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Tough Choices About Social Security
Women in the Work Force
The Conservation Controversy

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- Strategies for Taking Standardized Tests
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The history of a nation is shaped as much by geography as by people and events. Paying attention to the following themes of geography can help you recognize when geographic forces are at work in the story of the United States.

LOCATION
Geographers speak of absolute location—the latitude and longitude of an area—and of relative location—where one area is in relation to another. In absolute terms, the city of San Francisco lies at 37°45' North latitude and 122°26' West longitude. This information allows you to pinpoint San Francisco on a map. In relative terms, San Francisco lies at the western edge of North America and looks out across the vast Pacific Ocean. This information helps explain San Francisco’s history as a port city where people and ideas have come together.

Critical Thinking
Locate your city or town on both a political and a physical map. How has location influenced the history of your city or town?

REGION
Geographers use the idea of region to show what places in close proximity to one another have in common. As a part of the Pacific Coast region, San Francisco shares with Seattle, Washington, and Portland, Oregon, a mild, rainy climate and an economic interest in international shipping. As a part of California, San Francisco shares economic and environmental concerns of the state as a whole.

Critical Thinking
To what region or regions does your area belong? How have the characteristics and concerns of your region changed over the last generation?

PLACE
Place, in geography, refers to what an area looks like in physical and human terms. An area’s landforms, soil, climate, and resources are aspects of place. So are the numbers and cultures of the population. San Francisco’s natural harbor has made the city an international port. It is connected to the American River—where gold was discovered in 1848. Its position along a major fault line has subjected it to periodic earthquakes, the most disastrous in 1906. During its history, San Francisco has attracted people from North America, Europe, Asia, and various Pacific islands, making its population one of the most diverse in the United States.

Critical Thinking
What is unique about the place where you live and the people who live there? What past events contributed to its uniqueness?

MOVEMENT
One place or region can influence another through the movement of people, materials, and even ideas. San Francisco has been the site of many important movements of people and cultures. It has been a port of entry for immigrants, many of them Asian. It also lies along the path that Spanish missionaries trod in their quest to convert native peoples.

Critical Thinking
When and by what groups was your area settled? What trends in movement today may shape the future of your area?

HUMAN-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION
Wherever people live, they affect the environment in the way they modify their natural surroundings. They build shelters and clear trees. They turn the earth inside out to extract its resources. People in the San Francisco Bay area have built bridges in order to move around more easily. People have also modified the bay itself, reducing its area by about one-third as they filled in tidelands for development.

Critical Thinking
How have people in your area modified their surroundings? What consequences might these modifications have?
Among the important themes in U.S. history are the promise of technology, the rights enjoyed by Americans, and the roles of women in the 21st century. As you study U.S. history, you will encounter these and other themes again and again. The Americans focuses on nine themes, described on these pages. What do you think are the important issues raised by each theme?

**DIVERSITY AND THE NATIONAL IDENTITY**

*E Pluribus Unum*—From the Many, One. Pick up a dollar bill and you’ll find this Latin motto on the Great Seal of the United States. From the first settlement, this has been a land of many peoples, cultures, and faiths. This mixing of ethnic, racial, and religious groups has produced a rich and uniquely American culture. It has also led to competition and conflict. Today, the United States is more diverse than ever, yet the nation’s motto remains *E Pluribus Unum.* (See Tracing Themes on page 466.)

**Critical Thinking**

How do you think America today is enriched by its diversity?

**AMERICA IN WORLD AFFAIRS**

From the earliest colonial times, the United States has been influenced by the events, people, and forms of government in other nations—and America has influenced world affairs. Today, relationships between the United States and other countries are more critical than ever, as modern communications and transportation have drawn the world closer together. As America continues to participate in world affairs, questions of trade, diplomacy, and regional conflict will grow in importance. (See Tracing Themes on page 610.)

**Critical Thinking**

What do you think America’s role in the world should be in the 21st century?

**ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY**

America has always been a land of economic opportunity. Blessed with fertile land and abundant resources, this has been a country where anyone who has worked hard has had a chance to prosper. Indeed, American history is full of heartening “rags-to-riches” success stories. Just as inspiring are the heroic struggles of women and minorities who fought to improve their economic prospects. As your generation enters the work force, you and your friends will have the opportunity to write your own success stories. (See Tracing Themes on page 634.)

**Critical Thinking**

What do you think are the most exciting economic opportunities for Americans today?

**SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

Americans have always had a deep respect for the power of science and technology to improve life. In the past two centuries, new inventions, new technologies, and scientific breakthroughs have transformed the United States—and continue to appear at a dizzying pace. Which ones will change your life? You can be sure that some will, and in ways that no one can yet predict. (See Tracing Themes on page 794.)

**Critical Thinking**

How do you think science and technology will change American life in the 21st century?

**WOMEN AND POLITICAL POWER**

More than half of all Americans are women, but only recently have their contributions and concerns found their way into history books. American women have helped shape the social and political history of every era. In their private roles as wives and mothers, they have strengthened families and raised America’s children. In their more public roles as workers, reformers, and crusaders for equal rights, they have attacked the nation’s worst social ills and challenged barriers to women’s full participation in American life. (See Tracing Themes on page 124.)

**Critical Thinking**

What do you think is the most important goal for American women today?
IMMIGRATION AND MIGRATION
Seeking a better life seems to be part of the American character. This nation was first established by and has remained a magnet for immigrants. One out of every ten people living in the United States today was born in another country. Moreover, every year one out of every six Americans moves to a new address. (See Tracing Themes on page 1094.)

Critical Thinking Why do you think people continue to have the dream of immigrating to the United States?

STATES’ RIGHTS
The power struggle between states and the federal government has caused controversy since the country’s beginning. In 1861 the conflict led to the Civil War, in which Southern states acted upon the belief that they had the right to nullify acts of the federal government and even to leave the Union if they chose to do so. Throughout the history of this country, state and federal governments have squared off on this and other constitutional issues. (See Tracing Themes on page 322.)

Critical Thinking When do you think a state has the right to challenge a federal law?

VOTING RIGHTS
When Americans first began their experiment with democracy, only white men with property could vote or hold office. Over the past two centuries, women, African Americans, and other groups have fought for and won the right to vote and participate in government. Today the challenge is getting people to exercise the right to vote. In 2000, only 50.7 percent of eligible voters cast ballots in the presidential election. (See Tracing Themes on page 174.)

Critical Thinking What do you think can be done to bring more Americans into the democratic process?

CIVIL RIGHTS
The American system of government is based on a simple but revolutionary idea: Every citizen has certain rights and liberties. Among them are the right to participate in government and to exercise such liberties as freedom of speech and worship. Deciding who should have what rights, how these rights should be exercised, and how to protect a person’s civil rights is anything but easy. Defining and protecting our civil rights is not likely to get any easier. (See Tracing Themes on page 930.)

Critical Thinking What issue of civil rights do you think is most critical in the United States today?
Letter to the Editor

As you read Unit 1, look for an issue that interests you, such as the effect of colonization on Native Americans or the rights of American colonists. Write a letter to the editor in which you explain your views. Your letter should include reasons and facts.

The Landing of the Pilgrims, by Samuel Bartoli (1825)
Essential Question
How did their convergence affect the cultures of North America, Africa, and Europe?

What You Will Learn
In this chapter you will examine the native cultures of North America, Africa, and Europe.

SECTION 1: Peopling the Americas
Main Idea: In ancient times, migrating peoples settled the Americas, where their descendants developed complex societies.

SECTION 2: North American Societies
Around 1492
Main Idea: The varied landscapes of North America encouraged the diversity of Native American cultures.

SECTION 3: West African Societies
Around 1492
Main Idea: West Africa in the 1400s was home to a variety of peoples and cultures.

SECTION 4: European Societies
Around 1492
Main Idea: Political, economic, and intellectual developments in western Europe in the 1400s led to the Age of Exploration.

SECTION 5: Transatlantic Encounters
Main Idea: Columbus’s voyages set off a chain of events that brought together the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas.

Native Americans watch for the arrival of a European ship.

Essential Question: How did their convergence affect the cultures of North America, Africa, and Europe?

Chapter 1
Mexico’s Ancient Civilizations

1492
Christopher Columbus first reaches America.

Iroquois League is formed.

1096
The Crusades begin.

1000
Viking Leif Ericson reaches what is now Newfoundland.

1440
Johann Gutenberg develops printing press.

1434
Portuguese begin West African slave trade.

You live on a Caribbean island in the 15th century. Your society hunts game freely, grows crops of great variety, and trades actively with nearby cultures. Now you sense that your world is about to change; the ships you see approaching are like nothing you have encountered before.

Explore the Issues

- How would you react to a people whose appearance and language are unlike anything you have ever known?
- What can happen when one culture imposes its values on another?
Peopling the Americas

MAIN IDEA
In ancient times, migrating peoples settled the Americas, where their descendants developed complex societies.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
Patterns of immigration have always shaped and continue to shape American history.

Terms & Names
- nomadic
- Olmec
- Maya
- Aztec
- Inca
- Hohokam
- Anasazi
- Adena
- Hopewell
- Mississippian

Thomas Canby, a writer for National Geographic magazine, spent a year with archaeologists as they searched for clues about the earliest Americans. As Canby watched the archaeologists unearthing fragile artifacts, a long-lost world came into sharper focus.

“A PERSONAL VOICE” THOMAS CANBY

“What a wild world it was! To see it properly, we must board a time machine and travel back into the Ice Age. The northern half of North America has vanished, buried beneath ice sheets two miles thick. Stretching south to Kentucky, they buckle earth’s crust with their weight. . . . Animals grow oversize. . . . Elephant-eating jaguars stand as tall as lions, beavers grow as big as bears, South American sloths as tall as giraffes. With arctic cold pushing so far southward, walrus bask on Virginia beaches, and musk-oxen graze from Maryland to California.”

—“The Search for the First Americans,” National Geographic, Sept. 1979

This was the world of the first Americans—people who migrated to the Americas from another continent. Centuries later, a different kind of immigration to the Americas would bring together people from three complex societies: the Native American, the European, and the West African. The interaction of these three cultures helped create the present-day culture of the United States. However, it is with the ancient peoples of the Americas that the story of America actually begins.

Ancient Peoples Come to the Americas

The first Americans may have arrived as early as 22,000 years ago. Ice Age glaciers had frozen vast quantities of the earth’s water, lowering sea levels enough to expose a land bridge between Asia and Alaska. Ancient hunters trekked across the frozen land, now called Beringia, into North America.
HUNTING AND GATHERING  Experts suspect that most of these ancient explorers came by foot. Some groups may have edged down the Pacific coast in boats fashioned from the bones and hides of animals—boats that are much like the kayaks used by modern-day Inuit.

The evidence suggests that the earliest Americans were big-game hunters. Their most challenging and rewarding prey was the woolly mammoth, which provided food, clothing, and bones for making shelters and tools.

As the Ice Age ended around 12,000 to 10,000 years ago, this hunting way of life also ended. Temperatures warmed, glaciers melted, and sea levels rose once again. Travel to the Americas by foot ceased as the ancient land bridge disappeared below the Bering Sea.

Over time, people switched to hunting smaller game, fishing, and gathering nuts, berries, and fruit along with grains, beans, and squash. While many ancient groups established settlements in North America, others continued south through what is now Mexico into South America. Wherever they went, the first Americans developed ways of life to suit their surroundings.

AGRICULTURE DEVELOPS  Between 10,000 and 5,000 years ago, a revolution quietly took place in what is now central Mexico. There, people began to plant crops. Some archaeologists believe that maize (corn) was the first plant that ancient Americans developed for human use. Other plants followed—gourds, pumpkins, peppers, beans, and more. Eventually, agricultural techniques spread throughout the Americas.

The introduction of agriculture brought tremendous change. Agriculture made it possible for people to remain in one place and to store surplus food. As their surplus increased, people had more time to develop other skills. From this agricultural base evolved larger, more stable societies and increasingly complex cultures. However, some Native American cultures never adopted agriculture and remained nomadic, moving from place to place in search of food and water, while others mixed nomadic and non-nomadic lifestyles.

Complex Societies Flourish in the Americas

Around 3,000 years ago, the first Americans began to form larger communities and build flourishing civilizations. A closer look at the more prominent of these societies reveals the diversity and complexity of the early American world.

Today, Alaska and Siberia are separated by the Bering Strait, a strip of sea only 55 miles wide. During the last Ice Age, glaciers moved south from the North Pole, freezing up the waters of the Bering Sea and exposing more land. This formed the Beringia land bridge, over which the earliest Americans probably migrated from Asia.
EMPIRES OF MIDDLE AND SOUTH AMERICA

Archaeologists believe that the first empire of the Americas emerged as early as 1200 B.C. in what is now southern Mexico. There the Olmec peoples created a thriving civilization in the humid rain forest along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Other civilizations appeared in the wake of the Olmec’s mysterious collapse around 400 B.C. These included the Maya, who built a dynamic culture in Guatemala and the Yucatán Peninsula between A.D. 250 and 900, and the Aztec, who swept into the Valley of Mexico in the 1200s.

In South America the most prominent of these empire builders were the Inca, who around A.D. 1200 created a glittering empire that stretched nearly 2,500 miles along the mountainous western coast of South America.
These empires’ achievements rivaled those of ancient cultures in other parts of the world. The peoples of these American empires built great cities and ceremonial centers, some with huge palaces, temple-topped pyramids, and central plazas. To record their histories, some of these civilizations invented forms of glyph writing—using symbols or images to express words and ideas.

ANCIENT DESERT FARMERS As early as 3,000 years ago, several North American groups, including the Hohokam and the Anasazi, introduced crops into the arid deserts of the Southwest. Later, between 300 B.C. and A.D. 1400, each group established its own civilization. The Hohokam settled in the valleys of the Salt and Gila rivers in what is now central Arizona. The Anasazi took to the mesa tops, cliff sides, and canyon bottoms of the Four Corners region—an area where the present-day states of Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico meet.

MOUND BUILDERS To the east of the Mississippi River, in a region extending from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, another series of complex societies developed. There the Adena, the Hopewell, and the Mississippian societies excelled at trade and at building. Some Adena and Hopewell structures consisted of huge burial mounds filled with finely crafted objects. Other mounds were sculpted into effigies, or likenesses, of animals so large that they can be seen clearly only from the air. People of the Mississippian culture constructed gigantic pyramidal mounds.

Although societies such as the Mississippian and the Aztec still flourished when Christopher Columbus reached American shores in 1492, others had long since disappeared. Despite their fate, these early peoples were the ancestors of the many Native American groups that inhabited North America on the eve of its encounter with the European world.
One American’s Story

Essie Parrish, a Native American storyteller and medicine woman, kept alive stories from a time when her people, the Kashaya Pomo, flourished along the northern California coast. She invited Robert Oswalt, an anthropologist, to time-travel with her to the 1540s. As Parrish spoke, the centuries rolled back.

**A Personal Voice Essie Parrish**

“...in the old days, before the white people came up here, there was a boat sailing on the ocean from the south. Because before that . . . [the Kashaya Pomo] had never seen a boat, they said, ‘Our world must be coming to an end. Couldn’t we do something? This big bird floating on the ocean is from somewhere, probably from up high. . . .’ [T]hey promised Our Father [a feast] saying that destruction was upon them. When they had done so, they watched [the ship] sail way up north and disappear. . . . They were saying that nothing had happened to them—the big bird person had sailed northward without doing anything—because of the promise of a feast. . . . Consequently they held a feast and a big dance.”

—quoted in *Kashaya Texts*

Dressed for a ceremony in the 1950s, spiritual leader Essie Parrish wears a feathered headdress and holds two bead-covered staffs.

The event became part of the Kashaya Pomo’s oral history. Stories like this have provided us with a broad picture of the Native American world before it came into contact with the world of European explorers and settlers.

Native Americans Live in Diverse Societies

The native groups of North America were as diverse as the environments in which they lived. The North American continent provided for many different ways of life, from nomadic to the kind of fixed, nonmigratory life of farming communities.
CALIFORNIA Not one land, but many lands—that’s how the Kashaya Pomo and other native peoples regarded the region that is now California. The land has a long coastline, a lush northwestern rain forest, and a parched southern desert.

The peoples of California adapted to these diverse settings. The Kashaya Pomo hunted waterfowl with slingshots and nets. To the north, the Yurok and Hupa searched the forests for acorns and fished in mountain streams.

NORTHWEST COAST The waterways and forests of the northwest coast sustained large communities year-round. The sea was of prime importance. On a coastline that stretched from what is now southern Alaska to northern California, peoples such as the Kwakiutl (kwä’kē-out’l), Nootka, and Haida collected shellfish from the beaches and hunted the ocean for whales, sea otters, and seals.

Peoples such as the Kwakiutl decorated masks and boats with magnificent totems, symbols of the ancestral spirits that guided each family. Kwakiutl families also displayed their histories on huge totem poles set in front of their cedar-plank houses. A family’s totems announced its wealth and status.

Leading Kwakiutl families also organized potlatches, elaborate ceremonies in which they gave away large quantities of their possessions. A family’s reputation depended upon the size of its potlatch—that is, on how much wealth it gave away. A family might spend up to 12 years planning the event.

