the authority for an independent government.

In September 1630 Winthrop and the other colonists aboard the *Arbella* established the **Massachusetts Bay Colony**. The port town of Boston became their capital. Soon other towns were founded to accommodate the large number of settlers flocking to join the colony. In the first year of the colony’s settlement, 17 ships (including the *Arbella*) arrived with about 1,000 English men, women, and children—Puritan and non-Puritan. The migration was greater in size and more thorough in planning than all previous expeditions to North America. Eventually, Plymouth Colony was incorporated into the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

“**CITY UPON A HILL**” In a sermon delivered before the *Arbella* landed, Winthrop expressed the sense of mission that bound the Puritans together.

“We must be knit together in this work; . . . we must uphold [each other] . . . in all meekness, gentleness, patience and liberality [generosity]. We must delight in each other, make others’ conditions our own, rejoice together, mourn together, labor and suffer together . . . .

So shall we keep the unity of the spirit, in the bond of peace. . . . Ten of us will be able to resist a thousand of our enemies. For we must consider that we [in New England] shall be as a City upon a Hill, the eyes of all people are on us.”

—John Winthrop, from “A Model of Christian Charity”

Winthrop’s vision, however, did not stem from a belief in either social equality or political democracy. Explained Winthrop in his shipboard
sermon, God had decreed that “some must be rich, some poor, some high and eminent in power and dignity, others mean [common] and in subjugation.”

Although Puritans made no effort to create a democracy, political power was spread more broadly than in England, giving Puritans some new social mobility, or opportunity to reach a better status. The Massachusetts Bay Company extended the right to vote to not only stockholders but to all adult males who belonged to the Puritan church, roughly 40 percent of the colony's men. This was a large electorate by the standards of Europe in the 1630s. These “freemen,” as they were called, voted annually for members of a lawmaking body called the General Court, which in turn chose the governor. The General Court was New England's first legislature.

**Puritan Headstones**

Puritans forbade images in their churches, but they permitted them in their cemeteries. The images on a headstone were meant not just to memorialize the dead but to remind both young and old that life was brief and should be lived according to the Puritan virtues of piety and hard work.

Central to virtually every Puritan headstone was the image of the winged skull, as shown on the headstone on the right. The skull itself was meant to symbolize the physical reality of death. The wings represented the soul and the possibility of immortality. The winged skull motif persisted into the 18th century, when the winged skull was either modified to resemble a cherub or was replaced with a carved portrait of the deceased, as shown on the headstone below.

**Analyze Historical Sources**

1. What kind of emotions does the image of the winged skull elicit?
2. How do Puritan headstones compare with other memorials you have seen?
CHURCH AND STATE  As this system of self-government evolved, so did the close relationship between the government and the Puritan church. Civic officials were members of the Puritan church who believed that they were God’s “elect,” or chosen, and had a duty to carry out God’s will. Puritan laws criminalized such sins as drunkenness, swearing, theft, and idleness. “No person . . . shall spend his time idly or unprofitably,” decreed the General Court in 1633, “under pain of such punishment as the court shall think meet [appropriate] to inflict.”

IMPORTANCE OF THE FAMILY  Unlike settlers in Virginia, Puritans generally crossed the Atlantic as families rather than as single men or women. “Without family care,” declared one minister, “the labor of Magistrates and Ministers . . . is likely to be in great measure unsuccessful.” Puritans kept a watchful eye on the actions of husbands, wives, and children, and the community stepped in when necessary. If parents failed to nip disobedience in the bud, they might find their children placed in more “God-fearing” homes. If a husband and wife quarreled too much, a court might intervene as a form of marriage counseling. If they still bickered, one or both might end up in the stocks or the pillory.

Dissent in the Puritan Community

Division soon threatened Massachusetts Bay. Two dissenters, Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson, challenged the social order upon which the colony was founded.

THE FOUNDING OF PROVIDENCE  “Forced religion stinks in the nostrils of God,” declared Roger Williams in a sermon to his Salem congregation. Williams was an extreme Separatist minister and a man of strong convictions. He expressed two controversial views. First, Williams was a friend of the Narragansett Indians and declared that the English settlers had no rightful claim to the land unless they purchased it from Native Americans. He called the royal charter that granted the lands a “National Sinne” and demanded that it be revised to reflect Native American claims. Second, Williams declared that government officials had no business punishing settlers for their religious beliefs. He felt every person should be free to worship according to his or her conscience.

The outraged General Court ordered Williams to be arrested and returned to England. Before this order was carried out, however, Williams fled from Massachusetts. In January 1636 he headed southward to the headwaters of Narragansett Bay. There he negotiated with the local Narragansett people for land to set up a new colony, which he called Providence. In Providence, later the capital of Rhode Island, Williams guaranteed separation of church and state and religious freedom. People of all faiths were welcome in this new colony.
ANNE HUTCHINSON BANISHED  Puritan leaders soon banished another dissenter, Anne Hutchinson. To strict Puritans, she posed an even greater threat than Williams. In Bible readings at her home, Hutchinson taught that “the Holy Spirit illumines [enlightens] the heart of every true believer.” In other words, worshippers needed neither the church nor its ministers to interpret the Bible for them.

Puritan leaders banished Hutchinson from the colony in 1638. Along with a band of followers, she and her family trudged to Rhode Island. After the death of her husband in 1642, Hutchinson moved with her younger children to the colony of New Netherland (now New York), where the Dutch also practiced religious toleration. The following year, she died in a war fought between the Dutch and Native Americans.

Native Americans Resist Colonial Expansion

While Williams and his followers were settling Rhode Island, thousands of other white settlers fanned out to western Massachusetts and to new colonies in New Hampshire and Connecticut. However, as Native Americans saw their lands claimed and cleared for farming, they recognized that the rapid spread of the settlers meant an end to their way of life.

DISPUTES OVER LAND  Disputes between the Puritans and Native Americans arose over land use. For every acre a colonial farmer needed to support life, a Native American needed 20 for hunting, fishing, and agriculture. To Native Americans, no one owned the land—it was there for everyone to use. Native Americans saw land treaties with Europeans as agreements in which they received gifts, such as blankets, guns, iron tools, or ornaments, in return.
Interpret Maps
1. **Place** What was the earliest major European settlement in the New England colonies?
2. **Human-Environment Interaction** What characteristics of Boston made it a good place for a settlement?

This British engraving shows the Pequot fort near Stonington, Connecticut. The fort was destroyed in 1637.
for which they agreed to share the land for a limited time. Europeans, however, saw the treaties as a one-time deal in which Native Americans permanently sold their land to new owners.

THE PEQUOT WAR The first major conflict arose in Connecticut in 1637, when the Pequot nation decided to take a stand against the colonists. The colonists formed an alliance with the Narragansett, old enemies of the Pequot. The result of the Pequot War was the near destruction of the Pequot nation. The end came in May 1637, when about 90 English colonists and hundreds of their Native American allies surrounded a Pequot fort on the Mystic River. After setting the fort on fire, the colonists shot Pequot men, women, and children as they tried to escape or surrender. The massacre was so awful that the Narragansett pleaded, “This is evil, this is evil, too furious, too many killed.” The colonists ignored them until all but a few out of about 500–600 people in the fort had died. Later, Narragansett leader Miantonomo gave a speech to the Montauk tribe.

“These English have gotten our land, they with scythes cut down grass, and with axes fell the trees; their cows and horses eat the grass, and their hogs spoil our clam banks, and we shall all be starved. . . .

For so are we all Indians as the English are, and say brother to one another; so must we be one as they are, otherwise we shall be all gone shortly.”

—Miantonomo, quoted in Changes in the Land

KING PHILIP’S WAR Deprived of their land and livelihood, many Native Americans had to toil for the English to earn a living. They also had to obey Puritan laws such as no hunting or fishing on Sunday, the Sabbath day. Wampanoag chief Metacom, whom the English called King Philip, bristled under these restrictions. In a last-ditch effort to wipe out the invaders, he organized his people and several others into an alliance.

The eruption of King Philip’s War in the spring of 1675 startled the Puritans with its intensity. Using hit-and-run tactics, Native Americans attacked and burned outlying settlements throughout New England. For over a year, the two sides waged a war of mutual brutality and destruction. Finally, food shortages, disease, and heavy casualties wore down the Native Americans’ resistance, and they gradually surrendered or fled.

Wampanoag casualties included Metacom, the victim of a bullet fired by a Native American ally of the English. To commemorate their victory, the Puritans exhibited Metacom’s head at Plymouth for 20 years. With his defeat, Native American power in southeastern New England was gone forever.

Still, the English paid a high price for their victory. All told, about one-tenth of the colonial men of military age in New England were killed in King Philip’s War, a higher proportion of the total population than would be killed in either the American Revolution or the Civil War of the 1860s.
The Dutch Found New Netherland

While English Puritans were establishing colonies in New England, the Dutch were founding one to the south. As early as 1609, Henry Hudson—an English explorer employed by the Dutch—sailed up what is now known as the Hudson River. After his voyage, the Dutch claimed territory along the Atlantic coast. In 1621 the Dutch government granted the newly formed Dutch West India Company permission to colonize New Netherland and expand the thriving fur trade. New Amsterdam (now New York City), founded in 1625, became the capital of this colony. In 1655 the Dutch extended their claims by taking over New Sweden, a tiny colony of Swedish and Finnish settlers who had established a rival fur trade along the Delaware River.