SOUTHWEST In the dry Southwest, the Pima and Pueblo tribes, descendants of the Hohokam and Anasazi, lived in a harsh environment. By 1300, the Pueblo and a related tribe, the Hopi, had left the cliff houses of their Anasazi ancestors. The Pueblo built new settlements near waterways such as the Rio Grande, where they could irrigate their farms. However, the Hopi and the Acoma continued to live near the cliffs and developed irrigation systems.

People lived in multistory houses made of adobe or stone and grew corn, beans, melons, and squash. Like their ancestors, they built underground kivas, or ceremonial chambers, for religious ceremonies and councils.

Vocabulary

adobe: a sun-dried brick of clay and straw
The lyrics to the ritual songs they sang may have resembled the ones recalled by a Hopi chief named Lololomai at the start of the 1900s. “This is the song of the men from my kiva,” Lololomai explained. “It tells how in my kiva the chief and his men are praying to make the corn to grow next year for all the people.”

**A Personal Voice**  
**LOLOLOMAI**

“Thus we, thus we
The night along,
With happy hearts
Wish well one another.

In the chief’s kiva
They, the fathers . . .
Plant the double ear—
Plant the perfect double corn-ear.
So the fields shall shine
With tassels white of perfect corn-ears.

Hither to them, hither come,
Rain that stands and cloud that rushes!”

—quoted in *The Indians’ Book*

**EASTERN WOODLANDS** The landscape of the Southwest contrasted sharply with the woodlands east of the Mississippi River. Here, hardwood forests stretched from the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River in the north to the Gulf of Mexico in the south.

The tribes that lived in the Eastern Woodlands had much in common. Native peoples like the **Iroquois** built villages in forest clearings and blended agriculture with hunting and gathering. They traveled by foot or by canoe. Because of the vast supply of trees, most groups used woodworking tools to craft everything from snowshoes to canoes.

The peoples of the Eastern Woodlands also differed from one another in their languages, customs, and environments. In the Northeast, where winters could be long and harsh, people relied on wild animals for clothing and food. In the warmer Southeast, groups grew such crops as corn, squash, and beans.

**Native Americans Share Cultural Patterns**

Although no two Native American societies were alike, many did share certain cultural traits. Patterns of trade, attitudes toward land use, and certain religious beliefs and social values were common to many cultures.

**Trading Networks** Trade was one of the biggest factors in bringing Native American peoples into contact with one another. As tribes established permanent settlements, many of these settlements became well known for specific products or skills. The Nootka of the Northwest Coast mastered whaling. The Ojibwa of the upper Great Lakes collected wild rice. The Taos of the Southwest made pottery. These items, and many more, were traded both locally and long-distance.

An elaborate transcontinental trading network enabled one group to trade with another without direct contact. Traders passed along items from far-off, unfamiliar places. Intermediaries carried goods hundreds and sometimes thousands of miles from their source. So extensive was the network of forest trails and river roads that an English sailor named David Ingram claimed in 1568 to have walked along Native American trade routes all the way from Mexico to the Atlantic Coast.
North American Cultures in the 1400s

Native American Trade

Before the arrival of Columbus, the trade routes of North America allowed goods to travel across the continent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group and Region</th>
<th>Goods Traded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algonquin of the Eastern Woodlands</td>
<td>colored feathers, copper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apaches of the Plains</td>
<td>meat, hides, salt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navajo of the Southwest</td>
<td>pottery, blankets, crops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwakiutl of the Northwest Coast</td>
<td>fish oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ute of the Great Basin</td>
<td>hides, buffalo robes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choctaw of the Southeast</td>
<td>deerskins, bear oil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER

1. **Region** What does this map reveal about North America in the 1400s?
2. **Location** Why do you think some regions had more trade routes than others?

Tepees could be quickly dismantled and were well suited to the nomadic lifestyle of the Plains.

Pueblos, built of sun-dried brick, or adobe, were characteristic dwellings of the Southwest.

Three Worlds Meet 11
LAND USE  Native Americans traded many things, but land was not one of them. They regarded the land as the source of life, not as a commodity to be sold. “We cannot sell the lives of men and animals,” said one Blackfoot chief in the 1800s, “therefore we cannot sell this land.” This attitude would lead to many clashes with the Europeans, who believed in private ownership of land.

Native Americans disturbed the land only for the most important activities, such as food gathering or farming. A female shaman, or priestess, from the Wintu of California expressed this age-old respect for the land as she spoke to anthropologist Dorothy Lee.

**A Personal Voice  WINTU WOMAN**

“... When we dig roots, we make little holes. When we build houses, we make little holes... We shake down acorns and pinenuts. We don’t chop down the trees. We only use dead wood [for fires].... But the white people plow up the ground, pull down the trees, [and... the] tree says, ‘Don’t. I am sore. Don’t hurt me.’”

—quoted in *Freedom and Culture*

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS  Nearly all Native Americans thought of the natural world as filled with spirits. Past generations remained alive to guide the living. Every object—both living and non-living—possessed a voice that might be heard if one listened closely. “I hear what the ground says,” remarked Young Chief of the Cayuses, who lived in what is now Washington and Oregon, in 1855. “The ground says, ‘It is the Great Spirit that placed me here.’ The Great Spirit tells me to take care of the Indians. ...” Some cultures believed in one supreme being, known as “Great Spirit,” “Great Mystery,” “the Creative Power,” or “the Creator.”

Vocabulary
commodity: an article of trade or commerce

John White, one of the first English colonists to arrive in North America, made several drawings of Native American life in the Chesapeake region in 1585. The engraving shown here was copied from White’s original drawing and published in 1590. The image shows the village life of the Secotan people, who lived near Roanoke Island, North Carolina.

**Agriculture**

A Secotan guards the ripened corn crop to keep away hungry birds and animals. A tobacco field appears to the left of this field, and other corn fields and a pumpkin patch appear below it.

**Hunting**

Men hunt for deer.

**The Home**

Huts, whose sides can be rolled up for ventilation, are woven from thick plant stems.

**Social Life**

Villagers prepare for a community feast. The fire for this feast appears up the path in the heart of the village.

**Religion**

Residents dance around a circle of idols in a religious ceremony. Across the main path lies a prayer circle with fire.

**SKILLBUILDER  Analyzing Primary Sources**

1. What Native American work activities are shown in this drawing?
2. Based on the drawing, what appear to be two significant daily concerns of the Secotan?
SOCIAL ORGANIZATION  Bonds of kinship, or strong ties among family members, ensured the continuation of tribal customs. Elders instructed the young. In exchange, the young honored the elders and their departed ancestors.

The tasks assigned to men and women varied with each society. Among the Iroquois and Hopi, for example, women owned the household items, and families traced their ancestry from mother to grandmother to great-grandmother, and so on. In other Native American cultures, men owned the family possessions and traced their ancestry through their father’s kin.

The division of labor—the assignment of tasks according to gender, age, or status—formed the basis of social order. Among the Kwakiutl, for example, slaves performed the most menial jobs, while nobles ensured that Kwakiutl law was obeyed.

The basic unit of organization among all Native American groups was the family, which included aunts, uncles, cousins, and other relatives. Some tribes further organized the families into clans, or groups of families descended from a common ancestor. Among the Iroquois, for example, members of a clan often lived together in huge bark-covered longhouses. All families participated in community decision-making.

Not all Native American groups lived together for long periods of time. In societies in which people hunted and gathered, groups broke into smaller bands for hunting. On the plains, for example, families searched the grasslands for buffalo. Groups like these reunited only to celebrate important occasions.

In the late 1400s, on the eve of the encounter with the Europeans, the rhythms of Native American life were well-established. No one could have imagined the changes that were about to transform the Native American societies.

MAIN IDEA

Comparing
What similarities and differences existed among Native American social structures?

ASSESSMENT

1. TERMS & NAMES  For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- Kashaya Pomo
- Kwakiutl
- Pueblo
- Iroquois
- kinship
- division of labor

2. TAKING NOTES
Copy an outline of North America like the one below. Then shade in the areas belonging to each of the following Native American cultures: Northwest Coast, Southwest, and Eastern Woodlands. Describe how each society adapted to its environment.

CRITICAL THINKING

3. COMPARING
In your opinion, were the differences between Native American groups greater than their similarities? Cite specific examples to support your answer. Think About:
- adaptation to physical settings
- the role of tradition
- the variety of goods and languages encountered in trading

4. SYNTHESIZING
Describe the relationship between the individual and his or her social group in Native American society. Use details from the text to support your description.

5. HYPOTHESIZING
Why did Native American societies not wish to buy and sell land?
West African Societies
Around 1492

Leo Africanus was about 18 when he laid eyes on the renowned city of Timbuktu in the West African empire of Songhai. A Muslim born in Granada (in modern Spain) and raised in North Africa, Leo Africanus visited the city with his uncle, who was on a diplomatic mission to the emperor of Songhai. At the time of their journey in 1513, Songhai was one of the largest kingdoms in the world, and the emperor, Askia Muhammad, was rich and powerful. Leo Africanus later described the bustling prosperity of Timbuktu and its lively intellectual climate.

A PERSONAL VOICE  LEO AFRICANUS

“Here are many shops of . . . merchants, and especially such as weave linen and cotton cloth. And hither do the Barbary [North African] merchants bring cloth of Europe. . . . Here are great store of doctors, judges, priests, and other learned men, that are bountifully maintained at the king’s cost and charges, and hither are brought divers manuscripts or written books out of Barbary, which are sold for more money than any other merchandise.”

—The History and Description of Africa Done Into English by John Pory

Leo Africanus provides a glimpse of 16th-century West African life. From this region of Africa, and particularly from the West and West-Central coastal areas, would come millions of people brought to the Americas as slaves. These people would have a tremendous impact on American history and culture.

West Africa Connects with the Wider World

Although geographically isolated from Europe and Asia, West Africa by the 1400s had long been connected to the wider world through trade. For centuries, trade had brought into the region new goods, new ideas, and new beliefs, including those of the Islamic religion. Then, in the mid-1400s, the level of interaction with the world increased with the arrival of European traders on the West African coast.
THE SAHARA HIGHWAY  The Timbuktu that Leo Africanus described was the hub of a well-established trading network that connected most of West Africa to the coastal ports of North Africa, and through these ports to markets in Europe and Asia. Leo Africanus and his uncle reached Timbuktu by following ancient trade routes across the Sahara desert. At the crossroads of this trade, cities such as Timbuktu, Gao, and Jenne became busy commercial centers. The empires that controlled these cities and trade routes grew wealthy and powerful.

Traders from North Africa brought more than goods across the Sahara—they also brought their Islamic faith. Islam, founded in Arabia in 622 by Muhammad, spread quickly across the Middle East and North Africa. By the 1200s, Islam had become the court religion of the large empire of Mali, and it was later embraced by the rulers of Songhai, including Askia Muhammad. Despite its official status, however, Islam did not yet have much influence over the daily lives and religious practices of most West Africans in the late 1400s.

THE PORTUGUESE ARRIVE  The peoples of West Africa and Europe knew little of each other before the 1400s. This situation began to change as Portuguese mariners made trading contacts along the West African coast. By the 1470s, Portuguese traders had established an outpost on the West African coast near the large Akan goldfields, the source of much West African gold. Other trading outposts soon

**MAIN IDEA**

Making Inferences
A Why would trade have helped spread the Islamic faith?

**ISLAM**

Like Judaism and Christianity, Islam is monotheistic, or based on the belief in one God. Islam was founded by Muhammad (about A.D. 570–632), who believed the angel Gabriel appeared to him and told him to preach a new religion to the Arabs. This religion became known as Islam, which in Arabic means “surrender” [to Allah]. (Allah is the Arabic name for God.) The followers of Islam are called Muslims, “those who submit to God’s will.”

The words that Muhammad claimed he had received from God were recorded in the Qur’an, the holy book of Islam.

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**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER**

1. **Human-Environment Interaction**
   - What are the three climate zones of West Africa?

2. **Location**
   - How did Songhai’s location aid the growth of that kingdom?
followed. These early contacts between West Africans and Portuguese traders would have two significant consequences for West Africa and the Americas. First, direct trade between the Portuguese and the coastal peoples of West Africa bypassed the old trade routes across the Sahara and pulled the coastal region into a closer relationship with Europe. Second, the Portuguese began the European trade in West African slaves.

In the 1480s the Portuguese claimed two uninhabited islands off the African coast, Príncipe and São Tomé. Discovering that the soil and climate were perfect for growing sugar cane, they established large sugar plantations there. A plantation is a farm on which a single crop, usually one that requires much human labor, is grown on a large scale. To work these plantations, the Portuguese began importing slaves from the West African mainland.

At first this trade was limited to a small number of West Africans purchased from village chiefs, usually captives from rival groups. However, the success of the Portuguese slave plantations provided a model that would be reproduced on a larger scale in the Americas—including the British North American colonies.

**Three African Kingdoms Flourish**

In the late 1400s, western Africa was a land of thriving trade, diverse cultures, and many rich and well-ordered states.

**SONGhai** From about 600 to 1600, a succession of empires—first Ghana, then Mali, and beginning in the mid-1400s, Songhai (sông’hi’)—gained power and wealth by controlling the trans-Sahara trade. The rulers of these empires grew enormously rich by taxing the goods that passed through their realms.

With wealth flowing in from the north-south trade routes, the rulers of Songhai could raise large armies and conquer new territory. They could also build cities, administer laws, and support the arts and education. So it was with two great rulers of the Songhai. The first great king, Sunni Ali, who ruled from 1464 to 1492, made Songhai the largest West African empire in history. His military prowess became legendary—during his entire reign, he never lost a battle.
Another great ruler, Askia Muhammad, was a master organizer, a devout Muslim, and a scholar. He organized Songhai into administrative districts and appointed officials to govern, collect taxes, and regulate trade, agriculture, and fishing. Under his rule, Timbuktu regained its reputation as an important education center as it attracted scholars from all over the Islamic world.

At its height in the 1500s, Songhai's power extended across much of West Africa. However, it did not control the forest kingdoms. Songhai's cavalry might easily thunder across the savanna, the region of dry grassland, but it could not penetrate the belt of dense rain forest along the southern coast. Protected by the forest, peoples such as the Akan, Ibo, Edo, Ifi, Oyo, and Yoruba lived in kingdoms that thrived in the 1400s and 1500s.

**BENIN** Although the forests provided protection from conquest, they nevertheless allowed access for trade. Traders carried goods out of the forests or paddled them along the Niger River to the savanna. The brisk trade with Songhai and North Africa, and later with Portugal, helped the forest kingdoms grow. In the 1400s one of these kingdoms, Benin, dominated a large region around the Niger Delta. Leading the expansion was a powerful oba (ruler) named Ewuare. Stories that have been passed down to the present day recall Ewuare's triumphs in the mid-1400s.

**A PERSONAL VOICE** **CHIEF JACOB EGHAREVBA**

“...He fought against and captured 201 towns and villages. . . . He took their rulers captive and he caused the people to pay tribute to him. He made good roads in Benin City. . . . In fact the town rose to importance and gained the name of city during his reign. It was he who had the innermost and greatest of the walls and ditches made round the city, and he also made powerful charms and had them buried at each of the nine gateways of the city so as to ward against any evil.”

—A Short History of Benin

Within this great walled city, Ewuare headed a highly organized government in which districts were governed by appointed chiefs. Through other appointed officials, the oba controlled trade and managed the metal-working industries such as goldsmithing and brass-smithing. He also exchanged ambassadors with Portugal in the late 1400s. Under the patronage of Ewuare and his successors, metalworkers produced stunning and sophisticated works of art, such as bronze sculptures and plaques.

**KONGO** Within another stretch of rain forest, in West Central Africa, the powerful kingdom of Kongo arose on the lower Zaire (Congo) River. In the late 1400s, Kongo consisted of a series of small kingdoms ruled by a single leader called the Manikongo, who lived in what is today Angola. The Manikongo, who could be either a man or a woman, held kingdoms together by a system of royal marriages, taxes, and, when necessary, by war and tribute. By the 1470s, the Manikongo oversaw an empire estimated at over 4 million people.

The Bakongo, the people of Kongo, mined iron ore and produced well-wrought tools and weapons. They also wove palm leaf threads into fabric that reminded Europeans of velvet. The Portuguese sailors who first reached Kongo in 1483 were struck by the similarities between Kongo and their own world. Its system of government—a collection of provinces centralized under one strong king—resembled that of many European nations at the time.
West African Culture

In the late 1400s the world of most West Africans was a local one. Most people lived in small villages, where life revolved around family, the community, and tradition. West African customs varied greatly but followed some common patterns. These patterns would influence the future interactions between Africans and Europeans and shape the experience of enslaved Africans in the Americas.

FAMILY AND GOVERNMENT Bonds of kinship—ties among people of the same lineage, or line of common descent—formed the basis of most aspects of life in rural West Africa. Some societies, such as the Akan, were matrilineal—that is, people traced their lineage through their mother’s family. These lineage ties determined not only family loyalties but also inheritances and whom people could marry. Societies such as the Ibo also encouraged people to find a mate outside their lineage groups. These customs helped create a complex web of family alliances.

Within a family, age carried rank. The oldest living descendant of the group’s common ancestor controlled family members and represented them in councils of the larger groups to which a family might belong. These larger groups shared a common language and history and often a common territory. One leader or chief might speak for the group as a whole. But this person rarely spoke without consulting a council of elders made up of the heads of individual extended families.

RELIGION Religion was important in all aspects of African life. Political leaders claimed authority on the basis of religion. For example, the ruler of the Ife kingdom claimed descent from the first person placed on earth by the “God of the Sky.” Religious rituals were also central to the daily activities of farmers, hunters, and fishers.

West Africans believed that nature was filled with spirits and perceived spiritual forces in both living and non-living objects. They also believed that the spirits of ancestors spoke to the village elders in dreams. Although West African peoples might worship a variety of ancestral spirits and lesser gods, most believed in a single creator. The Bakongo, for example, believed in Nzambi ampungu, a term that means the “creator of all things,” and so understood the Christian or Muslim belief in a supreme god. However, the Bakongo and other cultures could not

Against the backdrop of centuries-old cliff dwellings built by their ancestors, modern-day Dogon elders in Mali carry out an ancient religious ritual. © 1993 Chester Higgins, Jr.
understand the Christian and Muslim insistence that West Africans stop worshipping spirits, who were believed to carry out the Creator’s work. Out of this difference grew many cultural conflicts.

**LIVELIHOOD** Throughout West Africa, people supported themselves by age-old methods of farming, herding, hunting, and fishing, and by mining and trading. Almost all groups believed in collective ownership of land. Individuals might farm the land, but it reverted to family or village ownership when not in use.

People on the dry savanna depended on rivers, such as the Niger, to nourish their crops and livestock. On the western coast, along the Senegal and Gambia rivers, farmers converted tangled mangrove swamps into rice fields. This grain—and the skills for growing it—would accompany West Africans to the Americas.

**USE OF SLAVE LABOR** West Africans divided tasks by age and by social status. At the lowest rung in some societies were slaves. However, in Africa, people were not born into slavery, nor did slavery necessarily mean a lifetime of servitude. In Africa, slaves could escape their bondage in a number of ways. Sometimes they were adopted into or they married into the family they served. This was a very different kind of servitude from that which evolved in the Americas, where slavery continued from generation to generation and was based on race.

While slavery eventually came to dominate the interaction between Africans and Europeans, it was not the primary concern of the Portuguese sailors who first explored the African coast. At this time, in the late 1400s, a variety of political, social, and economic changes in Europe spurred rulers and adventurers to push outward into unexplored reaches of the ocean.

**MAIN IDEA**

**Developing Historical Perspective**

What agricultural skills did West Africans bring to the Americas?

**KENTE CLOTH**

Today people of African descent all over the world value as a symbol of Africa the multicolored fabric known as kente cloth. For African Americans who choose to wear kente cloth or display it in their homes, the fabric serves as a tangible link to West African cultures from which their ancestors came. Artisans of the Asante (Ashanti) people of modern Ghana have woven kente cloth for centuries. Working at looms, they produce long strips of cloth of complex designs and varying colors. These strips are then sewn together into a brilliant fabric that sparkles with reds, greens, blues, golds, and whatever other hues the weavers chose as dyes.

**MAIN IDEA**

**2. TAKING NOTES**

Make an outline using the main topics shown below, and fill it in with factual details related to each topic.

- West Africa’s Climate Zones
- West Africa’s Major Geographical Features
- Three West African Kingdoms and Their Climate Zones

**CRITICAL THINKING**

**3. ANALYZING CAUSES**

What factors helped the trade system flourish in West Africa? Use evidence from the text to support your response. **Think About:**
- the geography of the region
- the kinds of goods exchanged
- the societies that emerged in West Africa

**4. ANALYZING EFFECTS**

What effects did Portuguese trade routes have on West Africa?

**5. CONTRASTING**

How did West African slavery differ from the kind of slavery that developed in the Americas?
European Societies Around 1492

### MAIN IDEA
Political, economic, and intellectual developments in western Europe in the 1400s led to the Age of Exploration.

### WHY IT MATTERS NOW
European settlement in the Americas led to the founding of the United States.

### Terms & Names
- Prince Henry
- Renaissance
- hierarchy
- nuclear family
- Crusades
- Reformation

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### One European’s Story

During the early decades of the 15th century, **Prince Henry** of Portugal, often called “Henry the Navigator,” sent Portuguese ships to explore the west coast of Africa. According to his biographer, Prince Henry's driving motivation was the need to know.

**A PERSONAL VOICE GOMES EANES DE ZURARA**

“...The noble spirit of this Prince ... was ever urging him both to begin and to carry out very great deeds. For which reason ... he had also a wish to know the land that lay beyond the isles of Canary and that Cape called Bojador, for that up to his time, neither by writings, nor by the memory of man, was known with any certainty the nature of the land beyond that Cape. ... It seemed to him that if he or some other lord did not endeavor to gain that knowledge, no mariners or merchants would ever dare to attempt it. ...”

—The Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea

Prince Henry’s curiosity was typical of the “noble spirit” of the Renaissance, (rēn’y-säns’) a period when Europeans began investigating all aspects of the physical world. The term Renaissance means “rebirth” of the kind of interest in the physical world that had characterized ancient Greece and Rome. With his burning desire for knowledge, Prince Henry helped launch the era of European expansion.

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### The European Social Order

In the late 1400s, most Europeans, like most Native Americans and most Africans, lived in small villages, bound to the land and to ancient traditions.

**THE SOCIAL HIERARCHY** European communities were based on social hierarchy, that is, they were organized according to rank. Monarchs and nobles held most of the wealth and power at the top of the hierarchy. At the bottom labored the peasants, who constituted the majority of the people. The nobility offered
their peasants land and protection. In return, the peasants supplied the nobles with livestock or crops—and sometimes with military service.

Within the social structure, few individuals moved beyond the position into which they were born. Europeans generally accepted their lot as part of a larger order ordained by God and reflected in the natural world. Writing in the late 1500s, William Shakespeare expressed the fixed nature of this order in one of his plays.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE**

“The heavens themselves, the planets, and this center [earth]
Observe degree, priority, and place . . .
Take but degree away, untune that string,
And hark! what discord follows . . .”

—*Troilus and Cressida*

One group that did experience social mobility was composed of artisans and merchants, the people who created and traded goods for money. Although this group was relatively small in the 1400s, the profit they earned from trade would eventually make them a valuable source of tax revenue. Monarchs needed them to finance costly overseas exploration and expansion.

**THE FAMILY IN SOCIETY** While Europeans recognized and respected kinship ties, the extended family was not as important for them as it was for Native American and African societies at this time. Instead, life centered around the **nuclear family**, the household made up of a mother and father and their children. As in other societies, gender largely determined the division of labor. Among peasant families, for example, men generally did most of the field labor and herded livestock. Women did help in the fields, but they also handled child care and household labor, such as preparing and preserving the family’s food.

**JUNE, FROM LES TRÈS RICHES HEURES DU DUC DE BERRY**

This miniature painting, representing the month of June, is a page from a prayer book calendar made by the Limbourg brothers around the year 1416. The book, made for a younger son of the French king, tells us a great deal about the aristocratic view of the European social order.

In the background, the walls of the city of Paris protect a palace and the royal chapel, buildings that represent the two most powerful institutions in medieval European society: church and aristocracy.

In the foreground, peasants mow the fields in an orderly world of peace and tranquility. However, the image is a fantasy, an idealized vision painted to please the aristocracy. There is no hint of the peasants’ grinding poverty or of the violence of the Hundred Years’ War that was at that moment devastating northern France.

**SKILLBUILDER  Interpreting Visual Sources**

1. What does the painting tell you about the importance of gender in the division of labor during the 1400s?
2. Why might images of poverty have displeased the aristocracy?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R22.
Christianity Shapes the European Outlook

The Roman Catholic Church was the dominant religious institution in western Europe. The leader of the church—the pope—and his bishops had great political and spiritual authority. In the spiritual realm, church leaders determined most matters of faith. Parish priests interpreted the scriptures and urged the faithful to endure earthly sufferings in exchange for the promise of eternal life in heaven, or salvation. Priests also administered important rituals called the sacraments—such as baptism and communion—that were thought to ensure salvation.

Hand in hand with the belief in salvation was the call to convert people of other faiths. This missionary call spurred Europe to reach out beyond its borders first to defend, and then to spread, the faith.

CRUSADING CHRISTIANITY By the early 700s, Muslim armies had seized huge areas of Asia and North Africa, along with most of the Iberian Peninsula, where Spain and Portugal sit. To regain this territory, Spanish Christians waged a campaign called the reconquista, or reconquest. By 1492, the forces of the combined kingdoms of Queen Isabella of Castile and King Ferdinand of Aragon, who married in 1469, finally drove the Muslims from the peninsula. This victory ended more than seven centuries of religious warfare. A united Spain stood ready to assert itself internationally and to spread Christianity around the globe.

Meanwhile, Christian armies from all over western Europe responded to the church’s call to force the Muslims out of the Holy Land around Jerusalem. From 1096 to 1270, Europeans launched the Crusades, a series of military expeditions to the Middle East in the name of Christianity.

In the end, these bloody Crusades failed to “rescue” the Holy Land, but they had two consequences that encouraged European exploration and expansion. First, they sparked an increase in trade, as crusaders returned home with a new taste for products from Asia. Second, the Crusades weakened the power of European nobles, many of whom lost their lives or fortunes in the wars. Monarchs were able to take advantage of the nobles’ weakened ranks by consolidating their own power. Eventually, monarchs sponsored overseas exploration in order to increase their wealth and power.

DECLINE IN CHURCH AUTHORITY The Crusades had a third long-term consequence: the decline of the power of the pope. The ultimate failure of these campaigns weakened the prestige of the papacy (the office of the pope), which had led the quest. Power struggles in the 1300s and 1400s between the church and European kings further reduced papal authority and tipped the balance of power in favor of the monarchies.

Disagreements over church authority, along with outrage over corrupt practices among the clergy, led to a reform movement in the early 1500s. This movement, known as the Reformation, divided Christianity in western Europe between Catholicism and Protestantism. This split deepened the rivalries between European nations during the period of American colonization and sent newly formed Protestant sects across the Atlantic to seek religious freedom.
Changes Come to Europe

As the 1400s began, European societies were still recovering from a series of disasters during the previous century. From 1314 to 1316, heavy rain and disease wiped out crops and livestock. Thousands of peasants died of starvation. Then, beginning in the 1340s, an epidemic of plagues killed over 25 million people—a fourth of Europe’s population. Meanwhile, long wars also raged across the continent, including the Hundred Years’ War between England and France.

However, amid this turmoil, modern Europe began to take shape. After the plague, Europe experienced vigorous growth and change. The expansion of Europe pushed Europeans to look to other lands.

**THE GROWTH OF COMMERCE AND POPULATION** The Crusades opened up Asian trade routes and whetted the European appetite for Eastern luxuries, such as silk, porcelain, tea, and rugs. Merchants in Italian city-states were the first to profit from trade with Asia. They traded with the Muslim merchants who controlled the flow of goods through much of the Middle East. As trade opportunities increased, new markets were established and new trade routes were opened.

By the end of the 1400s, Europe’s population had rebounded from the plagues. This increase stimulated commerce and encouraged the growth of towns. The return to urban life (which had been largely neglected after the fall of Rome) brought about far-reaching social and cultural change. The new urban middle class would assume increasing political power, especially in Britain and its colonies.

**THE RISE OF NATIONS** The Crusades weakened the nobility and strengthened monarchies. Western European monarchs began exerting more control over their lands by collecting new taxes, raising professional armies, and strengthening central governments. Among the new allies of the monarchs were merchants, who willingly accepted taxes on their newfound wealth in exchange for the protection or expansion of trade. By the late 1400s, four major nations were taking shape in western Europe: Portugal, Spain, France, and England.

Only the king or queen of a unified nation had enough power and resources to finance overseas exploration. Monarchs had a powerful motive to encourage
the quest for new lands and trading routes: they needed money to maintain standing armies and large bureaucracies. So, the monarchs of Portugal, Spain, France, and England began looking overseas for wealth.

**THE RENAISSANCE** “Thank God it has been permitted to us to be born in this new age, so full of hope and promise,” exclaimed Matteo Palmieri, a scholar in 15th-century Italy. Palmieri’s optimism captured the enthusiastic spirit of the Renaissance. The Renaissance led to a more secular spirit, an interest in worldly pleasures, and a new confidence in human achievement. Starting in Italy, a region stimulated by commercial contact with Asia and Africa, the Renaissance soon spread throughout Europe. Renaissance artists rejected the flat, two-dimensional images of medieval painting in favor of the deep perspectives and fully rounded forms of ancient sculpture and painting. Although their themes were still often religious in nature, Renaissance artists portrayed their subjects more realistically than had medieval artists, using new techniques such as perspective. European scholars reexamined the writings of ancient philosophers, mathematicians, geographers, and scientists. They also studied scholarly Arab works brought home from the Crusades.

The Renaissance encouraged people to regard themselves as individuals, to have confidence in human capabilities, and to look forward to the fame their achievements might bring. This attitude prompted many to seek glory through adventure, discovery, and conquest.

**Vocabulary**

**secular:** worldly rather than spiritual

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**Main Idea**

**Drawing Conclusions**

**How might Renaissance attitudes and ideas have influenced European explorers?**

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**Science & Technology**

**THE CARAVEL**

The caravel, the ship used by most early Portuguese and Spanish explorers, had many advantages over earlier vessels. It was lighter, swifter, and more maneuverable than other ships.

- **The triangular lateen sails,** an innovation borrowed from Muslim ships, allowed the caravel to sail against the wind. Riggged with lateens, the ship could tack (sail on a zigzag course) more directly into the wind than could earlier European vessels.

- **The large hatch** allowed goods to be stored below deck.

- **The shallow draft** (the depth of the ship below the water line) made the ship ideal for coastal exploration.

- **The smaller deck** at the stern provided protection from the rain.

- **The stempost rudder** allowed greater maneuverability.
Europe Enters a New Age of Expansion

Although Marco Polo’s journey to China took place in the 1200s, it was not until 1477 that the first printed edition of Polo’s account caused renewed interest in the East. Like other European merchants, Polo traveled to Asia by land. The expense and peril of such journeys led Europeans to seek alternative routes. European merchants and explorers listened to the reports of travelers and reexamined the maps drawn by ancient geographers.

**SAILING TECHNOLOGY** Europeans, however, needed more than maps to guide them through uncharted waters. On the open seas, winds easily blew ships off course. With only the sun, moon, and stars to guide them, few ships ventured beyond the sight of land. To overcome their fears, European ship captains adopted the compass and the astrolabe, navigating tools that helped plot direction. They also took advantage of innovations in sailing technology that allowed ships such as the caravel to sail against the wind. (See “The Caravel” on page 24.)

**PORTUGAL TAKES THE LEAD** Under Prince Henry the Navigator, Portugal developed and employed these innovations. Although Henry was only an armchair navigator, he earned his nickname by establishing an up-to-date sailing school and by sponsoring the earliest voyages.

For almost 40 years, Prince Henry sent his captains sailing farther and farther south along the west coast of Africa. Portuguese explorations continued after Prince Henry died. Bartolomeu Dias rounded the southern tip of Africa in 1488. Vasco da Gama reached India ten years later. By sailing around Africa to eastern Asia via the Indian Ocean, Portuguese traders were able to cut their costs and increase their profits.

While cartographers redrew their maps to show the route around Africa, an Italian sea captain named Christopher Columbus traveled from nation to nation with his own collection of maps and figures. Columbus believed there was an even shorter route to Asia—one that lay west across the Atlantic.

In Spain an adviser of Queen Isabella pointed out that support of the proposed venture would cost less than a week’s entertainment of a foreign official. Isabella was convinced and summoned Columbus to appear before the Spanish court.

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**1. TERMS & NAMES** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Prince Henry
- Renaissance
- hierarchy
- nuclear family
- Crusades
- Reformation

**MAIN IDEA**

2. **TAKING NOTES**

Re-create the web below on your paper. Fill it in with the changes taking place in western Europe during the 1400s.

changes in western Europe

How did these changes help lead to the European Age of Exploration?

**CRITICAL THINKING**

3. **ANALYZING ISSUES**

Which European event of the late 1400s to early 1500s do you think had the most far-reaching impact on European lives? Explain and support your answer. **Think About:**

- the importance of religion
- the role of adventurers and explorers
- the increase in prosperity

**4. SUMMARIZING**

How did advances in technology open the way for world exploration?

**5. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS**

Why do you think other European nations lagged behind Portugal in the race for overseas exploration? Support your reasons with details from the text.
Transatlantic Encounters

**Main Idea**
Columbus’s voyages set off a chain of events that brought together the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas.

**Why It Matters Now**
The interactions among the people of these three continents laid the foundations for modern multicultural America.