A DIVERSE COLONY Although the Dutch company profited from its fur trade, New Netherland was slow to attract Dutch colonists. To encourage settlers to come and stay, those with political power opened the colony to a variety of people. Gradually, more Dutch as well as Germans, French, Scandinavians, Jews, and other European immigrants settled the area. The colony also included many Africans, free as well as enslaved. By the 1660s one-fifth of New Netherland’s population was of African ancestry.

These settlers generally enjoyed friendlier relations with Native Americans than did the English colonists in New England and Virginia. The Dutch were less interested in conquering the Native Americans than in trading with them for furs. The first Dutch traders had the good sense not to anger the powerful and well-organized Iroquois, who controlled a large territory between Dutch traders to the south and French traders to the north. However, the Dutch did engage in fighting with various Native American groups over land claims and trade rivalries.

ENGLISH TAKEOVER To the English, New Netherland had become a “Dutch wedge,” separating its northern and southern colonies. The Dutch and English both struggled for control of this territory and had border disputes. In 1649 the Dutch colonists petitioned their government to determine, together with England, the exact borders between New Netherland and New England. This petition was the first instance of Americans using the right to petition, or make a request of, their government. This right to petition government would become part of the U.S. Constitution 143 years later.

In 1664 King Charles II granted his brother James, the duke of York (who later became King James II), permission to drive the Dutch out of New Netherland. When the duke’s fleet arrived in New Amsterdam’s harbor, Peter Stuyvesant, the autocratic and unpopular Dutch governor, raised a call to arms. The call was largely ignored. Severely outmanned, Stuyvesant surrendered to the English without anyone firing a shot. The duke of York, the new proprietor, or owner, of the colony, renamed it New York. The duke later gave a portion of this land to two of his friends, naming the territory New Jersey for the British island of Jersey. Eventually this political takeover of New Netherland made the area more attractive for English immigrants to settle, although the colony developed slowly.

Reading Check
Summarize What were the important characteristics of the colony of New Netherland?
The Quakers Settle Pennsylvania

The acquisition of New Netherland was an important step in England’s quest to extend its American empire after the Restoration of the monarchy of Charles II in 1660. The colony that took shape was a marked contrast to England’s other North American settlements.

**PENN’S “HOLY EXPERIMENT”** William Penn had frustrated his father, Admiral Sir William Penn. In 1667 at age 22, the younger Penn committed himself to the Society of Friends, or Quakers, a Protestant sect whose religious and social beliefs were radical for the time.

Ironically, his late father would play a key role in helping William Penn realize his dream—establishing a haven for Quakers in America. King Charles II had owed Penn’s father money, which the younger Penn asked to be repaid with American land. Charles agreed, and in 1681 he gave Penn a charter for Pennsylvania. Penn had big plans for his colony—a government run on Quaker principles of equality, cooperation, and religious toleration. Penn well knew that England in the late 1660s was no place for Quakers. From the
Colonial Meetinghouses

The Puritans of the northeast, the Quakers of Pennsylvania, and the Anglicans of the southern colonies held profound but often different convictions about community, social responsibility, and individual freedom. These convictions were often expressed in the religious services of each group as well as the architecture of the places of worship where these services were held.

Puritan Meetinghouse
Puritan services focused on preaching. Sermons, which sometimes lasted for hours, instructed the individual conscience to be mindful of the common good. The pulpit was the focal point of the meetinghouse. A plain interior reflected a value for austerity and simplicity.

Meetinghouses were also used for town meetings. In town meetings, Puritans elected officials, chose delegates to the colonial assembly, set taxes, and dealt with local issues such as roads and schools.

Anglican Church
The head of the Anglican church was the British monarch. Anglican services valued ritual. Their churches stressed the importance of authority and status.

Anglican churches emphasized the altar through ornamentation and elaborate windows. A screen separated the altar from the congregation. Elaborate pews were reserved for wealthy church members.

Interpret Visuals
1. In what ways do the Puritan and Quaker meetinghouses resemble each other? In what ways are they different?
2. How does the interior of the Anglican church show a respect for hierarchy?
English king’s perspective, the Quakers’ immigration to the colonies was a welcome way to get rid of an unpopular group.

The Quakers believed that God’s “inner light” burned inside everyone. They held services without formal ministers, allowing any person to speak as the spirit moved him or her. They dressed plainly, refused to defer to persons of rank, and embraced pacifism by opposing war and refusing to serve in the military. For their radical views, they were harassed by Anglicans and Puritans.

Penn saw his colony as a “holy experiment” in living, a place with freedom of religion and without a landowning aristocracy. He guaranteed every adult male settler 50 acres of land and the right to vote. While Pennsylvania grew and prospered, some people were unhappy with Penn’s one-man government. In response, Penn set up a representative assembly. As a lasting symbol of his Quaker beliefs, Penn also helped plan a capital he called the “City of Brotherly Love,” or Philadelphia.

Penn’s constitution also provided for a separate assembly for the three southern counties along the Delaware Bay. Delaware thereby gained a somewhat separate existence. However, it continued to have the same governor as Pennsylvania.

NATIVE AMERICAN RELATIONS Like most Quakers, Penn believed that people approached in friendship would respond in friendship—sooner or later. So even before setting foot in North America, Penn arranged to have a letter read to the Lenni Lenapi, or Delaware, the people who inhabited his settlement area.

Penn was aware that the Delaware had already been ravaged by European diseases and war.

“Now I would have you well observe, that I am very sensible of the unkindness and injustice that has been too much exercised towards you by the people of these parts of the world, who have sought . . . to make great advantages by you, . . . sometimes to the shedding of blood . . . But I am not such a man . . . . I have great love and regard toward you, and I desire to win and gain your love and friendship by a kind, just, and peaceable life.”

—William Penn, quoted in A New World

To be sure that his colonists treated the native peoples fairly, Penn regulated trade with them and provided for a court composed of both colonists and Native Americans to settle any differences. The Native Americans respected Penn, and for more than 50 years the Pennsylvania colony had no major conflicts with Native Americans who lived in the colony.

A THRIVING COLONY Penn faced the same challenge as the Dutch West India Company; he needed to attract settlers—farmers, builders, and traders—to create a profitable colony. After initially opening the colony to Quakers, he vigorously recruited immigrants from around western Europe. Glowing advertisements for the colony were printed in German, Dutch, and
French. In time, settlers came in numbers, including thousands of Germans who brought with them craft skills and farming techniques that helped the colony to thrive.

Penn himself spent only about four years in Pennsylvania. And, despite the colony’s success, he never profited financially as proprietor and died in poverty in 1718. Meanwhile, his idealistic vision had faded but not failed. His own Quakers were a minority in a colony thickly populated by people from all over western Europe. Slavery was introduced and, despite Penn’s principles, many prominent Quakers in Pennsylvania owned slaves. However, the principles of equality, cooperation, and religious tolerance on which he founded his vision would eventually become fundamental values of the new American nation.

THIRTEEN COLONIES Throughout the 1600s and 1700s, other British colonies in North America were founded as well, each for different reasons. By the end of the colonial period, there were a total of 13 colonies, including New Hampshire, New Jersey, and Delaware.

In 1632 King Charles I granted a charter for land north of Chesapeake Bay to George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore. Calvert’s son Cecil, the second Lord Baltimore, named the colony Maryland, after Queen Henrietta Maria, Charles’s queen. Lord Baltimore, who was a Roman Catholic, obtained a religious toleration law—Maryland Toleration Act of 1649—from Maryland’s colonial assembly. From this, the colony became famous for its religious freedom for all Christian sects. However, there was still little toleration for
religions outside of Christianity. The Maryland Toleration Act was a source of founding democratic principles that developed later for the United States.

In 1663 King Charles II awarded a group of key supporters the land between Virginia and Spanish Florida, a territory known as Carolina. To attract settlers, they offered a representative assembly as well as religious toleration for all Christians. The southern part of Carolina had a prosperous harbor in Charles Town and estates of wealthy landowners. Their economy became dependent on enslaved African labor. By contrast, settlers in the northern part of Carolina were mostly small farmers who did not use slave labor. They also had no prosperous harbor. In 1729 the original proprietors of Carolina sold their interests to the Crown. The king then made North Carolina and South Carolina two separate royal colonies.

In 1732 an English philanthropist named James Oglethorpe and several associates received a charter for a colony they hoped could be a haven for those imprisoned for debt. Oglethorpe named the colony Georgia, after King George II. Few debtors actually came to Georgia, and Oglethorpe’s policies, which prohibited both slavery and the drinking of rum, were reversed when the British crown assumed direct control of the colony in 1752. By that time, there were 13 British colonies in North America, but a growing desire for independence would soon put a strain on their relationship with England.

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Identify the effects of each of the causes of religious conflict in a chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persecution of Puritans in England</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roger Williams’s dissenting beliefs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William Penn’s radical views</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Draw Conclusions** Which of his goals for Pennsylvania did William Penn achieve and which did he not? Explain.

   **Think About:**
   - Penn’s actions toward Native Americans
   - Penn’s views about representative government and freedom of religion
   - Penn’s views about slave ownership

4. **Analyze Issues** From the point of view of Puritan leaders, why were Anne Hutchinson’s views a threat to their society? Use evidence from the text to support your answer.

5. **Develop Historical Perspective** Imagine you have been called upon to negotiate between the New England colonists and Native Americans. What would you tell each side about the other to help them overcome their misunderstandings?
Surviving in a New World

Early settlers quickly discovered that the “new world” they had chosen to colonize was indeed an extraordinary place to pursue their “American Dreams,” but not in the ways they had expected it to be. Little did colonists know that during the years of colonization, North America was experiencing the worst of what scientists now refer to as the “Little Ice Age.” Extremes of cold and heat up and down the eastern seaboard were more severe than they had been in several hundred years. In time, colonists learned about natural resources that were also unknown to them, foods and plants that ultimately saved and sustained their lives.