**Terms & Names**
- Christopher Columbus
- Taino
- colonization

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**One European’s Story**

In January 1492, the Genoese sailor Christopher Columbus stood before the Spanish court with a daring plan: he would find a route to Asia by sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean. The plan was accepted, and on August 3, 1492, Columbus embarked on a voyage that changed the course of history. He began his journal by restating the deal he had struck with Spain.

**A Personal Voice**

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

"Based on the information that I had given Your Highnesses about the land of India and about a Prince who is called the Great Khan [of China], which in our language means ‘King of Kings,’ Your Highnesses decided to send me . . . to the regions of India, to see . . . the peoples and the lands, and to learn of . . . the measures which could be taken for their conversion to our Holy Faith. . . . Your Highnesses . . . ordered that I shall go to the east, but not by land as is customary. I was to go by way of the west, whence until today we do not know with certainty that anyone has gone. . . ."

—The Log of Christopher Columbus

Although Columbus did not find a route to Asia, his voyage set in motion a process that brought together the American, European, and African worlds.

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**Columbus Crosses the Atlantic**

The Niña, Pinta, and Santa María slid quietly out of a Spanish port in the predawn hours of August 3, 1492. Although they were setting out into the unknown, their crews included no soldiers, priests, or ambassadors—only sailors and cabin boys with a taste for the sea. In a matter of months, Columbus’s fleet would reach the sandy shores of what was to Europeans an astonishing new world.

**First Encounters**

At about 2 A.M. on October 12, 1492, a lookout aboard the Pinta caught sight of two white sand dunes sparkling in the moonlight. In between lay a mass of dark rocks. “Tierra! Tierra!” he shouted. “Land! Land!”
At dawn Columbus went ashore and caught sight of a group of people who called themselves the Taino (ti’ñö), or “noble ones.” He renamed their island San Salvador, or “Holy Savior,” and claimed it for Spain.

On the first day of their encounter, the generosity of the Taino startled Columbus. “They are friendly and well-dispositioned people who bear no arms,” he wrote in his log. “They traded and gave everything they had with good will.” But after only two days, Columbus offered an assessment of the Taino that had dark implications for the future.

**A PERSONAL VOICE CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS**

“It would be unnecessary to build . . . [a fort here] because these people are so simple in deeds of arms. . . . If Your Highnesses order either to bring all of them to Castile or to hold them as captivos [slaves] on their own island it could easily be done, because with about fifty men you could control and subjugate them all, making them do whatever you want.”

—quoted in Columbus: The Great Adventure

**GOLD, LAND, AND RELIGION** The search for gold was one of the main reasons for Columbus’s journey. On his second day in the Americas, Columbus expressed one of the main reasons he had embarked on his journey. “I have been very attentive,” he wrote, “and have tried very hard to find out if there is any gold here.” When he did not find gold on San Salvador, he left to look elsewhere. Columbus spent 96 days exploring some small islands in what is now the Bahamas and the coastlines of two other Caribbean islands, known today as Cuba and Hispaniola. All along the way, he bestowed Spanish names on territory he claimed for Spain. “It was my wish to bypass no island without taking possession,” he wrote. Columbus also honored his promise to assert Christian domination. “In every place I have entered, islands and lands, I have always planted a cross,” he noted on November 16. Less than two weeks later, he predicted, “Your Highnesses will order a city . . . built in these regions [for] these countries will be easily converted.”

**SPANISH FOOTHOLDS** In early January 1493, Columbus began his trip back to Spain. Convinced that he had landed on islands off Asia known to Europeans as the Indies, Columbus called the people he met los indios. The term translated into “Indian,” a word mistakenly applied to all the diverse peoples of the Americas.

Columbus’s reports thrilled the Spanish monarchs, who funded three more voyages. When he set sail for the Americas in September 1493, Columbus was no longer an explorer but an empire builder. He commanded a fleet of some 17 ships and several hundred armed soldiers. He also brought five priests and more than 1,000 colonists, including hidalgos, or members of the minor nobility.

These European soldiers, priests, and colonists, and the many others that followed, would occupy first the Caribbean and then most of the Americas, and impose their will on the Native Americans who lived there. Their arrival on Hispaniola, the island presently divided between Haiti and the Dominican Republic, signaled the start of a cultural clash that would continue for the next five centuries.
The Impact on Native Americans

The Taino who greeted Columbus in 1492 could not have imagined the colonization and outbreaks of disease that would soon follow. While the Taino resisted Spanish control, there was little they could do against the viruses and diseases that accompanied the new settlers.

METHODS OF COLONIZATION The European system of colonization—the establishment of distant settlements controlled by the parent country—was established long before Columbus set sail for Hispaniola. During the Crusades, Italians from Venice had taken over Arab sugar farms in what is now Lebanon. By the late 1400s, the Portuguese had established plantation colonies on islands off the coast of West Africa, and Spain had colonized the Canary Islands.

From this experience, Europeans learned the advantages of using the plantation system. They also realized the economic benefits of using forced labor. Finally, they learned to use European weapons to dominate a people who had less sophisticated weapons. These tactics would be used in full against the peoples that the Europeans called Indians.

RESISTANCE AND CONQUEST The natives of the Caribbean, however, did not succumb to Columbus and the Spaniards without fighting. In November of 1493, Columbus attempted to conquer the present-day island of St. Croix. Instead of surrendering, the inhabitants defended themselves by firing rounds of poisoned arrows. The Spaniards won easily, but the struggle proved that Native Americans would not yield in the easy conquest predicted by Columbus.

Controlling the Taino who inhabited Hispaniola was even more difficult. After several rebellions, the Taino submitted to Columbus for several years but revolted again in 1495. The Spanish response was swift and cruel. A later settler, the missionary Bartolomé de Las Casas, criticized the Spaniards’ brutal response.

A PERSONAL VOICE BARTOLOMÉ DE LAS CASAS

“This tactic begun here . . . [will soon] spread throughout these Indies and will end when there is no more land nor people to subjugate and destroy in this part of the world.”

—quoted in Columbus: The Great Adventure

DISEASE RAVAGES THE NATIVE AMERICANS European settlers brought deadly diseases such as measles, mumps, chicken pox, smallpox, and typhus, which devastated Native Americans, who had not developed any natural immunity to these diseases. They died by the thousands. According to one estimate, nearly one-third of Hispaniola’s estimated 300,000 inhabitants died during Columbus’s time there. By 1508, fewer than 100,000 survivors lived on the island. Sixty years later, only two villages were left. These illnesses would soon spread to the rest of the Americas. More surely than any army, disease conquered region after region.
The Slave Trade Begins

With disease reducing the native work force, European settlers turned to Africa for slaves. In the coming years, European slave ships would haul hundreds of thousands of Africans across the Atlantic to toil in the Americas.

**A NEW SLAVE LABOR FORCE** The enslavement of Native Americans was a controversial issue among the Spaniards. Unfortunately, the Spanish saw the use of Africans as a possible solution to the colonies’ labor shortage. Advised Las Casas, “The labor of one . . . [African] . . . [is] more valuable than that of four Indians; every effort should be made to bring many . . . [Africans] from Guinea.”

As more natives died of disease, the demand for Africans grew. The price of enslaved Africans rose, and more Europeans joined the slave trade. African slavery was becoming an essential part of the European-American economic system.

**AFRICAN LOSSES** The Atlantic slave trade would devastate many African societies, which lost many of their fittest members. Before the slave trade ended in the 1800s, it would drain Africa of at least 12 million people.

The Impact on Europeans

Columbus’s voyages had profound effects on Europe as well. Merchants and monarchs saw an opportunity to increase their wealth and influence. Ordinary people saw a chance to live in a new world, relatively free of social and economic constraints. Within a century, thousands of Europeans began crossing the Atlantic in what became one of the biggest voluntary migrations in history.

**THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE** The voyages of Columbus and others led to the introduction of new plants and animals to Europe, Africa, and the Americas. Ships took plants and animals from the Americas back to Europe and to Africa and brought items from the Eastern Hemisphere to the Western Hemisphere. This global transfer of living things, called the **Columbian Exchange**, began with Columbus’s first voyage and continues today.
NATIONAL RIVALRIES Overseas expansion inflamed European rivalries. Portugal, the pioneer in navigation and exploration, deeply resented Spain’s sudden conquests. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI, a Spaniard, stepped in to avoid war between the two nations. In the Treaty of Tordesillas, signed in 1494, Spain and Portugal agreed to divide the Western Hemisphere between them. Lands to the west of an imaginary vertical line drawn in the Atlantic, including most of the Americas, belonged to Spain. Lands to the east of this line, including Brazil, belonged to Portugal.

The plan proved impossible to enforce. Its only long-lasting effect was to give Portugal a colony—Brazil—in a South America that was largely Spanish. Otherwise, the agreement had no effect on the English, Dutch, or French, all of whom began colonizing the Americas during the early 1600s.

A New Society Is Born

Christopher Columbus lived on Hispaniola until 1500. That year, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, dissatisfied with the explorer’s inability to maintain order on the island, ordered him to leave. After further travels throughout the Caribbean,

“Columbus’s achievements were historic and heroic.”

Many historians argue that Columbus’s fateful voyages produced many long-term benefits. As the journalist Paul Gray notes, “Columbus’s journey was the first step in a long process that eventually produced the United States of America, ... a symbol and a haven of individual liberty for people throughout the world.”

Other historians suggest that respect is due Columbus for the sheer dimension of the change he caused.

“The Columbian discovery was of greater magnitude than any other discovery or invention in human history. ... both because of the ... development of the New World and because of the numerous other discoveries that have stemmed from it,” asserts the historian Paolo Emilio Taviani.

Some historians contend that, although millions of Native Americans were enslaved or killed by Europeans and the diseases they brought with them, this does not detract from Columbus’s achievements. They argue that sacrifice is often necessary for the sake of progress. Further, they claim that, like any historical figure, Columbus was a man of his time and ought not to be condemned for acting according to the values of the age in which he lived.

“The legacy of Columbus is primarily one of ‘genocide, cruelty, and slavery.’”

Some historians have questioned the traditional view of Columbus as a hero. The historian Hans Konig argues that Columbus’s legacy should be deplored rather than celebrated: “The year 1492 opened an era of genocide, cruelty, and slavery on a larger scale than had ever been seen before.” Speaking to the experience of Native Americans in particular, the activist Suzan Shown Harjo insists that “this half millennium of land grabs and one-cent treaty sales has been no bargain [for Native Americans].”

Historian Howard Zinn argues that the actions of the European conquistadors and settlers were unnecessarily cruel and plainly immoral. Zinn questions whether the suffering of Native Americans can be justified by European gains: “If there are necessary sacrifices to be made for human progress, is it not essential to hold to the principle that those to be sacrificed must make the decision [to be sacrificed] themselves?”

In any event, Konig claims, the balance does not favors Columbus: “all the gold and silver stolen and shipped to Spain did not make the Spanish people richer, ... They ended up [with] ... a deadly inflation, a starving population, the rich richer, the poor poorer, and a ruined peasant class.”

THINKING CRITICALLY

1. CONNECT TO TODAY Evaluating How does each side view the tradeoff between the human progress and the violence resulting from Columbus’s voyages? With which side do you agree? Why?

2. CONNECT TO HISTORY Developing Historical Perspective Do research to find out more about the Taino’s encounters with Columbus. Then, write a monologue from the point of view of either (1) a Taino or (2) Columbus or a member of his expeditions.
Columbus reluctantly returned to Spain in 1504, where he died two years later. The daring sea captain went to his grave disappointed that he had not reached China.

Neither Columbus nor anyone else could have foreseen the long chain of events that his voyages set in motion. In time, settlers from England would transplant their cultures to colonies in North America. From within these colonies would emerge a new society—and a new nation—based on ideas of representative government and religious tolerance.

The story of the United States of America thus begins with a meeting of North American, African, and European peoples and cultures that radically transformed all three worlds. The upheaval threw unfamiliar peoples and customs together on a grand scale. Although the Europeans tried to impose their ways on Native Americans and Africans, they never completely succeeded. Their need to borrow from the peoples they sought to dominate proved too strong. Furthermore, the Native Americans and Africans resisted giving up their cultural identities. The new nation that emerged would blend elements of these three worlds, as well as others, in a distinctly multicultural society. Throughout the history of the United States, this multiculturalism would be one of its greatest challenges and also one of its greatest assets.
Asian peoples began migrating to the Americas.

The Americas

In West Africa, sophisticated and ancient societies were flourishing during the 1400s.

1492

The Spanish began exploring and colonizing the southwest and southern regions of North America.

Chapter Assessment

1. Using Your Notes In a web like the one shown, describe how trade and commerce affected each region and time period shown.

2. Developing Historical Perspective How do you think the contrasting cultural attitudes to land ownership might have affected the relationship between Europeans and Native Americans?
Use the quotation below and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer questions 1 and 2.

“The earth is our mother. The sky is our father.
This concept of nature . . . is at the center of the Native American world view. . . . The Native American’s attitudes toward this landscape have been formulated over a long period of time, a span that reaches back to the end of the Ice Age. . . . [T]he Indian has assumed a deep ethical regard for the earth and sky, a reverence for the natural world. . . . It is this ancient ethic of the Native American that must shape our efforts to preserve the earth and the life upon and within it.”


1. N. Scott Momaday refers to the Ice Age because—
   A Native Americans’ attitudes to the land were formed during the Ice Age.
   B the landscape of the Americas took its present shape during the last Ice Age.
   C that was when European immigrants first arrived in the Americas.
   D he wants to show how long Native Americans have been living in the Americas.

2. In this passage, Momaday describes the “ancient ethic”—Native American reverence for the land—in order to —
   F contrast it with modern attitudes.
   G dismiss it as unimportant.
   H present it as a quaint, old-fashioned idea.
   J suggest that European Americans will never accept it.

3. Why did the Spanish begin importing enslaved Africans?
   A The Spanish were weakened by disease and could not work.
   B There was a labor shortage in the Americas.
   C They wanted to compete with the British colonies.
   D The Spanish wanted colonies in Africa.

4. Unlike some West African and Native American societies at the time, European societies in the 1400s had not developed —
   F matrilineal kinship systems.
   G systems of mathematics and astronomy.
   H a centralized religious authority.
   J agriculture.

For additional test practice, go online for:
• Diagnostic tests
• Tutorials

INTERACT WITH HISTORY

Think about the issues you explored at the beginning of the chapter. Now that you know how Native Americans’ way of life was changed by the arrival of the Europeans, form small groups and discuss the following question: Would you have resisted or helped the Europeans if you had been a Native American during the days of European colonization?

FOCUS ON WRITING

Imagine that you are one of the Taino people. You have just seen a landing party from Christopher Columbus’s expedition arrive on the shores near your village. Based on what you have read in this chapter, write a paragraph describing your first encounter with the expedition, your reactions to the explorers, and your thoughts about further contact.

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Organize into pairs and use library or Internet sources to find excerpts from the journals of early explorers such as Columbus or Cabeza de Vaca. After reading, work together to list the assumptions and conclusions drawn by the writer about the new land and peoples he encountered. Write a paragraph explaining how these assumptions affected the interactions between explorers and native peoples.
THE Maya
The Maya developed one of the most advanced civilizations in the Americas, but their story is shrouded in mystery. Around A.D. 250, the Maya began to build great cities in southern Mexico and Central America. They developed a writing system, practiced astronomy, and built magnificent palaces and pyramids with little more than stone tools. Around A.D. 900, however, the Maya abandoned their cities, leaving their monuments to be reclaimed by the jungle and, for a time, forgotten.

Explore some of the incredible monuments and cultural achievements of the ancient Maya online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, and more at hmhsocialstudies.com.

“Thus let it be done! Let the emptiness be filled! Let the water recede and make a void, let the earth appear and become solid; let it be done . . . “Earth!” they said, and instantly it was made.”

The Popol Vuh
Read the document to learn how the Maya believed the world was created.

Destroying the Maya’s Past
Watch the video to learn how the actions of one Spanish missionary nearly destroyed the written record of the Maya world.

Finding the City of Palenque
Watch the video to learn about the great Maya city of Palenque and the European discovery of the site in the eighteenth century.

Pakal’s Tomb
Watch the video to explore how the discovery of the tomb of a great king helped archaeologists piece together the Maya past.
CHAPTER 2

THE AMERICAN COLONIES Emerge

**Essential Question**

What were the reasons for European colonization of the Americas?

**What You Will Learn**

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

**SECTION 1: Spain’s Empire in the Americas**

Main Idea: Throughout the 1500s and 1600s, the Spanish conquered Central and portions of North America.

**SECTION 2: An English Settlement at Jamestown**

Main Idea: The first permanent English settlement in North America was founded at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607.

**SECTION 3: Puritan New England**

Main Idea: English Puritans came to North America, beginning in 1620.

**SECTION 4: Settlement of the Middle Colonies**

Main Idea: The Dutch settled New Netherland; English Quakers led by William Penn settled Pennsylvania.

17th-century English explorers land in North America.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>EVENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1517</td>
<td>Martin Luther begins the Protestant Reformation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1521</td>
<td>Hernán Cortés conquers the Aztec Empire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1540</td>
<td>Coronado explores the American south-west.</td>
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<td>1550</td>
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<tr>
<td>1558</td>
<td>Spanish colonists establish a colony at Roanoke Island.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1565</td>
<td>Spanish settlers establish Saint Augustine, Florida.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1588</td>
<td>England defeats the Spanish Armada.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1588</td>
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**AMERICAS WORLD**
1607 John Smith and other colonists establish Jamestown.

1620 English “Pilgrims” found Plymouth Colony.

1630 English Puritans found the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

1649 Oliver Cromwell establishes the Puritan Commonwealth in England.

1660 The English monarchy is restored with the accession of Charles II.

1664 England takes New Amsterdam from the Dutch.

1681 William Penn receives charter for Pennsylvania.

It is 1607. You are a colonist about to arrive in the land that England has claimed for itself and named Virginia. Although little is known about this place, you look forward to a life of adventure and prosperity. When you arrive, you are met by Native Americans who ask you why you have come to their land.

Explore the Issues

• As a colonist, how does the presence of another people change your expectations?
• What obligations does a colonist have to natives who already inhabit the land?
Throughout the 1500s and 1600s, the Spanish conquered Central and portions of North America.

Spanish language, religion, and architecture continue to influence the Americas.

Terms & Names
- Hernández Cortés
- conquistador
- New Spain
- mestizo
- encomienda
- Juan Ponce de León
- New Mexico
- Popé

In 1519, the native world near Tabasco in southeastern Mexico changed forever. That year, Hernández Cortés led an army into the American mainland, eager to claim new lands for Spain. The peoples of the Tabasco, a province of the mighty Aztec empire, resisted the invaders but were no match for the Spaniards’ rifles and cannons.

In surrendering, the natives handed over to the Spaniards 20 women, one of whom came to be called Doña Marina, or Malinche. Malinche easily mastered the Spanish language and soon acted as both translator and guide for Cortés as he fought and negotiated his way through Mexico. She also proved to be a brave and daring warrior. Bernal Díaz del Castillo, one of Cortés’s foot soldiers, noted Malinche’s courage.

A PERSONAL VOICE BERNAL DÍAZ DEL CASTILLO

“Doña Marina . . . possessed such manly valor that, although she had heard every day how the Indians were going to kill us and eat our flesh with chili, and had seen us surrounded in the late battles, and knew that all of us were wounded or sick, yet never allowed us to see any sign of fear in her, only . . . courage.”

—quoted in Notable Latin American Women

Malinche played a key role in the early stages of the Spanish conquest of the Americas. As the first European settlers in the Americas, the Spanish greatly enriched their empire and left a mark on the cultures of North and South America that still exists today.

The Spanish Claim a New Empire

In the wake of Columbus’s voyages, Spanish explorers took to the seas to claim new colonies for Spain. Lured by the prospect of vast lands filled with gold and silver, these explorers, known as conquistadors (conquerors), pushed first into
CORTÉS SUBDUES THE AZTEC Soon after landing in Mexico, Cortés learned of the vast and wealthy Mexico, or Aztec, empire, located deep in the region's interior. The Aztec, members of the diverse Nahua peoples of central Mexico, dominated the region. Cortés set off to conquer the Aztec with a force of 600 soldiers, 17 horses, numerous dogs, and 10 cannons. As he marched inland, Cortés, a gifted diplomat as well as military leader, convinced those Nahua who had long resented the spread of Aztec power to join his ranks.

After marching for weeks through 200 miles of difficult mountain passes, Cortés and his legions finally looked on the magnificent Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán. The Spaniards marveled at Tenochtitlán, with its towering temples and elaborate engineering works—including a system that brought fresh water into the city. “We were amazed,” Bernal Díaz said of his first glimpse of Tenochtitlán. “Some of our soldiers even asked whether the things we saw were not a dream.”

While the Aztec city astonished the Spaniards, the capital’s glittering gold stock seemed to hypnotize them. “They picked up the gold and fingered it like monkeys,” one Native American witness recalled. “They hungered like pigs for that gold.”

Convinced at first that Cortés was an armor-clad god, the Aztec emperor Montezuma agreed to give the Spanish explorer a share of the empire’s existing gold supply. Cortés, who admitted that he and his comrades had “a disease of the heart that only gold can cure,” eventually forced the Aztec to mine more gold and silver. In the spring of 1520, the Aztec rebelled against the Spaniards’ intrusion. It is believed that, before driving out Cortes’s forces, the Aztec stoned Montezuma to death, having come to regard him as a traitor.

While they successfully repelled the Spanish invaders, the natives found they could do little to stop disease. By the time Cortés launched a counterattack in 1521, the Spanish and their native allies overran an Aztec force that was greatly reduced by smallpox and measles. After several months of fighting, the invaders finally sacked and burned Tenochtitlán, and the Aztec surrendered.

The American Colonies Emerge
While flames still flickered in the shattered capital, Cortés laid plans for the colony of New Spain, whose capital he called Mexico City. Within three years, Spanish churches and homes rose from the foundations of old native temples and palaces in Mexico City. Cathedrals and a university followed.

**SPANISH PATTERN OF CONQUEST** In building their new American empire, the Spaniards drew from techniques used during the reconquest of Spain from the Moors, a Muslim people from North Africa who had occupied Spain for centuries. When conquering the Moors in the late 1400s, the Spanish lived among them and imposed upon them their Spanish culture.

Spanish settlers in the Americas were mostly men and were known as peninsulares. Marriage between peninsulares and native women was common. These marriages created a large mestizo—or mixed Spanish and Native American—population. Their descendants live today in Mexico, other Latin American countries, and the United States.

Although the Spanish conquerors lived among and intermarried with the native people, they also oppressed them. In their effort to exploit the land for its precious resources, the Spanish forced the native workers to labor within a system known as encomienda, in which the natives farmed, ranched, or mined for Spanish landholders, who had received the rights to their labor from Spanish authorities.

The harsh pattern of labor that emerged under the encomienda caused priests such as Antonio de Montesinos to demand its end in a sermon delivered in 1511.

**A PERSONAL VOICE** FRAY ANTONIO DE MONTESINOS

“Tell me, by what right or justice do you hold these Indians in such a cruel and horrible servitude? . . . Why do you keep them so oppressed and exhausted, without giving them enough to eat or curing them of the sicknesses they incur from the excessive labor you give them? . . . Are you not bound to love them as you love yourselves? Don’t you understand this? Don’t you feel this?”

—quoted in Reflections, Writing for Columbus

In 1542, the Spanish monarchy, which had tried to encourage fair treatment of native subjects, abolished the encomienda. To meet their intense labor needs, the Spaniards instead turned to other labor systems and began to use African slaves.

**The Conquistadors Push North**

Dreaming of new conquests and more gold, and afraid that European nations might invade their American empire from the north, Spain undertook a series of expeditions into what would become the southeastern and southwestern United States.

**EXPLORING FLORIDA** In 1513, on Easter Sunday—a day the Spaniards called pascua florida, or “feast of flowers”—explorer Juan Ponce de León spied a tree-covered beach. In honor of the holiday, he named the land La Florida. For almost five decades, the Spanish probed La Florida and the surrounding areas for gold, battling the local residents, disease, and starvation. In 1562, discouraged by the lack of economic success, Spain abandoned further exploration of Florida.

Within months of Spain’s departure, a band of French settlers arrived near what is now Jacksonville. Accompanying the settlers were French pirates, or buccaneers, who quickly took interest in Spain’s treasure-filled ships sailing from the Gulf of Mexico. Consequently, Spain reversed its decision to abandon Florida and ordered one of its fiercest warriors, Pedro Menéndez de Avilés, to drive the French out of the area.
European Exploration of the Americas, 1492–1682

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER**

1. **Movement** How many voyages to the Americas did Columbus make?

2. **Place** In what years did England and France sail to the Americas and which regions did they explore?

Juan de la Cosa, pilot-navigator on Columbus’s ship *Ninia*, drew the known world on this oxhide map in 1500.
Most missions were a series of buildings grouped around a courtyard, which was used for festivals or services. These courtyards acknowledged the Native American practice of worshipping in the open air.

In Texas and California, bells used to summon people to worship were often hung in espadañas, tiered clusters framed by a rounded wall meant to resemble a cloud. To the Native Americans of the Southwest, clouds represented power.

In the winter of 1609–1610, Pedro de Peralta, governor of Spain’s northern holdings, called New Mexico, led missionary priests and other settlers to a tributary of the upper Rio Grande. Together they built a capital called Santa Fe, or “Holy Faith.” In the next two decades, several Christian missions were built among the Pueblos in the area. The hooves of pack mules wore down a 1,500-mile trail known as el Camino Real, or “the Royal Road,” as they carried goods back and forth between Santa Fe and Mexico City.

Resistance to the Spanish

The Catholic missionaries who settled north of Mexico not only tried to Christianize the peoples they encountered but also attempted to impose Spanish culture on them. The native inhabitants of New Mexico resisted and eventually rebelled against the Spaniards’ attempts to transform their lives and beliefs.

CONFLICT IN NEW MEXICO While Spanish priests converted scores of Native Americans in New Mexico, tension marked the relationship between the priests and their new converts. As they sought to transform the Native Americans’ cultures, Spanish priests and soldiers smashed and burned objects held sacred by

**Vocabulary**

**conversion:** A change in which a person adopts a new belief, opinion, or religion
local communities and suppressed many of their ceremonial dances and rituals.

During the 1670s, priests and soldiers around Santa Fe began forcing Native Americans to help support the missions by paying a tribute, an offering of either goods or services. The tribute was usually a bushel of maize or a deer hide, but the Spanish also forced Native Americans to work for them and sometimes abused them physically. Native Americans who practiced their native religion or refused to pay tribute were beaten.

**POPÉ’S REBELLION** One unfortunate Native American who felt the sting of a Spanish whip was the Pueblo religious leader Popé. The priests punished Popé for his worship practices, which they interpreted as witchcraft. The whipping left the Pueblo leader scarred with hatred and ready for rebellion. In 1680, he led a well-organized uprising against the Spanish that involved some 17,000 people from villages all over New Mexico. The triumphant fighters destroyed Spanish churches, executed priests, and drove the Spaniards back into New Spain. “The heathen,” one Spanish officer wrote about the uprising, “have concealed a mortal hatred for our holy faith and enmity for the Spanish nation.” For the next 14 years—until Spanish armies regained control of the area—the southwest region of the future United States once again belonged to its original inhabitants.

But Spain would never again have complete control of the Americas. In 1588, England had defeated the Spanish Armada, ending Spain’s naval dominance in the Atlantic. In time, England began forging colonies along the eastern shore of North America, thus extending its own empire in the New World.
One American’s Story

**John Smith** craved adventure. In 1600, at age 20, Smith trekked across Europe and helped Hungary fight a war against the Turks. For his heroic battle efforts, the Hungarians offered a knighthood to Smith, who inscribed his coat of arms with the phrase *Vincere est vivere*—“to conquer is to live.”

In 1606, the daring and often arrogant adventurer approached the members of the Virginia Company, a group of merchants who were interested in founding an English colony in North America. Smith later recalled the opportunities that he saw open to him and other potential colonists.

**A Personal Voice  JOHN SMITH**

“What man who is poor or who has only his merit to advance his fortunes can desire more contentment than to walk over and plant the land he has obtained by risking his life? . . . Here nature and liberty . . . [give] us freely that which we lack or have to pay dearly for in England. . . . What pleasure can be greater than to grow tired from . . . planting vines, fruits, or vegetables?”

—The General History of Virginia

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 of 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.

> A PERSONAL VOICE

"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.

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.
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.

16th-century helmet and breastplate.

Rounded bulwarks, or watch towers, mounted with cannon were located at each corner of the fort. The range of each cannon was approximately one mile.

A barracks or “bawn” stood along the wall.

Colonists’ houses were built about ten feet from the fort’s walls. Houses measured sixteen by forty feet and several colonists lived in each.

The walls of the triangular-shaped fort measured 420 feet on the river side and 300 feet on the other two sides.

The main gate, located on the long side, faced the James River.

This illustration re-creates what historians and archaeologists now believe Fort James looked like early in its history.
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, the Jamestown colonist John Rolfe experimented by cross breeding 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. 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. Indentured servants were usually from the lower classes of English society.

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.

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, the 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.

This poster, dated 1609, reflects an attempt to attract settlers to the early Virginia colony.

Analyzing Events

B Why was tobacco so important to the Jamestown colony?

Contrasting

C How did the conditions of indentured servitude differ from those of the headright system?
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 laid the groundwork for a half-hearted 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.

Economic Differences Split Virginia

By the 1670s, 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. These poor colonists lived mainly on the western outskirts of Virginia, where they constantly fought with Native Americans for land.

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 for the personal profit of the “Grandees,” or “planters,” the wealthy plantation farmers who had settled along the eastern shores 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 of 1675, a dispute between the Doeg tribe and a Virginia frontier farmer grew into a bloodbath. A group of frontier settlers who were pursuing Doeg warriors murdered fourteen 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 twenty-nine-year-old planter named Nathaniel Bacon. Bacon, a tall, dark-haired, hot-tempered son of a wealthy Englishman, detested Native Americans. He called
them “wolves” who preyed upon “our harmless and innocent lambs.” 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 of 1676 to confront colonial leaders about a number of grievances, including 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.

### MAIN IDEA

**2. TERMS & NAMES**

- John Smith
- New World
- Powhatan
- indentured servants
- headright
- royal colony

**3. CRITICAL THINKING**

**2. TAKING NOTES**

Create a time line of the major developments in the colonization of Virginia, using a form such as the one below.

1. **event one**
2. **event two**
3. **event three**
4. **event four**

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

**A Personal Voice**  
Anne Bradstreet

“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.”

—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 cherished their Bibles, passing them down as family treasures from one generation to the next. This Bible belonged to Governor William Bradford of the Plymouth Colony.

**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.

**The Mayflower Compact**

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. Some of their signatures are reproduced above.

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.

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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 pre-
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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE**  
**JOHN WINTHROP**

“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.”

—“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. 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.

**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

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**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. 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.

**SKILLBUILDER**  
**Interpreting Visual 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?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R23.
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, an extreme Separatist, expressed two controversial views. First, he 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, Williams fled Massachusetts. In January 1636, he headed southward to the headwaters of Narragansett Bay. There he negotiated with the local Narragansett tribe 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.

**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.

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**Vocabulary**

**stocks, pillory:** devices in which an offender was shackled and held on public display as a form of punishment

**Main Idea**

**Contrasting**

What two principles did Providence guarantee that Massachusetts Bay did not?
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 twenty 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 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, the Narraganset leader Miantonomo declared in a speech to the Montauk tribe,

**A PERSONAL VOICE MIZRONI**

“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.”

—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 tribe 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 settled New Netherland; English Quakers led by William Penn settled Pennsylvania.

The principles of tolerance and equality promoted in the Quaker settlement remain fundamental values in America.

Terms & Names
- William Penn
- New Netherland
- proprietor
- Quakers

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. As he confided to a friend, however, Penn did not reveal the true nature of his plans before receiving the charter.

**A PERSONAL VOICE**

**WILLIAM PENN**

“For matters of liberty and privilege, I propose that which is extraordinary, and [I intend] to leave myself and successors no power for doing mischief, [in order] that the will of one man may not hinder the good of a whole country; but to publish those things now and here, as matters stand, would not be wise. . . .”

—quoted in *A New World*

While Penn only partially realized his “extraordinary” plans, the tolerant Quaker principles on which he established his colony attracted many settlers of different faiths.

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 Englishman employed by the Dutch—sailed up what is now known as the Hudson River. In 1621, the Dutch government granted the newly formed Dutch West India Company permission to colonize New Netherland and expand the thriving fur

This chalk drawing shows William Penn around 1695, at about the age of 50.
trade. New Amsterdam (now New York City), founded in 1625, became the capital of the colony. In 1655, the Dutch extended their claims by taking over New Sweden, a tiny colony of Swedish and Finnish settlers that 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, the colony opened its doors to a variety of people. Gradually, more Dutch as well as Germans, French, Scandinavians, Jews, and other Europeans 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. In 1664, King Charles II granted his brother James, the duke of York (who later became King James II), permission to drive out the Dutch. 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.

### 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. The colony that took shape was a marked contrast to England’s other North American settlements.

**PENN’S “HOLY EXPERIMENT”** William Penn well knew that England in the late 1660s was no place for Quakers. 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 alike.

### Background

A Commonwealth headed by Oliver Cromwell ruled England from 1649 until 1658. The monarchy was restored under Charles II in 1660.

### Comparing

**How did Quaker beliefs compare to Puritan beliefs?**
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.

**Quaker Meetinghouse**

Quaker services, which were called “meetings,” relied on the inspiration of the “inner light.” Meetings reflected a respect for conscience and freedom of speech.

Men and women entered by separate doors and sat on opposite sides, facing each other. In some meetinghouses, women sat in slightly elevated seats. Both men and women could speak during the meeting.

**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.

**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.

**SKILLBUILDER Interpreting Visual Sources**

1. In what ways do the Puritan and Quaker meeting houses resemble each other? In what ways are they different?
2. How does the interior of the Anglican church show a respect for hierarchy?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R23.
Penn saw his colony as a “holy experiment” in living, a place without a landowning aristocracy. He guaranteed every adult male settler 50 acres of land and the right to vote. Penn’s plan for government called for a representative assembly and freedom of religion. 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 tribe that inhabited his settlement area.