In all three colonial regions, colonists located settlements near water—coasts, rivers, and streams. Settlers needed water for drinking, farming, and for transportation. Traveling on water by boat was the fastest way to transport people and goods because there were no systems of connecting roads to use in early colonial times. The locations colonists chose to settle made a huge impact on whether they would be able to survive in their settlements.

1 THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

Jamestown colonists had counted on bartering for food with Native Americans in order to survive, but the Powhatan had little food to spare. The area was being hit with its worst drought in 800 years. The intense heat destroyed crops, and Native Americans were reluctant to trade what little they had.

The heat created other hardships as well. The swampy Jamestown peninsula bred malaria-bearing mosquitoes, and many colonists died from the disease. Soon, the colonists’ drinking water, supplied by the river, became contaminated with salty sea water. Eventually, the colonists’ export of tobacco—a crop that Native Americans had been growing for centuries—provided a source of income that attracted more colonists, whose arrival saved the colony.

Average January Temperature: 40–50°F
Average July Temperature: 80–90°F
Rainfall: 20–40 inches per year
Days of Snow Cover: 10–20
Growing Season: 180–210 days
Soil: yellowish and sandy
Crops of Native Peoples: maize (corn), tobacco
2 THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

Colonists in New England likewise suffered from extreme weather conditions. The first hurricane recorded in North America occurred in Massachusetts Bay in 1635. Colonists noted in astonishment that it “blew down many hundreds of trees . . . overthrew some houses, drove ships from their anchors.” Seasonal temperatures were also extreme. In the summer of 1637 a number of colonists died of sunstroke. Yet, the following winter, three feet of snow covered the ground.

To cope with illnesses brought on by the climate, colonists heeded Native Americans and looked to local plants and herbs as medicines. For instance, colonists learned from Native Americans that the Boneset plant could be used to break fevers and chills and could treat diseases ranging from colds and influenza to malaria and typhoid.

3 THE MIDDLE COLONIES

The Delaware River valley would later be a rich farmland, but in the mid-1600s it too was affected by severe weather. Late frosts and wet springs caused poor harvests because conditions were too cold and wet for grains to ripen. Swedish colonists near what is now Wilmington, Delaware, reported in 1657 that onslaughts of frigid temperatures froze the Delaware River in a single day. In time, colonists learned from Native Americans about the crops that grew in the rich soil surrounding the Delaware River.

Critical Thinking
1. Compare What seasonal patterns did the colonists in all three regions encounter? How did these patterns affect each colony over time?
2. Analyze Effects How do you think the locations chosen for settlements affect the success of those settlements?
3. Make Inferences Why do you think water-based transportation developed earlier than land-based transportation in the colonies?
4. Create a Diagram Create an illustrated diagram that explains the interconnections in one of the North American colonies between colonists, Native Americans, and the land itself. Your diagram should include a reference to a particular crisis relating to the land, what the colonists learned from Native Americans, and how this new knowledge helped the colonists to survive.
The Big Idea

England and its largely self-governing colonies prospered under a mutually beneficial trade relationship.

Why It Matters Now

The colonial system of self-governing colonies was the forerunner of our modern system of self-governing states.

Key Terms and People

mercantilism
Parliament
Navigation Acts
Dominion of New England
Sir Edmund Andros
Glorious Revolution
salutary neglect

One American’s Story

With her father fighting for Britain in the West Indies and her mother ill, 17-year-old Eliza Lucas was left to manage the family’s South Carolina plantations. On her own, the enterprising Eliza became the first person in the colonies to grow indigo and developed a way of extracting its deep blue dye. Eliza hoped that her indigo crops would add not only to her family’s fortune but to that of the British Empire.

“We please ourselves with the prospect of exporting in a few years a good quantity from hence, and supplying our mother country [Great Britain] with a manufacture for which she has so great a demand, and which she is now supplied with from the French colonies, and many thousand pounds per annum [year] thereby lost to the nation, when she might as well be supplied here, if the matter were applied to in earnest.”
—Eliza Lucas Pinckney, quoted in South Carolina: A Documentary Profile of the Palmetto State

English settlers like the Lucases exported raw materials such as indigo dye to England, and in return they imported English manufactured goods. This economic relationship benefited both England and its colonies.
England and Its Colonies Prosper

Although many colonists benefited from the trade relationship with the home country, the real purpose of the colonial system was to enrich Britain.

**MERCANTILISM** The British interest in establishing colonies was influenced by the theory of mercantilism, which held that a country’s ultimate goal was self-sufficiency and that all countries were in a competition to acquire the most gold and silver. Mercantilism was an economic idea developed and practiced in Europe in the 16th century and beyond.

Inspired by mercantilism, nations concentrated on the balance of trade—the amount of goods sold compared to the amount bought—since a favorable balance meant that more gold was coming in than going out. Thus Britain looked to its American colonies as a market for British goods, a source of raw materials that were not native to Britain, and as a producer of goods and materials to be sold to other nations. Britain profited the most from this economic system, more than the colonies or individual merchants. Mercantilism motivated Britain to encourage its poor citizens to immigrate to and settle the colonies to help make this trade goal happen.

**THE NAVIGATION ACTS** By the mid-1600s the American colonies were fulfilling their role, at least partially. The colonists exported to England large amounts of raw materials and staples—lumber, furs, fish, and tobacco. In addition, the colonists bought manufactured English goods such as furniture, utensils, books, and china.

However, not all the products the colonists produced for export ended up on English docks. Some of the colonists’ lumber and tobacco made its way into the harbors of Spain, France, and Holland. With the nations of Europe clamoring for their goods, many colonial merchants could not resist the opportunity to increase their wealth. These merchants were adding the concept of capitalism to their economic practices. In capitalistic systems, private individuals and companies control their own production and trade of goods and keep the profits.

England viewed the colonists’ pursuit of foreign markets as an economic threat. According to mercantilist theory, any wealth flowing from the colonies to another nation came at the expense of the home country. As a result, beginning in 1651, England’s Parliament, the country’s legislative body, passed the Navigation Acts, a series of laws restricting colonial trade.

The system created by the Navigation Acts benefited England and proved to be good for most colonists as well. Passing all foreign goods through England yielded jobs for English dockworkers and import taxes for the English treasury. Also, by restricting trade to English or colonial ships, the acts spurred a boom in the colonial shipbuilding industry.
The Thirteen Colonies to the 1700s

The date provided for each colony indicates the date of the first permanent settlement.

ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

New England Colonies
- Massachusetts: shipbuilding, shipping, fishing, lumber, rum, meat products
- New Hampshire: ship masts, lumber, fishing, trade, shipping, livestock, foodstuffs
- Connecticut: rum, iron foundries, shipbuilding
- Rhode Island: snuff, livestock

Middle Colonies
- New York: furs, wheat, glass, shoes, livestock, shipping, shipbuilding, rum, beer, snuff
- Delaware: trade, foodstuffs
- New Jersey: trade, foodstuffs, copper
- Pennsylvania: flax, shipbuilding

Southern Colonies
- Virginia: tobacco, wheat, cattle, iron
- Maryland: tobacco, wheat, snuff
- North Carolina: naval supplies, tobacco, furs
- South Carolina: rice, indigo, silk
- Georgia: indigo, rice, naval supplies, lumber

Interpret Maps

1. **Location** What geographical feature determined the western boundaries of the southern and middle colonies?

2. **Region** How did the New England and middle colonies’ economies differ in general from the economy of the South? What may have accounted for this difference?
Tensions Emerge

The Navigation Acts, however, did not sit well with everyone. A number of colonial merchants resented the trade restrictions, and many continued to smuggle, or trade illegally, goods to and from other countries. For years, England did little to stop these violations. Finally, in 1684 King Charles II acted, punishing those colonists whom he believed most resisted English authority: the leaders and merchants of Massachusetts.

CRACKDOWN IN MASSACHUSETTS Charles certainly had evidence to support his belief. The Puritan leaders of Massachusetts had long professed their hostility to royal authority and even suggested that their corporate charter did not require them to obey Parliament.

In 1684, after failing to persuade Massachusetts to obey English laws, England revoked the colony’s corporate charter. Massachusetts, the “Puritan utopia,” was suddenly a royal colony, under strict control of the Crown.

THE DOMINION OF NEW ENGLAND When King James II succeeded his brother Charles in 1685, he immediately aggravated the situation. Seeking to make the colonial governments more obedient, he placed the northern colonies under a single ruler in Boston. Within three years, the land from southern Maine to New Jersey was united into one vast colony, the Dominion of New England.

To rule New England, James picked Sir Edmund Andros, a veteran military officer from an aristocratic English family. Andros made his hard-line attitude toward the colonists clear: “You have no more privileges left you, than not to be sold for slaves.” Within weeks of arriving in Boston, Andros managed to make thousands of enemies. He angered Puritans by questioning

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

Painting of Moses Marcy

Trade between England and her colonies benefited many merchants, such as the wealthy New England businessman Moses Marcy, depicted in this painting from the mid-1700s. The painting is on a wood panel from the Moses Marcy house in Sturbridge, Massachusetts. After Marcy became a successful sawmill owner, tavern keeper, and government official, an unknown artist painted this representation of him, which contained symbols of affluence within it.