Aware that the Delaware had already been ravaged by European diseases and war, Penn wrote,

**A PERSONAL VOICE WILLIAM PENN**

> “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.”

—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.

**Contrasting**

How did Penn’s attitudes and actions toward the Native Americans differ from those of the Puritans?
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 very different reasons. 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 from Maryland’s colonial assembly, and the colony became famous for its religious freedom. In 1663, King Charles II awarded a group of key supporters the land between Virginia and Spanish Florida, a territory that soon became North and South Carolina.

In 1732, an English philanthropist named James Ogelthorpe, and several associates received a charter for a colony they hoped could be a haven for those imprisoned for debt. Ogelthorpe named the colony Georgia, after King George II. Few debtors actually came to Georgia, and Ogelthorpe’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 thirteen British colonies in North America, but a growing desire for independence would soon put a strain on their relationship with England.
Surviving in a New World

Early settlers quickly discovered that the “new world” they had chosen to colonize was indeed an extraordinary place, 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.

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
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 . . . overthrow 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 (*Eupatorium perfoliatum*), pictured at left, could be used to break fevers and chills and could treat diseases ranging from colds and influenza to malaria and typhoid.

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.

**Average January Temperature:** 20–30°F  
**Average July Temperature:** 60–70°F  
**Rainfall:** 20–40 inches per year  
**Days of Snow Cover:** 90–120  
**Growing Season:** 120–150 days  
**Soil:** gray to brown, gravelly, stony  
**Crops of Native Peoples:** maize (corn), beans, squash

**THINKING CRITICALLY**

1. **Analyzing Patterns** What seasonal patterns did the colonists in all three regions encounter? How did these patterns affect each colony?

2. **Creating 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.

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R30.
VISUAL SUMMARY

THE AMERICAN COLONIES Emerge: 1513–1681

**SPANISH COLONIES**
- Hernándo Cortés conquers Mexico (1519–1521)
- Juan Ponce de León establishes Florida (1513)
- Francisco Vasquez de Coronado explores American southwest (1540)
- Pedro de Peralta founds Santa Fe (1609–1610)
- Native Americans led by Popé rebel in southwest (1680)

**VIRGINIA**
- Virginia Colony is established (1607)
- Colony is saved by export of tobacco (1612)
  - First African slaves are brought to North America (1619)
  - Settlers clash with Powhatan tribe (1622)
  - Settlement burns in Bacon’s Rebellion (1676)

**NEW ENGLAND**
- English Pilgrims establish colony at Plymouth (1620)
- English Puritans establish colony at Boston (1630)
- Roger Williams is banished and founds colony at Providence (1635–1636)
- Anne Hutchinson is banished for heresy (1638)
- Puritans clash with Native Americans in Pequot War (1637) and King Philip’s War (1675)

**ENGLISH MIDDLE COLONIES**
- Dutch found colony of New Netherland (1621)
- English acquire New Netherland and rename it New York (1664)
- William Penn establishes colony of Pennsylvania (1681)
- By the mid-1700s, there are 13 English colonies in North America

**TERMS & NAMES**
For each term below, write a sentence explaining its connection to the emergence of the American colonies. For each person below, explain his or her role in these colonies.

1. conquistador
2. mestizo
3. Popé
4. John Smith
5. indentured servant
6. John Winthrop
7. Anne Hutchinson
8. Metacom
9. proprietor
10. Quaker

**MAIN IDEAS**
Use your notes and the information in the chapter to answer the following questions.

**Spain’s Empire in the Americas** (pages 36–41)
1. How did Mexican culture develop out of both Spanish and Native American elements?
2. How did Native Americans react to Spanish efforts to establish colonies?

**An English Settlement at Jamestown** (pages 42–48)
3. Explain how John Rolfe transformed the Virginia colony.
4. What conditions caused tension and warfare between settlers and Native Americans in Virginia?
5. What caused Bacon’s Rebellion?

**Puritan New England** (pages 49–54)
6. Describe the role of religion in the lives of Puritans living in the Massachusetts Bay Colony.
7. How were the experiences of Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson similar and different?
8. What caused conflicts between New England colonists and Native Americans?

**Settlement of the Middle Colonies** (pages 55–59)
9. Why did New Netherland gain a reputation for diversity?
10. How did Pennsylvania reflect William Penn’s Quaker ideals?

**CRITICAL THINKING**

1. **USING YOUR NOTES** Using a chart like the one below, summarize the way European settlers and Native Americans interacted in the four listed regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<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. **FORMING 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?
Use the map and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer questions 1 and 2.

1. Which letter on the map shows the first permanent British settlement in North America?
   - A A
   - B B
   - C C
   - D D

2. Which letter shows an area colonized by Spain?
   - F F
   - G G
   - H H
   - J J

Use the information in the box and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer question 3.

- William Penn
- Roger Williams
- John Winthrop

3. Of these three colonists, who insisted that Native Americans be paid for land?
   - A William Penn and Roger Williams only
   - B John Winthrop and Roger Williams only
   - C John Winthrop and William Penn only
   - D John Winthrop, William Penn, and Roger Williams

4. Anne Hutchinson was banished from Massachusetts because she taught that —
   - F colonists should remain loyal to the English king.
   - G individuals could interpret the Bible for themselves.
   - H the colonists should not trade with local Native Americans.
   - J the Puritans should break away from the English church.

For additional test practice, go online for:
- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials

INTERACT WITH HISTORY
Recall the issues that you explored at the beginning of the chapter. Imagine that it is now 1685 and you are a colonist living in one of the English-speaking colonies. Relatives have written to tell you that they are about to emigrate to North America, and they are asking for your thoughts about sharing the land. Write a letter back in which you describe what you think they should know. Include important details from the history of the colonies that you have read about in this chapter.

FOCUS ON WRITING
You have been living in the Massachusetts Bay Colony for nearly a year. You have been asked by leaders of the colony to write an advertisement that will persuade new settlers to come to Massachusetts. Focus your advertisement on the advantages of living in the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING
Use the Electronic Library of Primary Sources and other reference materials to research a specific law and punishment in 17th-century America. With a group of students, act out a colonial trial. Each student should know the law and perform his or her part carefully. The rest of the class must decide the verdict and punishment. Then have a class discussion about the value of the law and its punishment.
The Spanish conquistador Juan Ponce de Leon was the first European to set foot on land that later became part of the United States. Ponce de Leon first sailed to the Americas with Christopher Columbus on his second voyage in 1493. Once in the Caribbean region, he helped conquer what is now Puerto Rico and was named ruler of the island. In Puerto Rico, Ponce de Leon heard about a nearby island that supposedly held the legendary Fountain of Youth. Its waters were said to make old people young again. In 1513, Ponce de Leon set out to find the island but instead landed in what is now Florida. He named Florida and claimed it for Spain.

Explore important events in the life of Ponce de Leon online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at hmhsocialstudies.com.
Caribbean Island Encounters
Watch the video to learn about the first encounters between Spanish explorers and the people of the Caribbean.

Claiming Florida for Spain
Watch the video to learn about Ponce de Leon's first landing on the coast of what is now Florida.

Ponce de Leon’s 1513 Route
Study the map to learn about the region of the Americas that Ponce de Leon explored in 1513.
Essential Question

How did the colonies develop economically, socially, and politically?

What You Will Learn

In this chapter you will analyze the growth of the colonies.

SECTION 1: England and Its Colonies
Main Idea: England and its largely self-governing colonies prospered under a mutually beneficial trade relationship.

SECTION 2: The Agricultural South
Main Idea: In the Southern colonies, a predominantly agricultural society developed.

SECTION 3: The Commercial North
Main Idea: The Northern colonies developed a predominantly urban society, based on commerce and trade.

SECTION 4: The French and Indian War
Main Idea: British victory over the French in North America enlarged the British empire but led to new conflicts with the colonists.

View of Boston, around 1764
The year is 1750. As a hard-working young colonist, you are proud of the prosperity of your new homeland. However, you are also troubled by the inequalities around you—inequalities between the colonies and Britain, between rich and poor, between men and women, and between free and enslaved.

**Explore the Issues**

- Can prosperity be achieved without exploiting or enslaving others?
- What does freedom mean, beyond the right to make money without government interference?

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1710 | Act of Union unites England and Wales with Scotland to form Great Britain.
1714 | Tea is introduced into the colonies.
1739 | In Japan, 84,000 farmers protest heavy taxation.
1733 | Benjamin Franklin publishes *Poor Richard's Almanac*.
1754 | French and Indian War begins.
1763 | Treaty of Paris ends French and Indian War.
England and Its Colonies

Main 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.

Terms & Names

- 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.

A PERSONAL VOICE  ELIZA LUCAS PINCKNEY

“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.”

—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.
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

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER

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?
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.

**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.

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 (see chart at left).

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.

**A**

**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.

> **Trade between England and her colonies benefited many merchants, such as the wealthy New England trader Moses Marcy.**
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 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. In the aftermath of these events, which became known as the **Glorious Revolution**, Parliament passed a series of laws establishing its power over the monarch.

Upon learning of the events in England, the colonists of Massachusetts staged a bloodless rebellion of their own, arresting Andros and his royal councilors. 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.

**Background**
The Puritans were particularly cruel to Quakers, who were whipped, maimed, tortured, and executed as punishment for their religious customs.
Angered by Massachusetts’s refusal to obey English law, he revoked the colony’s charter in 1684 and brought Massachusetts under royal control.

James II (1685–1688)
He consolidated the Northern colonies into the Dominion of New England in 1686 and enlisted Sir Edmund Andros to rule the region.

William and Mary (1689–1702)
They succeeded James II after the Glorious Revolution of 1688 and helped establish the supremacy of Parliament. Parliament then dissolved the Dominion of New England and restored the colonies’ charters.

**England Loses 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 to buy 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 nearly every colony, a governor appointed by the king served as the highest authority. The governor presided over a political structure that included an advisory council, usually appointed by the governor, and a local assembly, elected by eligible colonists (land-owning white males). The governor held a wide range of powers. He had the authority to call and disband the assembly, appoint and dismiss judges, and oversee all aspects of colonial trade.
However, just as England’s economic policies were stronger in print than in practice, its colonial governors were not as powerful as they might seem. The colonial assembly, not the king, paid the governor’s salary. Using their power of the purse liberally, the colonists influenced the governor in a variety of ways, from the approval of laws to the appointment of judges.

Under England's less-than-watchful eye, the colonies were developing a taste for self-government that would eventually create the conditions for rebellion. Nehemiah Grew, a British mercantilist, voiced an early concern about the colonies' growing self-determination. He warned his fellow subjects in 1707.

**A Personal Voice Nehemiah Grew**

"The time may come . . . when the colonies may become populous and with the increase of arts and sciences strong and politic, forgetting their relation to the mother countries, will then confederate and consider nothing further than the means to support their ambition of standing on their [own] legs."

—quoted in *The Colonial Period of American History*

However, 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.

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### TERMS & NAMES

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

### MAIN IDEA

2. **TAKING NOTES**

Create a problem-solution chart similar to the one below. 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?

### CRITICAL THINKING

3. **ANALYZING ISSUES**

Reread Grew’s warning quoted above. Explain why the British did not want this to happen.

**Think About:**
- the goals of mercantilism
- what might happen to Great Britain’s economy if Grew’s prediction came true

4. **SUMMARIZING**

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

5. **PREDICTING EFFECTS**

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?
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.

“A Personal Voice  PHILIP VICKERS FITHIAN

“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.”

—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.

Life in Southern Society

As the Southern colonies grew in wealth and population, they also grew in diversity. 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. 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. There they raised grain, livestock, and tobacco. A wave of Scots and Scots-Irish also settled in the South, residing mainly along the hills of western North Carolina.
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. The activities at the Carter mansion described by Philip Fithian reflected the luxury of planter life. Fithian recalled attending numerous balls, banquets, dance recitals, and parties that continued for 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, colonial standards of living rose dramatically in the years from 1700 to 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 Chesapeake farmers and merchants prospered.

**THE ROLE OF WOMEN** Women in Southern society—and Northern society as well—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 the basics of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Instead, 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.”

**Indentured Servants** Also low on Southern society’s ladder were indentured servants. 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 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. Black Africans were also thought better able to endure the harsh physical demands of plantation labor in hot climates. By 1690, nearly 13,000 black 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...
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 criss-crossing 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 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.

> **A PERSONAL VOICE** **Olaudah Equiano**

> "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 . . . ."

—*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, up to 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.

A PERSONAL VOICE  JOHN FERDINAND SMYTH

“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.”

—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.

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, 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 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 group’s ancestors and gods and usually involved loud chants and quick, circular steps. Despite the white colonists’ efforts to eradicate it, the ritual endured.

Making Inferences

Why weren’t slave owners punished if they killed their slaves?

Background

Rice was an important crop in West Africa for centuries before the slave trade began.

The gourd fiddle and drum, both made by slaves, reflect ways in which enslaved African Americans continued their African traditions.
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.”

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 Commercial North

The Northern colonies developed a predominantly urban society, based on commerce and trade.

The states that were once the Northern colonies remain predominantly urban today.

Terms & Names
- Enlightenment
- Benjamin Franklin
- Jonathan Edwards
- Great Awakening

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

**A PERSONAL VOICE  JOHN ADAMS**

“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.”

---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.

**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 Yorkers 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 sugar cane 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 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 gridlike 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 parklike 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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**Daily Urban Life in Colonial Times**

By the mid-18th century, colonial cities were prosperous and growing. Brick rowhouses 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.*
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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE BENJAMIN FRANKLIN**

“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?”

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

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.

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**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 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 political thought in the colonies. Colonial leaders such as Thomas Jefferson used reason to conclude that individuals have natural rights, which governments must respect. Enlightenment principles eventually would lead many colonists to question the authority of the British monarchy.

**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.

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. In his most famous sermon, delivered in 1741, Edwards vividly described God’s mercy.

**A PERSONAL VOICE**

Jonathan Edwards

“The God that holds you over the pit of hell, much as one holds a spider, or some loathsome insect over the fire, abhors [hates] you, and is dreadfully provoked: His wrath towards you burns like fire; He looks upon you as worthy of nothing else but to be cast into the fire; . . . and yet it is nothing but His hand that holds you from falling into the fire every moment.”

—“Sinner in the Hands of an Angry God”

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.

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 experiment 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.

Benjamin Franklin

1706–1790

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 missionary to a Native American settlement.
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 de-emphasizing 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.

The British minister George Whitefield was a major force behind the Great Awakening. In his seven journeys to the American colonies between 1738 and 1770, Whitefield preached dramatic sermons that brought many listeners to tears.

Vocabulary
denomination: a large group of religious congregations united by shared beliefs

1. TERMS & NAMES
   - Enlightenment
   - Benjamin Franklin
   - Jonathan Edwards
   - Great Awakening

MAIN IDEA

2. TAKING NOTES
   Re-create the diagram below on your paper and fill it in with historical examples that illustrate the main idea at the top.

   The Diversity of Northern Colonies
   - Economy
   - Population
   - Religious Groups
   examples examples examples

   Name the advantages and the disadvantages of this kind of society.

CRITICAL THINKING

3. COMPARING
   What positive and negative trends that emerged in the Northern colonies during the 1700s do you think still affect the United States today? Support your responses with details from the text. Think About:
   - the growth of cities
   - the influx of immigrants
   - the status of women and African Americans
   - the effects of the Enlightenment and the Great Awakening

4. MAKING INFERENCES
   How do you think a person who believed in the ideas of the Enlightenment might have assessed the Salem witchcraft trials? Support your response with reasons.

5. CONTRASTING
   In what ways did the Northern colonies differ from the Southern colonies in the 1700s? Use evidence from the text to support your response.
The French and Indian War

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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  JOSEPH NICHOLS**

“About 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.”

—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, the first permanent French settlement in North America.

After establishing Quebec, French priests and traders spread into the heart of the continent. In 1682, Robert Cavelier, 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 1,000,000 in the British colonies).

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 ordinary 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 American 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 supposedly 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, Britain’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 American 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 surprise, 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 Americans, who found the victorious British harder to bargain with than the French had been.

**MAIN IDEA**

**Summarizing**

How did Great Britain’s victory change the balance of power in North America?

**GEOMAP**

**European Claims in North America**

1. **Region** What do these maps tell you about the British Empire in the mid-18th century?
2. **Place** What happened to France’s possessions between 1754 and 1763?
VICTORY BRINGS NEW PROBLEMS  Claiming ownership of the Ohio River Valley 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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  PONTIAC**

“When I go to see the English commander and say to him that some of our comrades are dead, instead of bewailing their death, as our French brothers do, he laughs at me and at you. If I ask for anything for our sick, he refuses with the reply that he has no use for us. From all this you can well see that they are seeking our ruin. Therefore, my brothers, we must all swear their destruction and wait no longer.”

—quoted in Red and White

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. (See the map on page 87.) 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 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 merchants...
“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.

SKILLBUILDER Analyzing Political Cartoons
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?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R24.