Analyze Historical Sources

How does this painting indicate that Moses Marcy was wealthy?
the lawfulness of their religion. He made it clear that the Navigation Acts would be enforced and smugglers prosecuted. Furthermore, he restricted local assemblies and levied taxes without any input from local leaders.

Andros's behavior outraged the northern colonists. In 1688 the colonists of Massachusetts sent their most prominent minister, Increase Mather, to London to try to get their old charter restored and Andros recalled. However, before Mather could put his diplomatic skills to work, a bloodless revolution in England changed the entire political picture.

THE GLORIOUS REVOLUTION While King James’s actions had made him few friends in the colonies, his religious leanings made him even less popular back home. A Roman Catholic who ruled with little respect for Parliament, James had no idea how much his subjects valued their Protestantism and their parliamentary rights. When James fathered a son in 1688, England suddenly faced the possibility of a dynasty of Roman Catholic monarchs.

To head off that possibility, Parliament invited William of Orange, the husband of James’s Protestant daughter Mary, to England. William and his army sailed from Holland as James fled the country. In 1689 Parliament voted to offer the throne to William and Mary. These events became known as the **Glorious Revolution**.

In the aftermath of these events, Parliament passed laws known as the English Bill of Rights. This historic document allowed Parliament to set limits on the monarchs’ powers. It protected freedom of speech for members of Parliament and gave them control of taxation. Later in the colonies, the ideas in the English Bill of Rights would influence American politics.

Upon learning of the Glorious Revolution in England, the colonists of Massachusetts staged a bloodless rebellion of their own, arresting Andros and his royal councillors. Parliament rapidly restored to their original status the colonies that had been absorbed by the Dominion of New England. In
restoring Massachusetts’s charter, however, the English government made several changes. The new charter, granted in 1691, called for the king to appoint the governor of Massachusetts and required more religious toleration and non-Puritan representation in the colonial assembly. The Puritans would no longer be able to persecute such groups as the Anglicans—members of the Church of England—and the Quakers.

**England Loosens the Reins**

After 1688 England largely turned its attention away from the colonies and toward France, which was competing with England for control of Europe. The home country still expected the colonies to perform their duties of exporting raw materials and importing manufactured goods. As long as they did this, Parliament saw little reason to devote large amounts of money and large numbers of soldiers to aggressively enforcing its colonial laws.

**SALUTARY NEGLECT**  
Ironically, England ushered in its new policy of neglect with an attempt to increase its control over the colonies. In the years immediately following the Glorious Revolution, Parliament strengthened the Navigation Acts in two ways. First, it moved smuggling trials from colonial courts—with juries composed of colonists who often found colonial smugglers innocent—to admiralty courts presided over by English judges. Second, it created the Board of Trade, an advisory board with broad powers to monitor colonial trade.

While England appeared to tighten its colonial grip, in reality it loosened its hold. English officials only lightly enforced the new measures as they settled into an overall colonial policy that became known as **salutary neglect**. Salutary—beneficial—neglect meant that England relaxed its enforcement of most regulations in return for the continued economic loyalty of the colonies. As long as raw materials continued flowing into the homeland and the colonists continued buying English-produced goods, Parliament did not supervise the colonies closely.

**THE SEEDS OF SELF-GOVERNMENT**  
This policy of salutary neglect had an important effect on colonial politics as well as economics. In the colonists’ daily lives, local governments were more influential than faraway English officials. New Englanders held town meetings. In other colonies, the county or parish was the unit of local government. Many colonists saw their elected assembly as a basic right.

Most colonial assemblies were modeled on the Parliament in London. They were bicameral, that is, with two houses. The governor’s council was the upper house. The council had executive and legislative powers. It was also the supreme court of the colony.

The elected assembly was the lower house, much like Parliament’s House of Commons. As the Commons gained power after the Glorious Revolution, colonial assemblies also won important rights. Members had freedom of speech in debates. Most importantly, they won the right to pass money bills. That meant the governor depended on the assembly for his salary.
Each colony had a governor. In royal colonies, the governor was appointed by the monarch. In proprietary colonies, the proprietor chose a governor. Members of the governor’s council were chosen in the same way. They were usually rich and influential men.

On paper, colonial governors had great power. They could veto acts of the assembly. They commanded military forces, made treaties, and chose many minor officials. On the other hand, they lacked ways of backing up their decisions. No doubt many kept in mind the example of Governor Edmund Andros and took steps to ensure they did not share his fate.

The policy of salutary neglect that characterized British and colonial relations throughout the first half of the 1700s worked in large part because of the colonists’ loyalty to Britain. The men and women of the colonies still considered themselves loyal British subjects, eager to benefit the empire as well as themselves. Aside from a desire for more economic and political breathing room, the colonies had little in common with one another that would unite them against Britain. In particular, the northern and southern colonies were developing distinct societies, based on sharply contrasting economic systems.

Reading Check
Synthesize How did both the colonies and Great Britain benefit from the policy of salutary neglect?

Lesson 3 Assessment

1. Organize Information Create a problem-solution chart. Fill it in with steps that England took to solve its economic and political problems with the colonists.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Solutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Keeping the colonies under economic and political control | 1. in 1651  
2. in 1686  
3. after 1688 |

Which policy might colonists have resented most and why?

2. Key Terms and People For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Compare and Contrast How were colonial government structures similar to and different than British government structures?

Think About:
• colonial assemblies compared to British Parliament
• elected representatives versus appointed members

4. Summarize How did political events in England affect the lives of the colonists? Use evidence from the text to support your response.

5. Predict Britain established policies to control the American colonies but was inconsistent in its enforcement of those policies. What results might be expected from such inconsistency?
The Big Idea
In the southern colonies, a predominantly agricultural economy developed. The northern colonies developed an economy based on mostly commerce and trade.

Why It Matters Now
The modern South and North maintain many of their economic traditions.

Key Terms and People
cash crop
slave
triangular trade
middle passage

One American’s Story
In the fall of 1773, Philip Vickers Fithian left his home in Princeton, New Jersey, to tutor the children of Robert Carter III and his wife Frances at their Virginia manor house. Fithian, who kept a journal of his one-year stay there, recalled an evening walk through the plantation.

“We stroll’d down the Pasture quite to the River, admiring the Pleasantness of the evening, & the delightsome Prospect of the River, Hills, Huts on the Summits, low Bottoms, Trees of various Kinds, and Sizes, Cattle & Sheep feeding some near us, & others at a great distance on the green sides of the Hills. . . . I love to walk on these high Hills . . . where I can have a long View of many Miles & see on the Summits of the Hills Clusters of Savin Trees, through these often a little Farm-House, or Quarter for Negroes.”

—Philip Vickers Fithian, from the Journal & Letters of Philip Vickers Fithian

Although Fithian’s journal goes on to express outrage over the treatment of the slaves, he was fascinated by the plantation system, which had come to dominate the South. The plantation economy led to a largely rural society in which enslaved Africans played an unwilling yet important role.
A Plantation Economy Arises

Since the early days of Jamestown, when the planting of tobacco helped save the settlement, the southern colonists had staked their livelihood on the fertile soil that stretched from the Chesapeake region to Georgia. Robert Carter, like his father and grandfather before him, specialized in raising a single **cash crop**—one grown primarily for sale rather than for the farmer’s own use. In Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, farmers grew the broad green leaves of tobacco. In South Carolina and Georgia, rice, and later, indigo, were successful cash crops.

Throughout the South, plantations developed instead of towns. Because the long and deep rivers allowed access for ocean-going vessels, planters—owners of large profitable plantations—could ship their goods directly to the northern colonies and Europe without the need for city docks and warehouses. Because plantation owners produced most of what they needed on their property, they had little use for shops, bakeries, and markets. There were some cities in the South, including Charles Town (later Charleston), South Carolina, one of the most thriving port cities in the British Empire. On the whole, the South developed largely as a rural and self-sufficient society.

The southern plantation economy needed a large labor force. In early colonial times, indentured servants did much of the work. Many of these young, mostly white men had traded a life of prison or poverty in Europe for a limited term of servitude in North America. They had few rights while in bondage. Those who lived through their harsh years of labor—and many did
Tobacco and North Carolina’s Economy

Tobacco has long been a key element of the southern economy. The soil and climate of the South are ideal for growing tobacco, which was first harvested for commercial use in 1612. In recent years, however, tobacco revenues have shrunk as North Carolina lessens its dependence on tobacco and develops a more diversified economy.

The focal point of North Carolina’s new economy is the Research Triangle, so called for the cluster of major universities in Raleigh, Durham, and Chapel Hill. These universities cooperate in research and development in many areas, including technology and health care. Other new industries, such as computers and telecommunications, are fueling North Carolina’s growth.

North Carolina in the Colonial Era

North Carolina Today

Reading Check
Make Inferences
How did the geography and natural resources of the South contribute to the self-sufficiency of southern plantations?

not—saw their lives improve only slightly as they struggled to survive on the western outskirts of the southern colonies.

While historians estimate that indentured servants made up a significant portion of the colonial population in the 1600s—between one-half and two-thirds of all white immigrants after 1630—their numbers declined toward the end of the century. With continuing reports of hardship in the New World, many laborers in Europe decided to stay home. Faced with a depleted labor force and a growing agricultural economy, the southern colonists turned to another group to meet their labor needs: African slaves.
Slavery Becomes Entrenched

The English colonists gradually turned to the use of African *slaves*—people who were considered the property of others—after efforts to meet their labor needs with enslaved Native Americans and indentured servants failed. During the 1600s and 1700s, plantation owners and other colonists would subject hundreds of thousands of Africans to a life of intense labor and cruelty in North America.

THE EVOLUTION OF SLAVERY In the early days of the colonies, the English, like their Spanish counterparts, had forced Native Americans to work for them. However, the English settlers found it increasingly difficult to enslave Native Americans. Aside from being reluctant to learn English labor techniques, Native Americans could easily escape because they had far better knowledge of the local fields and forests than did the colonists.

As the indentured servant population fell, the price of indentured servants rose. As a result, the English colonists turned to African slaves as an alternative. A slave worked for life and thus brought a much larger return on the investment. In addition, most white colonists convinced themselves that Africans’ dark skin was a sign of inferiority, and so had few reservations about subjecting them to a life of servitude. Africans were also thought better able to endure the harsh physical demands of plantation labor in hot climates. By 1690 nearly 13,000 African slaves toiled in the southern colonies. By 1750 that number had increased to almost 200,000.

THE EUROPEAN SLAVE TRADE Before the English began the large-scale importation of African slaves to their colonies on the American mainland, Africans had been laboring as slaves for years in the West Indies. During the late 1600s English planters in Jamaica and Barbados imported tens of thousands of African slaves to work their sugar plantations. By 1690 the African population on Barbados was about 60,000—three times the white population.

During the 17th century, Africans had become part of a transatlantic trading network described as the *triangular trade*. This term referred to a three-way trading process: merchants carried rum and other goods from New England to Africa; in Africa they traded their merchandise for enslaved people, whom they transported to the West Indies and sold for sugar and molasses; these goods were then shipped to New England to be distilled into rum. The “triangular” trade, in fact, encompassed a network of trade routes crisscrossing the northern and southern colonies, the West Indies, England, Europe, and Africa. The network carried an array of traded goods—from furs and fruit to tar and tobacco, as well as African people.

The triangular trade brought most of these captured African immigrants to the West Indies, Caribbean, and South America first, and then on to North American colonies. Only a small percentage—perhaps 5 percent—came directly to the North American colonies through trade.

The smallest numbers settled in New England, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, where most of them worked as servants. Because the Dutch had been active in the slave trade, New York and New Jersey had larger African slave
populations. Most of the African slaves, however, were settled in the southern colonies due to the agricultural economy there. Virginia, Maryland, and North Carolina had large enslaved African populations to work both plantations and small farms. In South Carolina, the demand for rice plantation workers caused the African slave population to grow dramatically. By the mid-1700s there were about twice as many enslaved Africans as whites in South Carolina.

**THE MIDDLE PASSAGE** The voyage that brought Africans to the West Indies and later to North America was known as the *middle passage*, because it was considered the middle leg of the transatlantic trade triangle. Sickening cruelty characterized this journey. In the bustling ports along West Africa, European traders branded Africans with red-hot irons for identification purposes and packed them into the dark holds of large ships. On board a slave ship, Africans fell victim to whippings and beatings from slavers as well as diseases that swept through the vessel. The smell of blood, sweat, and excrement filled the hold, as the African passengers lived in their own vomit and waste. One African, Olaudah Equiano, recalled the
inhumane conditions on his trip from West Africa to the West Indies in 1756 when he was 11 years old.

“The closeness of the place, and the heat of the climate, added to the number in the ship, which was so crowded that each had scarcely room to turn himself, almost suffocated us. This produced copious perspirations, so that the air soon became unfit for respiration from a variety of loathsome smells, and brought on a sickness among the slaves, of which many died. . . .”

—Olaudah Equiano, from The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano

Whether they died from disease or from cruel treatment by merchants, or whether they committed suicide, as many did by plunging into the ocean, 20 percent or more of the Africans aboard each slave ship perished during the trip to the New World.

SLAVERY IN THE SOUTH Africans who survived their ocean voyage entered an extremely difficult life of bondage in North America. Most slaves—probably 80 to 90 percent—worked in the fields. On large plantations, a white slave owner directed their labor, often through field bosses. On smaller farms, slaves often worked alongside their owner.

The other 10 to 20 percent of slaves worked in the house of their owner or as artisans. Domestic slaves cooked, cleaned, and raised the master's children. While owners did not subject their domestic slaves to the rigors of field labor, they commonly treated them with equal cruelty. Other slaves developed skills as artisans—carpenters, blacksmiths, and bricklayers. Owners often rented these slaves out to work on other plantations.

Whatever their task, slaves led a grueling existence. Full-time work began around age 12 and continued until death. John Ferdinand Smyth, an English traveler, described a typical slave workday.

“He (the slave) is called up in the morning at daybreak, and is seldom allowed time enough to swallow three mouthfuls of hominy, or hoecake, but is driven out immediately to the field to hard labor, at which he continues, without intermission, until noon. . . . About noon is the time he eats his dinner, and he is seldom allowed an hour for that purpose. . . . They then return to severe labor, which continues in the field until dusk in the evening.”

—John Ferdinand Smyth, quoted in Planters and Pioneers

Slave owners whipped and beat those slaves they thought were disobedient or disrespectful. In Virginia the courts did not consider slave owners guilty of murder for killing their slaves during punishment.
Commerce Grows in the North

The theory of mercantilism held that colonies existed to help the home country amass wealth. However, the American colonies found their own economy prospering more. From 1650 to 1750, the colonies’ economy grew twice as fast as Great Britain’s economy did. Much of this growth occurred in the New England and middle colonies.

A Diversified Economy

Unlike farms in the South, those in the New England and middle colonies usually produced several crops instead of a single one. Cold winters and rocky soil restricted New Englanders to small farms. In the more fertile areas of the middle colonies, such as New York and Pennsylvania, farmers raised a variety of crops and livestock, including wheat, corn, cattle, and hogs. They produced so much that they sold their surplus food to the West Indies, where raising sugarcane produced such tremendous profits that planters did not want to waste land growing food for the slaves who worked their fields.

A diverse commercial economy also developed in the New England and middle colonies. Grinding wheat, harvesting fish, and sawing lumber became thriving industries. Colonists also manufactured impressive numbers of ships and quantities of iron. By 1760 the colonists had built one-third of all British

Daily Urban Life in Colonial Times

By the mid-18th century, colonial cities were prosperous and growing. Brick row houses were replacing the wooden structures of the 17th century, while large mansions and churches, built of brick or stone, were rising everywhere.

English colonists had brought with them a preference for houses (as opposed to apartments, which were the norm in the cities of other European countries). As in Britain, the size of the house indicated the social position of its occupant.

In contemporary Philadelphia, Elfreth’s Alley preserves the scale and appearance of a mid-18th-century city street. A neighborhood like this could have commercial and residential uses. Many people lived above the shops where they worked.

The house known as Cliveden, also in Philadelphia, was built in 1767. In contrast to the artisan or lower-middle-class housing of Elfreth’s Alley, this large, freestanding mansion shows the kind of building that the rich could afford.

Vocabulary

profit  the money left over after costs are subtracted from income
ships and were producing more iron than England was. While at times the North’s economy dipped, many colonists prospered. In particular, the number of merchants grew. By the mid-1700s, merchants were one of the most powerful groups in the North.

**URBAN LIFE** The expansion in trade caused port cities to grow. Only one major port, Charles Town, existed in the South. In contrast, the North boasted Boston, New York City, and Philadelphia. In fact, Philadelphia eventually became the second largest city (after London) in the British Empire. Philadelphia was the first large city since ancient Roman times to be laid out on a grid-like street plan. For colonists accustomed to the winding medieval streets of European cities, this kind of rational urban planning must have appeared startling and new. Influenced by Sir Christopher Wren’s designs for the rebuilding of London after the Great Fire of 1666, Philadelphia included a number of open squares intended for public use. Both the grid plan and the park-like square would become important elements of American urban design in the centuries to come.

With its parks, police patrols, paved streets, and whale-oil lamps to light the sidewalks, Philadelphia was a sophisticated city. However, the high concentration of people without adequate public services caused problems. Firewood and clean water could be hard to come by, whereas garbage was abundant.

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**Reading Check**

Form Generalizations

What kinds of industries developed in the North?

**Example**

The Diversity of Northern Colonies

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**Lesson 4 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Create a diagram and fill it in with examples that illustrate the main idea at the top.

   ![The Diversity of Northern Colonies](Example Example Example)

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Draw Conclusions** Why were so many enslaved Africans brought to the southern colonies?

   **Think About:**
   - why Native Americans were not used instead
   - why Europeans were not used instead
   - the cash crops of the South
   - the triangular trade

4. **Analyze Causes** Why did many cities develop in the North during the 1700s? Use evidence from the text to support your response.

5. **Contrast** In what ways did the northern colonies differ from the southern colonies in the 1700s? Use evidence from the text to support your response.
Life in the Colonies

The Big Idea
Both the northern and southern colonies developed diverse societies. The South was mostly rural, and the North was mostly urban.

Why It Matters Now
The states that were once the northern colonies remain predominantly urban today. Much of the region that was once the southern colonies remains rural today.

Key Terms and People
Enlightenment
Benjamin Franklin
Jonathan Edwards
Great Awakening
Stono Rebellion

One American’s Story
After growing up on a Massachusetts farm, John Adams found city life in Boston distracting. In 1759 he wrote,

“Who can study in Boston Streets? I am unable to observe the various Objects that I meet, with sufficient Precision. My Eyes are so diverted with Chimney Sweeps, Carriers of Wood, Merchants, Ladies, Priests, Carts, Horses, Oxen, Coaches, Market men and Women, Soldiers, Sailors, and my Ears with the Rattle Gabble of them all that I cant think long enough in the Street upon any one Thing to start and pursue a Thought.”