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.

1. TERMS & NAMES
   - New France
   - George Washington
   - French and Indian War
   - William Pitt
   - Pontiac
   - Proclamation of 1763
   - George Grenville
   - Sugar Act

2. MAIN IDEA
   2. TAKING NOTES
   Create a time line of the major events of the French and Indian War and its aftermath. Use the dates already plotted on the time line below as a guide.

   1754  1763  1759  1764

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

3. CRITICAL THINKING
   3. ANALYZING CAUSES
   How did the French and Indian War lead to tension between the colonists and the British government?

4. EVALUATING DECISIONS
   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.

5. HYPOTHEORIZING
   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

The Colonies Come of Age  89
Colonial Courtship

The concept of dating among teenagers was nonexistent in colonial times. Young people were considered either children or adults, and as important as marriage was in the colonies, sweethearts were older than one might suspect. The practices of courtship and marriage varied among the different communities.

FRONTIER OR BACKCOUNTRY PEOPLE

Andrew Jackson, depicted with his wife in the painting below, “stole” his wife (she was willing) from her family. Jackson was following a custom of the backcountry people, who lived along the western edge of the colonies.

These colonists, mostly Scots-Irish, based their marriages on the old custom of “abduction”—stealing the bride—often with her consent. Even regular marriages began with the groom and his friends coming to “steal” the bride. Much drinking and dancing accompanied these wild and hilarious weddings.

PURITANS

For Puritans, marriage was a civil contract, not a religious or sacred union. Although adults strictly supervised a couple’s courting, parents allowed two unusual practices. One was the use of a courting stick, a long tube into which the couple could whisper while the family was in another room. The other was the practice of “bundling”: a young man spent the night in the same bed as his sweetheart, with a large bundling board (shown below) between them.

Before marrying, the couple had to allow for Puritan leaders to voice any objections to the marriage at the meeting house. Passing that, the couple would marry in a very simple civil ceremony and share a quiet dinner.
Many African slaves married in a “jumping the broomstick” ceremony, in which the bride and groom jumped over a broomstick to seal their union. Although there is disagreement among African-American scholars, some suggest that the above painting depicts a slave wedding on a South Carolina plantation in the late 1700s.

Quaker couples intent on marrying needed the consent not only of the parents but also of the whole Quaker community. Quakers who wanted to marry had to go through a 16-step courtship phase before they could wed. Quaker women, however, were known to reject men at the last minute.

In Virginia, marriage was a sacred union. Since the marriage often involved a union of properties, and love was not necessary, parents were heavily involved in the negotiations. In this illustration from a dance manual (right), a young upper-class couple work to improve their social graces by practicing an elaborate dance step.

**WHO MARRIED?**

- **Puritans:**
  - 98% of males and 94% of females married
  - Grooms were usually a few years older than brides
  - Discouraged marriages between first cousins

- **Virginians:**
  - 25% of males never married; most females married
  - Grooms nearly 10 years older than brides
  - Allowed first-cousin marriages

- **Quakers:**
  - 16% of women single at age 50
  - forbade first-cousin marriages

- **Frontier People:**
  - Almost all women and most men married
  - Ages of bride and groom about the same
  - Youngest group to marry

*Source: David Hackett Fischer, Albion’s Seed*

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<th>Average Age at Marriage</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Group</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Puritan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginians</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Delaware</td>
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<tr>
<td>in Penn. &amp; N.J.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Philadelphians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontier People</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Who Could Divorce?**

- **Puritans:** Yes
- **Virginians:** No
- **Quakers:** No

*Source: David Hackett Fischer, Albion’s Seed*

**THINKING CRITICALLY**

1. **Interpreting Data** What was a common characteristic of courtship among Puritans, Quakers, and Virginians?

   **SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R22.**

2. **Synthesizing** Research modern courtship practices by interviewing your parents or relatives. Write a brief paper comparing and contrasting modern-day and colonial courtship practices.
The French and Indian War (pages 85–89)
7. How did the goals of the French colonists differ from those of the English colonists?
8. What problems were brought about for Britain by its victory in the French and Indian War?

CRITICAL THINKING
1. USING YOUR NOTES In a chart like the one below, show the differences between the Northern and Southern economies that led to the development of two distinct cultural regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Northern Economy</th>
<th>Southern Economy</th>
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2. DEVELOPING HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE How did immigration contribute to the ethnic diversity of the American colonies after 1700?

3. ANALYZING EFFECTS How did the French and Indian War help inspire a sense of unity and shared identity among the colonists?
Use the chart and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer questions 1 and 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kings and Queens of England, 1685–1820</th>
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<tr>
<td>James II</td>
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<tr>
<td>William III &amp; Mary II</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anne</td>
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<tr>
<td>George I</td>
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<tr>
<td>George II</td>
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<tr>
<td>George III</td>
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</table>

1. Why was the Glorious Revolution of 1688 significant to the colonies?
   - A William and Mary supported capitalism instead of mercantilism.
   - B William and Mary practiced Catholicism instead of Anglicanism.
   - C William and Mary supported the supremacy of Parliament.
   - D William and Mary appointed Sir Edmund Andros to enforce the Navigation Acts.

2. The Treaty of Paris ending the French and Indian War was signed during the reign of —
   - F Queen Anne
   - G King George I
   - H King George II
   - J King George III

3. In the 1700s an intellectual movement known as the Enlightenment developed in Europe and spread to the colonies. Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson were among those colonists heavily influenced by Enlightenment ideas. In which of the following ways did the Enlightenment affect the colonists?
   - A Enlightenment ideas led people to expand the trade in enslaved persons.
   - B Enlightenment ideas stirred people to rededicate themselves to God.
   - C Enlightenment ideas persuaded people to establish colonies in order to generate a favorable balance of trade.
   - D Enlightenment ideas convinced people of the importance of civil rights.

4. Compared to the Southern colonies, the Northern colonies in 1720 were —
   - F less economically diverse.
   - G less dependent on trade with England.
   - H more dependent on trade with England.
   - J more urban.

For additional test practice, go online for:
- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials

INTERACT WITH HISTORY
Think about the issues you explored at the beginning of the chapter. 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.

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 in the early history of the colony.

FOCUS ON WRITING
The British Parliament has just enacted the Sugar Act of 1764. As a colonial leader, you need to decide if you are for or against the Sugar Act. Write a pamphlet in which you support or oppose the new tax. Begin by clearly identifying your position and then prepare a clear list of evidence that supports your position. Also, be sure to counter arguments for the opposing viewpoint.
**Essential Question**

What were the causes and major events of the American revolution and who were the significant individuals involved in the conflict?

**What You Will Learn**

In this chapter you will learn what led the American colonists to declare independence from Great Britain and why they were victorious in their fight for freedom.

**SECTION 1: The Stirrings of Rebellion**

Conflict between Great Britain and the American colonies grew over issues of taxation, representation, and liberty.

**SECTION 2: Ideas Help Start a Revolution**

Tensions increased throughout the colonies until the Continental Congress declared independence on July 4, 1776.

**SECTION 3: Struggling Toward Saratoga**

After a series of setbacks, American forces won at Saratoga and survived.

**SECTION 4: Winning the War**

Strategic victories in the South and at Yorktown enabled the Americans to defeat the British.

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**1765** The British Parliament passes the Stamp Act.

**1766** Scotland’s James Watt patents a steam engine capable of running other machines.

**1768** George III becomes king of Great Britain.

**1770** Tukolor Kingdom arises in the former Songhai region of West Africa.

**1772** The Reign of Louis XVI begins in France.

**1774** Parliament passes the Intolerable Acts.

**1774** First Continental Congress convenes.

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The Sons of Liberty pull down a statue of George III on the Bowling Green, New York, July 9, 1776.
It is 1767, and your Boston printing shop may soon be forced to close. British import taxes have all but eliminated your profits. In response to petitions to repeal the tax, the king has instead stationed troops throughout the city. Some of your neighbors favor further petitions, but others urge stronger measures. How do you think the colonists should respond?

**Explore the Issues**

- Should American colonists obey every law passed in Britain?
- Are colonists entitled to the same rights as all other British subjects?
The Stirrings of Rebellion

Conflict between Great Britain and the American colonies grew over issues of taxation, representation, and liberty.

The events that shaped the American Revolution are a turning point in humanity’s fight for freedom.

On the cold, clear night of March 5, 1770, a mob gathered outside the Customs House in Boston. They heckled the British sentry on guard, calling him a “lobster-back” to mock his red uniform. More soldiers arrived, and the mob began hurling stones and snowballs at them. At that moment, Crispus Attucks, a sailor of African and Native American ancestry, arrived with a group of angry laborers.

A PERSONAL VOICE  JOHN ADAMS

“This Attucks . . . appears to have undertaken to be the hero of the night; and to lead this army with banners . . . up to King street with their clubs . . . [T]his man with his party cried, ‘Do not be afraid of them . . .’ He had hardiness enough to fall in upon them, and with one hand took hold of a bayonet, and with the other knocked the man down.”

—quoted in The Black Presence in the Era of the American Revolution

Attucks’s action ignited the troops. Ignoring orders not to shoot, one soldier and then others fired on the crowd. Five people were killed; several were wounded. Crispus Attucks was, according to a newspaper account, the first to die.

The Colonies Organize to Resist Britain

The uprisings at the Customs House illustrated the rising tensions between Britain and its American colonies. In order to finance debts from the French and Indian War, as well as from European wars, Parliament had turned hungry eyes on the colonies’ resources.

THE STAMP ACT  The seeds of increased tension were sown in March 1765 when Parliament, persuaded by Prime Minister George Grenville, passed the Stamp Act. The Stamp Act required colonists to purchase special stamped paper for every legal document, license, newspaper, pamphlet, and almanac, and imposed special “stamp duties” on packages of playing cards and dice. The tax reached into every colonial pocket. Colonists who disobeyed the law were to be tried in the vice-admiralty courts, where convictions were probable.
STAMP ACT PROTESTS  When word of the Stamp Act reached the colonies in May of 1765, the colonists united in their defiance. Boston shopkeepers, artisans, and laborers organized a secret resistance group called the Sons of Liberty. One of its founders was Harvard-educated Samuel Adams, who, although unsuccessful in business and deeply in debt, proved himself to be a powerful and influential political activist.

By the end of the summer, the Sons of Liberty were harassing customs workers, stamp agents, and sometimes royal governors. Facing mob threats and demonstrations, stamp agents all over the colonies resigned. The Stamp Act was to become effective on November 1, 1765, but colonial protest prevented any stamps from being sold.

During 1765 and early 1766, the individual colonial assemblies confronted the Stamp Act measure. Virginia’s lower house adopted several resolutions put forth by a 29-year-old lawyer named Patrick Henry. These resolutions stated that Virginians could be taxed only by the Virginia assembly—that is, only by their own representatives. Other assemblies passed similar resolutions.

The colonial assemblies also made a strong collective protest. In October 1765, delegates from nine colonies met in New York City. This Stamp Act Congress issued a Declaration of Rights and Grievances, which stated that Parliament lacked the power to impose taxes on the colonies because the colonists were not represented in Parliament. More than 10 years earlier, the colonies had rejected Benjamin Franklin’s Albany Plan of Union, which called for a joint colonial council to address defense issues. Now, for the first time, the separate colonies began to act as one.

Merchants in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia agreed not to import goods manufactured in Britain until the Stamp Act was repealed. They expected that British merchants would force Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act. The widespread boycott worked. In March 1766, Parliament repealed the Stamp Act; but on the same day, to make its power clear, Parliament issued the Declaratory Act. This act asserted Parliament’s full right to make laws “to bind the colonies and people of America . . . in all cases whatsoever.”

THE TOWNSHEND ACTS  Within a year after Parliament repealed the Stamp Act, Charles Townshend, the leading government minister at the time, impetuously decided on a new method of gaining revenue from the American colonies. His proposed revenue laws, passed by Parliament in 1767, became known as the Townshend Acts. Unlike the Stamp Act, which was a direct tax, these were indirect taxes, or duties levied on imported materials—glass, lead, paint, and paper—as they came into the colonies from Britain. The acts also imposed a three-penny tax on tea, the most popular drink in the colonies.

The colonists reacted with rage and well-organized resistance. Educated Americans spoke out against the Townshend Acts, protesting “taxation without representation.” Boston’s Samuel Adams called for another boycott of British goods, and American women of every rank in society became involved in the protest. Writer Mercy Otis Warren of Massachusetts urged women to lay their British “female ornaments aside,” foregoing “feathers, furs, rich sattins and . . . capes.” Wealthy women stopped buying British luxuries and joined other women in spinning bees. These were public displays of spinning and weaving of colonial-made cloth designed to show colonists’ determination to boycott British-made cloth. Housewives also boycotted British tea and exchanged recipes for tea made from birch bark and sage.
Conflict intensified in June 1768. British agents in Boston seized the Liberty, a ship belonging to local merchant John Hancock. The customs inspector claimed that Hancock had smuggled in a shipment of wine from Madeira and had failed to pay the customs taxes. The seizure triggered riots against customs agents. In response, the British stationed 2,000 “redcoats,” or British soldiers—so named for the red jackets they wore—in Boston.

**Tension Mounts in Massachusetts**

The presence of British soldiers in Boston’s streets charged the air with hostility. The city soon erupted in clashes between British soldiers and colonists and later in a daring tea protest, all of which pushed the colonists and Britain closer to war.

**THE BOSTON MASSACRE** One sore point was the competition for jobs between colonists and poorly paid soldiers who looked for extra work in local shipyards during off-duty hours. On the cold afternoon of March 5, 1770, a fist-fight broke out over jobs. That evening a mob gathered in front of the Customs House and taunted the guards. When Crispus Attucks and several dockhands appeared on the scene, an armed clash erupted, killing three men including Attucks, and fatally wounding two more. Instantly, Samuel Adams and other colonial agitators labeled this confrontation the Boston Massacre, thus presenting it as a British attack on defenseless citizens.

Despite strong feelings on both sides, the political atmosphere relaxed somewhat during the next two years until 1772, when a group of Rhode Island colonists attacked a British customs schooner that patrolled the coast for smugglers. After the ship accidentally ran aground near Providence, the colonists boarded the vessel and burned it to the waterline. In response, King George named a special commission to seek out the suspects and bring them to England for trial.

**THE BOSTON MASSACRE**

Paul Revere was not only a patriot, he was a silversmith and an engraver as well. One of the best-known of his engravings, depicting the Boston Massacre, is a masterful piece of anti-British propaganda. Widely circulated, Revere’s engraving played a key role in rallying revolutionary fervor.

- The sign above the redcoats reads “Butcher’s Hall.”
- The British commander, Captain Prescott (standing at the far right of the engraving) appears to be inciting the troops to fire, whereas in fact, he tried to calm the situation.
- At the center foreground is a small dog, a detail that gave credence to the rumor that, following the shootings, dogs licked the blood of the victims from the street.

**SKILLBUILDER Interpreting Visual Sources**

1. According to the details of the engraving, what advantages do the redcoats have that the colonists do not? What point does the artist make through this contrast?

2. How could this engraving have contributed to the growing support for the Patriots’ cause?

**SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R23.**
The plan to haul Americans to England for trial ignited widespread alarm. The assemblies of Massachusetts and Virginia set up committees of correspondence to communicate with other colonies about this and other threats to American liberties. By 1774, such committees formed a buzzing communication network linking leaders in nearly all the colonies.

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY
Early in 1773, Lord Frederick North, the British prime minister, faced a new problem. The British East India Company, which held an official monopoly on tea imports, had been hit hard by the colonial boycotts. With its warehouses bulging with 17 million pounds of tea, the company was nearing bankruptcy. To save it, North devised the Tea Act, which granted the company the right to sell tea to the colonies free of the taxes that colonial tea sellers had to pay. This action would cut colonial merchants out of the tea trade, because the East India Company could sell its tea directly to consumers for less. North hoped the American colonists would simply buy the cheaper tea; instead, they protested violently.

On the moonlit evening of December 16, 1773, a large group of Boston rebels disguised themselves as Native Americans and proceeded to take action against three British tea ships anchored in the harbor. John Andrews, an onlooker, wrote a letter on December 18, 1773, describing what happened.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  JOHN ANDREWS**

"They muster’d . . . to the number of about two hundred, and proceeded . . . to Griffin’s wharf, where [the three ships] lay, each with 114 chests of the ill-fated article . . . and before nine o’clock in the evening, every chest from on board the three vessels was knock’d to pieces and flung over the sides. They say the actors were Indians from Narragansett. Whether they were or not, . . . they appear’d as such, being cloth’d in Blankets with the heads muffled, and copper color’d countenances, being each arm’d with a hatchet or axe. . . ."

—quoted in 1776: Journals of American Independence

In this incident, later known as the **Boston Tea Party**, the “Indians” dumped 18,000 pounds of the East India Company’s tea into the waters of Boston Harbor.