—John Adams, from The Diary and Autobiography of John Adams

Adams’s description illustrates the changes that transformed the New England and middle colonies during the 18th century. The growth of thriving commercial cities made the North radically different from the agricultural South. In addition, interest in education was on the rise, partially due to intellectual and religious movements. These movements brought about social changes that contributed to the colonies’ eventual break with England.
Northern Society Is Diverse

Northern society was composed of diverse groups with sometimes conflicting interests. Groups whose interests clashed with those of the people in power included immigrants, African Americans, and women.

INFLUX OF IMMIGRANTS Even more so than those in the South, the northern colonies attracted a variety of immigrants. The Germans and the Scots-Irish were the largest non-English immigrant groups. Germans began arriving in Pennsylvania in the 1680s. Most were fleeing economic distress, but some, such as the Mennonites, came to Pennsylvania because of William Penn’s policy of religious freedom and because they shared the Quakers’ opposition to war.

The Scots-Irish—descendants of Scottish Protestants who had colonized northern Ireland in the 1600s—entered mostly through Philadelphia. They commonly arrived as families. Many established farms in frontier areas such as western Pennsylvania, where they often clashed with Native Americans.

Other ethnic groups included the Dutch in New York, Scandinavians in Delaware, and Jews in such cities as Newport and Philadelphia. The different groups did not always mix. Benjamin Franklin, echoing the sentiments of many English colonists, made the following complaint in 1751.

“Why should the [Germans] be suffered to swarm into our Settlements and, by herding together establish their Language and Manners to the Exclusion of ours? Why should Pennsylvania, founded by the English, become a Colony of Aliens, who will shortly be so numerous as to Germanize us instead of our Anglifying them?”

—Benjamin Franklin, from “Observations Concerning the Increase of Mankind, Peopling of Countries, etc.”

Interpret Graphs

What new ethnic groups had settled in the American colonies by 1755?
In spite of this fear of being swamped by non-English speakers, English colonists found ways of getting along with their new neighbors, thus furthering the evolution of a truly diverse American society.

**SLAVERY IN THE NORTH** Because raising wheat and corn did not require as much labor as raising tobacco or rice, northerners had less incentive to turn to slavery than did southerners. However, slavery did exist in New England and was extensive throughout the middle colonies, as were racial prejudices against blacks—free or enslaved.

While still considered property, most enslaved persons in New England enjoyed greater legal standing than slaves elsewhere in the colonies. They could sue and be sued, and they had the right of appeal to the highest courts. As in the South, however, enslaved persons in the North led harsh lives and were considered less than human beings. Laws forbade them to gather or to carry weapons, and there were no laws to protect them from cruel treatment. Reacting to the harsh conditions, slaves sometimes rebelled. An uprising occurred in 1712 in New York, leading to the execution of 21 people. In 1741 a series of suspicious fires and robberies led New Yorkers to fear another uprising. They decided to make an example of the suspected ringleaders, burning alive 13 persons and hanging 18.

**WOMEN IN NORTHERN SOCIETY** As in the South, women in the North had extensive work responsibilities but few legal rights. Most people in the colonies still lived on farms, where women faced unceasing labor. A colonial wife had virtually no legal rights. She could not vote. Most women could not enter into contracts, buy or sell property, or keep their own wages if they worked outside the home. Only single women and widows could run their own businesses.

In New England, religion as well as law served to keep women under their husbands’ rule. Puritan clergymen insisted that wives must submit to their husbands, saying, “Wives are part of the House and Family, and ought to be under a Husband’s Government: they should Obey their own Husbands.”

**WITCHCRAFT TRIALS IN SALEM** The strict limitations on women’s roles, combined with social tensions, the strained relations with the Native Americans, and religious fanaticism, contributed to one of the most bizarre episodes in American history. In February 1692 several Salem girls accused a West Indian slave woman, Tituba, of practicing witchcraft. In this Puritan New England town of Salem, where the constant fear of Native American attacks encouraged a preoccupation with violence and death, the girls’ accusations drew a great deal of attention. When the girls accused others of witchcraft, the situation grew out of control, as those who were accused tried to save themselves by naming other “witches.”

Hysteria gripped the town as more and more people made false accusations. The accusations highlighted social and religious tensions. Many of the accusers were poor and brought charges against richer residents. In addition, a high proportion of victims were women who might be considered too independent.
The accusations continued until the girls dared to charge such prominent citizens as the governor’s wife. Finally realizing that they had been hearing false evidence, officials closed the court. The witchcraft hysteria ended—but not before 19 persons had been hanged and another person killed by being crushed to death. Four or five more “witches” died in jail, and about 150 were imprisoned.

**New Ideas Influence the Colonists**

The Salem trials of 1692 caused many people to question the existence of witchcraft. During the 1700s individuals began to make other changes in the way they viewed the world.

**THE ENLIGHTENMENT** Since before the Renaissance, philosophers in Europe had been using reason and the scientific method to obtain knowledge. Scientists looked beyond religious doctrine to investigate how the world worked. Influenced by the observations of Nicolaus Copernicus, Galileo Galilei, and Sir Isaac Newton, people determined that the earth revolved around the sun and not vice versa. They also concluded that the world is governed not by chance or miracles but by fixed mathematical laws. These new ideas about nature gained prevalence in the 1700s in a movement called the **Enlightenment**.

Enlightenment ideas traveled from Europe to the colonies and spread quickly in numerous books and pamphlets. Literacy was particularly high in New England because the Puritans had long supported public education to ensure that everyone could read the Bible.

One outstanding Enlightenment figure was **Benjamin Franklin**. Franklin embraced the notion of obtaining truth through experimentation and reasoning. For example, his most famous experiment—flying a kite in a thunderstorm—demonstrated that lightning was a form of electrical power.

The Enlightenment also had a profound effect on social and political thought in the colonies. Colonial leaders such as Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson used reason to conclude that individuals have natural rights, which governments must respect. They believed in individualism—that each individual in a society has moral worth and importance. Individualists embraced social mobility, the idea that each person should be allowed to work toward and attain a higher social standing. Enlightenment principles eventually would lead many colonists to question the authority of the British monarchy and launch the American Revolution.

**THE GREAT AWAKENING** By the early 1700s the Puritan church had lost its grip on society, and church membership was in decline. The new Massachusetts charter of 1691 forced Puritans to allow freedom of worship and banned the practice of permitting only Puritan church members to vote. Furthermore, many people seemed to be doing so well in this world that they paid little attention to the next. As Puritan merchants prospered, they developed a taste for material possessions and sensual pleasures.
Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790)  

Benjamin Franklin was one of the leading champions of Enlightenment ideals in America. Like other scientists and philosophers of the Enlightenment, Franklin believed that human beings could use their intellectual powers to improve their lot.

Franklin’s observations and experiments led to a number of inventions, including the lightning rod, bifocals, and a new kind of heating system that became known as the Franklin stove. Inventions like these proved that knowledge derived from scientific experiments could be put to practical use.

Franklin’s achievements brought him world renown. In 1756 British scholars elected him to the Royal Society, and in 1772 France honored him with membership in the French Academy of Sciences.

Jonathan Edwards (1703–1758)  

Descended from a long line of Puritan ministers, Jonathan Edwards denied that humans had the power to perfect themselves. He believed that “however you may have reformed your life in many things,” as a sinner you were destined for hell unless you had a “great change of heart.”

Edwards was a brilliant thinker who entered Yale College when he was only 13. His preaching was one of the driving forces of the Great Awakening. Ironically, when the religious revival died down, Edwards’s own congregation rejected him for being too strict about doctrine. Edwards moved to Stockbridge, Massachusetts, in 1751, where he lived most of his remaining years as a missionary to a Native American settlement.

Jonathan Edwards, of Northampton, Massachusetts, was one member of the clergy who sought to revive the intensity and commitment of the original Puritan vision. Edwards preached that church attendance was not enough for salvation; people must acknowledge their sinfulness and feel God’s love for them.

Other preachers traveled from village to village, stirring people to rededicate themselves to God. Such traveling preachers attracted thousands, making it necessary for revival meetings to be held outdoors. The resulting religious revival, known as the Great Awakening, lasted throughout the 1730s and 1740s.

The Great Awakening brought many colonists, as well as Native Americans and African Americans, into organized Christian churches for the first time. As the movement gained momentum, it also challenged the authority of established churches. Some colonists abandoned their old Puritan or Anglican congregations. At the same time, independent denominations, such as the Baptists and Methodists, gained new members. The Great Awakening also led to an increased interest in higher education, as several Protestant denominations founded colleges such as Princeton (originally the College of New
Jersey), Brown, Columbia (originally King's College), and Dartmouth to train ministers for their rapidly growing churches.

While the Great Awakening and the Enlightenment emphasized opposing aspects of human experience—emotionalism and reason, respectively—they had similar consequences. Both caused people to question traditional authority. Moreover, both stressed the importance of the individual—the Enlightenment by emphasizing human reason, and the Great Awakening by deemphasizing the role of church authority.

These movements helped lead the colonists to question Britain's authority over their lives. The separation between Britain and the colonies was further hastened by another significant event: a North American war between Great Britain and France, in which the colonists fought on Britain's side.

**Life in Southern Society**

As the southern colonies grew in wealth and population, they also grew in diversity. The rich, fertile land and relatively warm climate attracted many immigrants from several European countries. However, not all groups benefited equally from the South's prosperity.

**A DIVERSE AND PROSPEROUS PEOPLE** During the 1700s large numbers of European immigrants traveled to North America in search of a new start. To attract settlers, southern colonies offered religious toleration of most Christian sects. The influx of immigrants helped create a diverse population in both the northern and southern colonies.

In the South, thousands of Germans settled throughout Maryland and Virginia and as far south as South Carolina. For many, religious tolerance attracted them to the colonies. There they raised grain, livestock, and tobacco. Many German colonists were skilled artisans as well as farmers. They established weaving mills, ironworks, and glassworks.
A wave of Scots and Scots-Irish (Scots from Northern Ireland) also settled in the South, residing mainly along the mountainous back country of western North Carolina. Mostly strict Presbyterians, they hated and distrusted the English government. The Scots-Irish were willing to fight for their political rights and often did. In the late 1700s they would help lead the push for independence from England. The Scots-Irish were also among the first to push westward into frontier wilderness, expanding American settlement. They gained a reputation of being thrifty and hardworking, characteristics greatly valued in the colonies.

While small farmers formed the majority of the southern population, the planters controlled much of the South’s economy. They also controlled its political and social institutions. Luxuries of planters’ lives included dances, banquets, music recitals, and parties that lasted several days.

By the mid-1700s life was good for many southern colonists, particularly those in the Chesapeake Bay region. Due to a large growth in the entire colonies’ export trade, standards of living rose dramatically between 1700 and 1770. Colonists along the Chesapeake, where tobacco prices had rebounded after tumbling during the late 1600s, saw the greatest economic boom. From 1713 to 1774 tobacco exports there almost tripled, and many farmers and merchants prospered.

**THE ROLE OF WOMEN**

Women in southern as well as northern society shared a common trait: second-class citizenship. Women had few legal or social rights; for instance, they could not vote or preach. Even daughters of wealthy southern planters were usually taught only basic reading, writing, and arithmetic. They were mostly educated in the social graces or in domestic tasks, such as canning and preserving food, sewing, and embroidery.

Throughout the day, the average southern woman worked over a hot fire baking bread or boiling meat. Her outdoor duties included milking the cows, slaughtering pigs for ham and bacon, and tending the garden. She was also expected to sew, wash clothes, and clean. Women of the planter class escaped most of these tasks, as servants handled the household chores. Regardless of class, however, most women bowed to their husbands’ will. An excerpt from Virginia plantation owner William Byrd’s diary hints at Lucia Parke Byrd’s subservient position: “My wife and I had another scold about mending my shoes,” Byrd wrote, “but it was soon over by her submission.”

**Africans Cope in Their New World**

The Africans who were transported to North America came from a variety of different cultures and spoke varied languages. Forced to labor in a strange new land, they worked on plantations in the South, growing tobacco, rice, and indigo. These diverse peoples bonded together for support and fought against their plight in numerous ways.
CULTURE AND FAMILY  In the midst of the horrors of slavery, Africans developed a way of life based strongly on their cultural heritage. Enslaved people wove baskets and molded pottery as they had done in their homeland. They kept alive their musical traditions and retold the stories of their ancestors. Because slave merchants tore apart many African families, slaves created new families among the people with whom they lived. If a master sold a parent to another plantation, other slaves stepped in to raise the children who were left behind.

The African influence remained particularly strong among the slaves of South Carolina and Georgia. By the mid-1700s, planters in these colonies had imported large numbers of Africans with rice-growing expertise to help develop rice as the colonies’ main cash crop. Many of these slaves came from the same region in West Africa.

One of the most important customs that Africans kept alive in North America was their dance. From Maryland to Georgia, slaves continued to practice what became known in the colonies as the ring shout, a circular religious dance. While variations of the dance brought to North America differed throughout the regions in West and Central Africa, the dance paid tribute to the Africans’ ancestors and gods and usually involved loud chants and quick, circular steps. Despite the white colonists’ efforts to eradicate it, the ritual endured.

RESISTANCE AND REVOLT  Enslaved Africans also resisted their position of subservience. Throughout the colonies, planters reported slaves faking illness, breaking tools, and staging work slowdowns. One master noted the difficulty in forcing African slaves to accept their lot, commenting that if a slave “must be broke, either from Obstinacy, or, which I am more apt to suppose, from Greatness of Soul, [it] will require . . . hard Discipline. . . . You would really be surpriz’d at their Perseverance . . . they often die before they can be conquer’d.”

This ad from a Virginia newspaper of the 1730s reveals that slaves were treated like animals or merchandise.
Some slaves pushed their resistance to open revolt. One such uprising, the **Stono Rebellion**, began on a September Sunday in 1739. That morning, about 20 slaves gathered at the Stono River southwest of Charles Town. Wielding guns and other weapons, they killed several planter families and marched south, beating drums and loudly inviting other slaves to join them in their plan to flee to Spanish-held Florida.

By late Sunday afternoon, a white militia had surrounded the group of escaping slaves. The two sides clashed, and many slaves died in the fighting. Those captured were executed. Despite the rebellion’s failure, it sent a chill through many southern colonists and led to the tightening of harsh slave laws already in place. However, slave rebellions continued into the 1800s.

Despite the severe punishment that escape attempts brought, a number of slaves tried to run away. The runaway notices published in the various newspapers throughout Virginia show that from 1736 to 1801, at least 1,279 enslaved men and women in that state took to flight. Many who succeeded in running away from their masters found refuge with Native American tribes, and marriage between runaway slaves and Native Americans was common.

As the southern colonies grew, they became ever more dependent on the use of African slavery. This was not the case in the northern colonies, due mainly to an economy driven by commerce rather than agriculture. This economic distinction spurred the North to develop in ways that differed greatly from the South.
The French and Indian War

One American’s Story

Joseph Nichols and other Massachusetts men joined British soldiers in fighting the French near the Hudson River in 1758. Yet even though the colonists and the British had united against a common enemy, the two groups held conflicting ideas about authority. On October 31, 1758, Nichols recorded the following dispute.

“One sunrise, the chief officer of the fort came to our regiment and ordered all our men up to the falls to meet the wagons and teams. Our men seemed to be loath to go before they eat. Those that refused to turn out, he drove out, and some he struck with his staff, which caused a great uproar among us. Our people in general declare in case we are so used tomorrow, blows shall end the dispute.”

—Joseph Nichols, quoted in A People’s Army

This “uproar” demonstrates that the British and the colonists differed in their views about authority and individual freedom. During the war between Great Britain and France, these conflicting viewpoints triggered divisions between Great Britain and its colonies that would never heal.
Rivals for an Empire

In the 1750s France was Great Britain's biggest rival in the struggle to build a world empire, and one major area of contention between them was the rich Ohio River valley. The colonists favored Great Britain because they still thought of themselves as British; as well, they were eager to expand the colonies westward from the increasingly crowded Atlantic seaboard.

FRANCE'S NORTH AMERICAN EMPIRE  France had begun its North American Empire in 1534, when Jacques Cartier explored the St. Lawrence River. In 1608 Samuel de Champlain founded the town of Quebec there, the first permanent French settlement in North America. Quebec was a fortified fur-trading post. Its location on the St. Lawrence River gave the French excellent access to North America, allowing France to eventually dominate fur trading in the New World.

After establishing Quebec, French priests and traders spread into the heart of the continent. In 1682 Robert Cavalier, Sieur de La Salle, claimed the entire Mississippi valley for France, naming it Louisiana in honor of King Louis XIV. However, by 1754 the European population of New France, the French colony in North America, had grown to only about 70,000 (compared to more than 1 million in the British colonies).

A DIFFERENT KIND OF COLONY  From the start, New France differed from the British colonies. Typical French colonists included fur traders and Catholic priests who wanted to convert Native Americans. Neither had a desire to build towns or raise families.

The French colonists also developed friendlier relations with Native Americans than did the British. They relied on Hurons, Ottawas, Ojibwas, and others to do most of the trapping and then traded with them for the furs, which were in great demand in Europe. This trade relationship led to several military alliances. As early as 1609, for example, the Algonquin and other Native Americans used Champlain’s help to defeat their traditional enemies, the Mohawk Iroquois.

Britain Defeats an Old Enemy

As the French Empire in North America expanded, it collided with the growing British Empire. France and Great Britain had already fought two inconclusive wars during the previous half-century. In 1754 the French-British conflict reignited. In that year, the French built Fort Duquesne at the point where the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers join to form the Ohio—the site of modern Pittsburgh.

However, the British had previously granted 200,000 acres of land in the Ohio country to a group of wealthy planters. The Virginia governor sent militia, a group of citizens who performed military duties, to evict the French.
The small band, led by an ambitious 22-year-old officer named George
Washington, established an outpost called Fort Necessity about 40 miles
from Fort Duquesne. In May 1754 Washington’s militia attacked a small
detachment of French soldiers, and the French swiftly counterattacked. In
the battle that followed in July, the French forced Washington to surrender.
Although neither side realized it, these battles at Fort Necessity were the
opening of the French and Indian War, the fourth war between Great Britain
and France for control of North America.

EARLY FRENCH VICTORIES A year after his defeat, Washington again headed
into battle, this time as an aide to the British general Edward Braddock,
whose mission was to drive the French out of the Ohio valley.

Braddock first launched an attack on Fort Duquesne. As Braddock and
nearly 1,500 soldiers neared the fort, French soldiers and their Native Ameri-
can allies ambushed them. The British soldiers, accustomed to enemies who
marched in orderly rows rather than ones who fought from behind trees,
turned and fled.

Washington showed incredible courage, while the weakness of the suppos-
edly invincible British army surprised him and many other colonists. They
began to question the competence of the British army, which suffered defeat
after defeat during 1755 and 1756.

PITT AND THE IROQUOIS TURN THE TIDE Angered by French victories, Brit-
ain’s King George II selected new leaders to run his government in 1757. One
of these was William Pitt, an energetic, self-confident politician. Under Pitt,
the reinvigorated British army finally began winning battles, which prompted
the powerful Iroquois to support them. Now Britain had some Native Ameri-
can allies to balance those of France.

In September 1759 the war took a dramatic and decisive turn on the Plains
of Abraham just outside Quebec. Under the cover of night, British troops
under General James Wolfe scaled the high cliffs that protected Quebec.
Catching the French and their commander, the Marquis de Montcalm, by sur-
prise, they won a short but deadly battle. The British triumph at Quebec led
them to victory in the war.

The French and Indian War officially ended in 1763 with the Treaty of
Paris. Great Britain claimed all of North America east of the Mississippi River.
This included Florida, which Britain acquired from Spain, an ally of France.
Spain gained the French lands west of the Mississippi, including the city of
New Orleans. France kept control of only a few small islands near Newfoundland and in the West Indies. The other losers in the war were Native Ameri-
cans, who found the victorious British harder to bargain with than the French
had been.

The Treaty of Paris was a victory in many ways for Great Britain. However,
it caused conflict between American colonists and the British government.
Britain no longer wanted to keep a strong military presence in the colo-
nies, which caused the colonists to feel unprotected against Native Ameri-
cans. Also, colonists and Britain disagreed on taxes levied to cover wartime
expenses. In these conflicts, the groundwork started to be laid for the Ameri-
can Revolution.
VICTORY BRINGS NEW PROBLEMS  Claiming ownership of the Ohio River valley also brought Great Britain trouble. Native Americans feared that the growing number of British settlers crossing the Appalachian Mountains would soon drive away the game they depended on for survival.

In the spring of 1763, the Ottawa leader Pontiac recognized that the French loss was a loss for Native Americans. Led by Pontiac, Native Americans captured eight British forts in the Ohio valley and laid siege to two others. In angry response, British officers presented smallpox-infected blankets to two Delaware chiefs during peace negotiations, and the virus spread rapidly among the Native Americans. Weakened by disease and war, most Native American groups negotiated treaties with the British by the end of 1765.

To avoid further conflicts with Native Americans, the British government issued the **Proclamation of 1763**, which banned all settlement west of the Appalachians. This ban established a Proclamation Line, which the colonists were not to cross. However, the British could not enforce this ban any more effectively than they could enforce the Navigation Acts, and colonists continued to move west onto Native American lands.
The Colonies and Britain Grow Apart

Because the Proclamation of 1763 sought to halt expansion, it convinced the colonists that the British government did not care about their needs. A second result of the French and Indian War—Britain’s financial crisis—brought about new laws that reinforced the colonists’ opinion even more.

BRITISH POLICIES ANGER COLONISTS  By 1763 tensions between Britain and one colony, Massachusetts, had already been increasing. During the French and Indian War, the British had cracked down on colonial smuggling. In 1761 the royal governor of Massachusetts authorized the use of the writs of assistance, which allowed British customs officials to search any ship or building. Because many merchants worked out of their residences, the writs enabled officials to search colonial homes. The merchants of Boston were outraged.

PROBLEMS RESULTING FROM THE WAR  After the war, the British government stationed 10,000 troops in its territories to control the Native Americans and former French subjects. Although this army was meant to protect the colonies, the colonists viewed it as a standing army that might turn against them. Maintaining troops in North America was an added expense on an already strained British budget. Britain had borrowed so much money during the war that it nearly doubled its national debt.

Hoping to lower the debt, King George III chose a financial expert, George Grenville, to serve as prime minister in 1763. Grenville soon angered

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

“Join, or Die”

In 1754 Benjamin Franklin drew this image of a severed snake to encourage the British colonies to unite against the threat posed by French and Indian forces. The design was inspired by a superstition that a sliced snake would revive if the pieces of its body were joined before sunset.

The image, the first political cartoon to be published in an American newspaper, was widely circulated in 1754 and later during the American Revolution. A remarkably direct and simple cartoon, it reveals the beginning of a sense of national identity.

Analyze Historical Sources

1. Why are there only eight segments of the snake?
2. Why do you think this image was so persuasive to colonists who may never have thought of the separate colonies as parts of a whole?
merchants throughout the colonies. He began to suspect that the colonists were smuggling goods into the country. In 1764 he prompted Parliament to enact a law known as the *Sugar Act*. The Sugar Act did three things. It halved the duty on foreign-made molasses (in the hopes that colonists would pay a lower tax rather than risk arrest by smuggling). It placed duties on certain imports. Most important, it strengthened the enforcement of the law allowing prosecutors to try smuggling cases in a vice-admiralty court rather than in a more sympathetic colonial court.

By the end of 1764, the colonies and Great Britain were disagreeing more and more about how the colonies should be taxed and governed. These feelings of dissatisfaction soon would swell into outright rebellion.

### Lesson 6 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Create a timeline of the major events of the French and Indian War and its aftermath.

   ![Timeline](image)

   How long was the war? Why do you think it lasted so long?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Predict** What if the outcome of the French and Indian War had been different and France had won? How might this have affected the 13 colonies?

   **Think About:**
   - the actual outcome of the Treaty of Paris
   - France’s patterns of colonization
   - France’s relations with Native Americans

4. **Analyze Causes** How did the French and Indian War lead to tension between the colonists and the British government?

5. **Evaluate** If you had been a Native American living in the Northeast during the French and Indian War, would you have formed a military alliance with France or with Great Britain? Support your choice with reasons.
Module 2 Assessment

Key Terms and People
For each key term or person below, write a sentence explaining its connection to the emergence of the American colonies.
1. John Smith
2. indentured servant
3. John Winthrop
4. Metacom
5. Quaker
6. mercantilism
7. triangular trade
8. middle passage
9. Enlightenment
10. Proclamation of 1763

Main Ideas
Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

The English Settle Virginia
1. Explain how John Rolfe transformed the Virginia colony.
2. What conditions caused tension and warfare between settlers and Native Americans in Virginia?
3. What caused Bacon's Rebellion?

Colonial Settlement Continues
4. Describe the role of religion in the lives of Puritans living in the Massachusetts Bay Colony.
5. Why did New Netherland gain a reputation for diversity?
6. How did Pennsylvania reflect William Penn's Quaker ideals?

Relations with England
7. Where and when did the theory of mercantilism develop?
8. Why did Parliament pass the Navigation Acts?
9. How did the policy of salutary neglect benefit both England and its colonies?

Colonial Economies
10. Which social class came to control the economy as well as the political and social institutions of the South?
11. Why did large, single-crop plantations not develop in the North?
12. What parts of the world were involved in the triangular trade?

Life in the Colonies
13. Which ethnic groups besides the English began to settle in the South?
14. What factors contributed to the witchcraft hysteria in late 17th-century Salem?

The French and Indian War
15. How did the goals of the French colonists differ from those of the English colonists?
16. What problems were brought about for Britain by its victory in the French and Indian War?

Critical Thinking
1. Summarize Using a chart, summarize the way European settlers and Native Americans interacted in the listed regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New England</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Form Opinions John Winthrop dreamed that New England would be "like a City upon a Hill" in which "the eyes of all people are on us." In your opinion, what most impressed you positively and negatively about the founding of each North American colony?

3. Develop Historical Perspective How did immigration contribute to the ethnic diversity of the American colonies after 1700?

4. Analyze Effects How did the French and Indian War help inspire a sense of unity and shared identity among the colonists?
Module 2 Assessment, continued

5. **Compare and Contrast** Make a list of political, social, economic, religious, and geographic motives for English migration to the colonies in the 1600s. Then determine which motives drew settlers to each region: southern, middle, and New England. Which motives applied to only one region? Which motives applied to more than one region?

6. **Analyze Effects** How were colonial political rights affected by property ownership, religion, and legal status?

7. **Evaluate** Many Americans throughout history have believed that any American can eventually achieve material success if that person works hard for it. This belief is a big part of the idea known as “the American Dream.” Evaluate the extent to which the following colonists had the opportunity to attain the American Dream: men with European ancestry, women with European ancestry, Puritans, Quakers, African slaves, indentured servants. Write an essay summarizing your evaluation.

8. **Draw Conclusions** How did the use of indentured servants, immigrant labor, and African slaves contribute to economic development in the colonies?

9. **Synthesize** An entrepreneurial group organizes, operates, and assumes the risk for a business venture. How did the Virginia Company’s entrepreneurship contribute to economic development in Jamestown?

10. **Summarize** What were some of the consequences to Native American groups of loss of land and people?

11. **Compare and Contrast** Which cultural or social influences were shared by all three colonial regions? Which influences were unique to each region?

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**Engage with History**

In a small group, discuss whether or not equality and freedom have been achieved in the United States today. Prepare an oral or visual presentation comparing equality and freedom in the United States today with equality and freedom in the colonies in the early 1700s.

**Focus on Writing**

Research economic development in the three colonial regions using primary and secondary sources. A primary source is an eyewitness or firsthand account of history. A secondary source interprets or analyzes a primary source. Find sources and write a paragraph about each of the following:

- fishing in the early New England colonies
- trading furs in the early middle colonies
- growing tobacco in the early southern colonies

**Collaborative Learning**

Working in small groups, do library or Internet research to learn more about the history of one of the 13 colonies. Create an exhibit documenting the first 100 years of the colony’s development. Find images and write text to highlight key events and important people of the colony.