THE INTOLERABLE ACTS
King George III was infuriated by this organized destruction of British property, and he pressed Parliament to act. In 1774, Parliament responded by passing a series of measures that colonists called the **Intolerable Acts**. One law shut down Boston Harbor because the colonists had refused to pay for the damaged tea. Another, the Quartering Act, authorized British commanders to house soldiers in vacant private homes and other buildings. In addition to these measures, General Thomas Gage, commander in chief of British forces in North America, was appointed the new governor of Massachusetts. To keep the peace, he placed Boston under **martial law**, or rule imposed by military forces.

The committees of correspondence quickly moved into action and assembled the First Continental Congress. In September 1774, 56 delegates met in Philadelphia and drew up a declaration of colonial rights. They defended the colonies’ right to run their own affairs. They supported the protests in Massachusetts and stated that if the British used force against the colonies, the colonies should fight back. They also agreed to reconvene in May 1775 if their demands weren’t met.

PROPOSITION 13
A more recent tax revolt occurred in California on June 6, 1978, when residents voted in a tax reform law known as Proposition 13. By the late 1970s, taxes in California were among the highest in the nation. The property tax alone was fifty-two percent above the national norm. Proposition 13, initiated by ordinary citizens, limited the tax on real property to one percent of its value in 1975–1976. It passed with sixty-five percent of the vote.

Because of the resulting loss of revenue, many state agencies were scaled down or cut. In 1984, California voters approved a state lottery that provides supplemental funds for education. Proposition 13 still remains a topic of heated debate.
**Fighting Erupts at Lexington and Concord**

After the First Continental Congress, colonists in many eastern New England towns stepped up military preparations. Minutemen, or civilian soldiers, began to quietly stockpile firearms and gunpowder. General Gage soon learned about these activities and prepared to strike back.

**TO CONCORD, BY THE LEXINGTON ROAD** The spring of 1775 was a cold one in New England. Because of the long winter frosts, food was scarce. General Gage had been forced to put his army on strict rations, and British morale was low. Around the same time, Gage became concerned about reports brought to him concerning large amounts of arms and munitions hidden outside of Boston.

In March, Gage sent agents toward Concord, a town outside of Boston reported to be the site of one of the stockpiles. The agents returned with maps detailing where arms were rumored to be stored in barns, empty buildings, and private homes. The agents also told that John Hancock and Samuel Adams, perhaps the two most prominent leaders of resistance to British authority, were staying in Lexington, a smaller community about five miles east of Concord. As the snows melted and the roads cleared, Gage drew up orders for his men to march along the Lexington Road to Concord, where they would seize and destroy all munitions that they could find.

**“THE REGULARS ARE COMING!”** As General Gage began to ready his troops quartered in Boston, minutemen were watching. Rumors were that a strike by British troops against resistance activities would come soon, although no one knew exactly when, nor did they know which towns would be targeted.

With Hancock and Adams in hiding, much of the leadership of resistance activity in Boston fell to a prominent young physician named Joseph Warren. Sometime during the afternoon of April 18, Doctor Warren consulted a confidential source close to the British high command. The source informed him that Gage intended to march on Concord by way of Lexington, seize Adams and Hancock, and destroy all hidden munitions. Warren immediately sent for Paul Revere, a member of the Sons of Liberty, and told him to warn Adams and Hancock as well as the townspeople along the way. Revere began to organize a network of riders who would spread the alarm.

On the night of April 18, Paul Revere, William Dawes, and Samuel Prescott rode out to spread word that 700 British Regulars, or army soldiers, were headed...
In what ways did colonial reaction to British rule intensify between 1765 and 1775?

**1773 TEA ACT**

**British Action**
Britain gives the East India Company special concessions in the colonial tea business and shuts out colonial tea merchants.

**Colonial Reaction**
Colonists in Boston rebel, dumping 18,000 pounds of East India Company tea into Boston Harbor.

**1774 INTOLERABLE ACTS**

**British Action**
King George III tightens control over Massachusetts by closing Boston Harbor and quartering troops.

**Colonial Reaction**
Colonial leaders form the First Continental Congress and draw up a declaration of colonial rights.

**1775 LEXINGTON AND CONCORD**

**British Action**
General Gage orders troops to march to Concord, Massachusetts, and seize colonial weapons.

**Colonial Reaction**
Minutemen intercept the British and engage in battle—first at Lexington, and then at Concord.

for Concord. Before long, the darkened countryside rang with church bells and gunshots—prearranged signals to warn the population that the Regulars were coming.

Revere burst into the house where Adams and Hancock were staying and warned them to flee to the backwoods. He continued his ride until he, like Dawes, was detained by British troops. As Revere was being questioned, shots rang out and the British officer realized that the element of surprise had been lost. When more shots rang out, the officer ordered the prisoners released so that he could travel with greater speed to warn the other British troops marching toward Lexington that resistance awaited them there.

This bottle contains tea that colonists threw into Boston Harbor during the Boston Tea Party.

The Battle of Lexington, as depicted in a mid-nineteenth-century painting.
soldiers sent a volley of shots into the departing militia. Eight minutemen were killed and ten more were wounded, but only one British soldier was injured. The Battle of Lexington lasted only 15 minutes.

The British marched on to Concord, where they found an empty arsenal. After a brief skirmish with minutemen, the British soldiers lined up to march back to Boston, but the march quickly became a slaughter. Between 3,000 and 4,000 minutemen had assembled by now, and they fired on the marching troops from behind stone walls and trees. British soldiers fell by the dozen. Bloodied and humiliated, the remaining British soldiers made their way back to Boston.

While the battles were going on, Adams and Hancock were fleeing deeper into the New England countryside. At one point, they heard the sound of musketfire in the distance. Adams remarked that it was a fine day and Hancock, assuming that his companion was speaking of the weather said, “Very pleasant.” “I mean,” Adams corrected Hancock, “this is a glorious day for America.”
Tensions increased throughout the colonies until the Continental Congress declared independence on July 4, 1776.

The Declaration of Independence continues to inspire and challenge people everywhere.

**Terms & Names**
- Second Continental Congress
- Olive Branch Petition
- Common Sense
- Thomas Jefferson
- Declaration of Independence
- Patriots
- Loyalists

One American’s Story

William Franklin, son of the famous American writer, scientist, statesman, and diplomat Benjamin Franklin, was royal governor of New Jersey. Despite his father’s patriotic sympathies, William remained stubbornly loyal to King George. In a letter written on August 2, 1775, to Lord Dartmouth, he stated his position and that of others who resisted revolutionary views.

“A PERSONAL VOICE  WILLIAM FRANKLIN

“There is indeed a dread in the minds of many here that some of the leaders of the people are aiming to establish a republic. Rather than submit . . . we have thousands who will risk the loss of their lives in defense of the old Constitution. [They] are ready to declare themselves whenever they see a chance of its being of any avail.”

—quoted in *A Little Revenge: Benjamin Franklin and His Son*

Because of William’s stand on colonial issues, communication between him and his father virtually ceased. The break between William Franklin and his father exemplified the chasm that now divided American from American.

The Colonies Hover Between Peace and War

In May of 1775, colonial leaders convened a second Continental Congress in Philadelphia to debate their next move. Beyond their meeting hall, however, events continued moving quickly, as minutemen and British soldiers clashed in a bloody battle outside Boston, and an increasingly furious King George readied his country for war.

**THE SECOND CONTINENTAL CONGRESS** The loyalties that divided colonists sparked endless debates at the Second Continental Congress. John Adams of Massachusetts suggested a sweeping, radical plan—that each colony set up its own government and that the Congress declare the colonies independent.
Furthermore, he argued, the Congress should consider the militiamen besieging Boston to be the Continental Army and name a general to lead them. Moderate John Dickinson of Pennsylvania strongly disagreed with Adams’s call for revolt. In private, he confronted Adams.

**PERSONAL VOICE JOHN DICKINSON**

“What is the reason, Mr. Adams, that you New England men oppose our measures of reconciliation? . . . If you don’t concur with us in our pacific system, I and a number of us will break off from you in New England, and we will carry on the opposition by ourselves in our own way.”

—quoted in *Patriots: The Men Who Started the American Revolution*

The debates raged on into June, but one stubborn fact remained: colonial militiamen were still encamped around Boston. The Congress agreed to recognize them as the Continental Army and appointed as its commander a 43-year-old veteran of the French and Indian War, George Washington. The Congress, acting like an independent government, also authorized the printing of paper money to pay the troops and organized a committee to deal with foreign nations. These actions came just in time.

**THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL** Cooped up in Boston, British General Thomas Gage decided to strike at militiamen who had dug in on Breed’s Hill, north of the city and near Bunker Hill. On the steamy summer morning of June 17, 1775, Gage sent out nearly 2,400 British troops. The British, sweating in wool uniforms and heavy packs, began marching up Breed’s Hill in their customary broad lines. The colonists held their fire until the last minute, then began to shoot down the advancing redcoats. The surviving British troops made a second attack, and then a third. The third assault succeeded, but only because the militiamen ran low on ammunition.

This painting shows “Bunker’s Hill” before the battle, as shells from Boston set nearby Charles Town ablaze. At the battle, the British demonstrated a maneuver they used throughout the war: they massed together, were visible for miles, and failed to take advantage of ground cover.
By the time the smoke cleared, the colonists had lost 450 men, while the British had suffered over 1,000 casualties. The misnamed Battle of Bunker Hill would prove to be the deadliest battle of the war.

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION  By July, the Second Continental Congress was readying the colonies for war while still hoping for peace. Most of the delegates, like most colonists, felt deep loyalty to George III and blamed the bloodshed on the king’s ministers. On July 8, 1775, the Congress sent the king the so-called Olive Branch Petition, urging a return to “the former harmony” between Britain and the colonies.

King George flatly rejected the petition. Furthermore, he issued a proclamation stating that the colonies were in rebellion and urged Parliament to order a naval blockade of the American coast.

The Patriots Declare Independence

In the months after the Olive Branch Petition, a thin document containing the powerful words of an angry citizen began to circulate and change public opinion.

COMMON SENSE  In Common Sense, an anonymous 50-page pamphlet, the colonist Thomas Paine attacked King George III. Paine explained that his own revolt against the king had begun with Lexington and Concord.

A PERSONAL VOICE  THOMAS PAINE

“No man was a warmer wisher for a reconciliation than myself, before the fatal nineteenth of April, 1775, but the moment the event of that day was made known, I rejected the hardened, sullen tempered Pharaoh of England for ever . . . the wretch, that with the pretended title of Father of his people can unfeelingly hear of their slaughter, and composedly sleep with their blood upon his soul.”

—Common Sense

Paine declared that the time had come for colonists to proclaim an independent republic. He argued that independence, which was the American “destiny,” would allow America to trade freely with other nations for guns and ammunition and win foreign aid from British enemies. Finally, Paine stated, independence would give Americans the chance to create a better society—one free from tyranny, with equal social and economic opportunities for all.

Common Sense sold nearly 500,000 copies and was widely applauded. In April 1776, George Washington wrote, “I find Common Sense is working a powerful change in the minds of many men.”

DECLARING INDEPENDENCE  By early summer 1776, events pushed the wavering Continental Congress toward a decision. North Carolina had declared itself independent, and a majority of Virginians told their delegates that they favored independence. At last, the Congress urged each colony to form its own government. On June 7, Virginia delegate Richard Henry Lee moved that “these United Colonies are, and of a right ought to be, free and independent States.”

While talks on this fateful motion were under way, the Congress appointed a committee to prepare a formal declaration explaining the reasons for the colonies’ actions. Virginia lawyer Thomas Jefferson, known for his broad knowledge and skillfully crafted prose, was chosen to express the committee’s points.
Jefferson’s masterful Declaration of Independence drew on the concepts of the English philosopher John Locke, who maintained that people enjoy “natural rights” to life, liberty, and property. Jefferson described these rights as “Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.”

In keeping with Locke’s ideas, Jefferson then declared that governments derive “their just powers from the consent of the governed”—that is, from the people. This right of consent gave the people the right “to alter or to abolish” any government that threatened their unalienable rights and to install a government that would uphold these principles. On the basis of this reasoning, the American colonies declared their independence from Britain, listing in the Declaration the numerous ways in which the British king had violated the “unalienable rights” of the Americans.

The Declaration states flatly that “all men are created equal.” When this phrase was written, it expressed the common belief that free citizens were political equals. It did not claim that all people had the same abilities or ought to have equal wealth. It was not meant to embrace women, Native Americans, and African-American slaves—a large number of Americans. However, Jefferson’s words presented ideals that would later help these groups challenge traditional attitudes.

In his first draft, Jefferson included an eloquent attack on the cruelty and injustice of the slave trade. However, South Carolina and Georgia, the two colonies most dependent on slavery, objected. In order to gain the votes of those two states, Jefferson dropped the offending passage.

On July 2, 1776, the delegates voted unanimously that the American colonies were free, and on July 4, 1776, they adopted the Declaration of Independence. While delegates created a formal copy of the Declaration, the document was read to a crowd in front of the Pennsylvania State House—now called Independence Hall. A rush of pride and anxiety ran through the Patriots—the supporters of independence—when they heard the closing vow: “We mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our Sacred Honor.”

Americans Choose Sides

Americans now faced a difficult, bitter choice: revolution or loyalty to the Crown. This issue divided communities, friends, and even families throughout the colonies.

**LOYALISTS AND PATRIOTS** The exact number of Loyalists—those who opposed independence and remained loyal to the Crown—is unknown. Many with Loyalist sympathies changed sides as the war progressed.

Some Loyalists felt a special tie to the king because they had served as judges, councilors, or governors. Most Loyalists, however, were ordinary people of modest means. They included some people who lived far from the cities and knew little of the events that turned other colonists into revolutionaries. Other people remained loyal because they thought that the British were going to win the war and they wanted to avoid being punished as rebels. Still others were Loyalists because they thought that the crown would protect their rights more effectively than the new colonial governments would.

Patriots drew their numbers from people who saw economic opportunity in an independent America. The Patriot cause embraced farmers, artisans, merchants,
Colonists Choose Sides

Loyalists and Patriots had much to gain and much to lose in the American colonies’ struggle for independence. Fortunes, family ties, and religious obligations as well as personal convictions were at stake. For many, the most important issue was that of national identity. Both sides believed that they were fighting for their country as well as being loyal to what was best for America.

**Patriots**

**Nathanael Greene**
A pacifist Quaker, Nathanael Greene nonetheless chose to fight against the British.

“*I am determined to defend my rights and maintain my freedom or sell my life in the attempt.*”

**James Armistead**
The state of Virginia paid tribute to devoted revolutionary James Armistead, who as a slave had been permitted to enlist:

“At the peril of his life [Armistead] found means to frequent the British camp, and thereby faithfully executed important commissions entrusted to him by the marquis.”

**Mercy Otis Warren**
Patriot Mercy Otis Warren wrote,

“I see the inhabitants of our plundered cities quitting the elegancies of life, possessing nothing but their freedom, I behold faction & discord tearing up an island we once held dear and a mighty Empire long the dread of distant nations, tottering to the very foundation.”

**LOYALISTS**

**Charles Inglis**
A clergymen of the Church of England, Charles Inglis was loyal to the king and argued against independence:

“*By a reconciliation with Britain, [an end] would be put to the present calamitous war, by which many lives have been lost, and so many more must be lost, if it continues.*”

**Joseph Brant**
Mohawk chief Joseph Brant fought for the British during the French and Indian War and remained loyal to the crown during the Revolutionary War.

“If we . . . [do] nothing for the British . . . there will be no peace for us. Our throats will be cut by the Red Coat man or by America . . . We should go and join the father [Britain] . . . this is the only way for us.”

**Isaac Wilkins**
Isaac Wilkins had to leave his home after he opposed sending delegates to the Second Continental Congress.

“I leave America and every endearing connection because I will not raise my hand against my Sovereign, nor will I draw my sword against my country. When I can conscientiously draw it in her favor, my life shall be cheerfully devoted to her service.”
MOB RULE
This British cartoon portrays the events of the Boston Tea Party from the Loyalist perspective. While Patriots are dumping tea, a British tax collector, having been tarred and feathered, is having tea poured down his throat. The “Liberty Tree,” where a copy of the Stamp Act has been nailed upside down, has been converted into a gallows, a device used for hanging people.

SKILLBUILDER Analyzing Political Cartoons
1. How does the cartoonist make the mob look sinister?
2. What kind of comment does the cartoonist make by suspending a hangman’s noose from the “Liberty Tree”? Explain.

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R24.

landowners, and elected officials. German colonists in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia also joined the fight for independence. While Patriots made up nearly half the population, many Americans remained neutral.

TAKING SIDES The conflict presented dilemmas for other groups as well. The Quakers generally supported the Patriots but did not fight because they did not believe in war. Many African Americans fought on the side of the Patriots, while others joined the Loyalists since the British promised freedom to slaves who would fight for the crown. Most Native Americans supported the British because they viewed colonial settlers as a bigger threat to their lands.

Now the colonies were plunged into two wars—a war for independence and a civil war in which Americans found themselves on opposing sides. The price of choosing sides could be high. In declaring their independence, the Patriots had invited war with the mightiest empire on earth.
The Declaration of Independence

Thomas Jefferson’s Declaration of Independence is one of the most important and influential legal documents of modern times. Although the text frequently refers to eighteenth-century events, its Enlightenment philosophy and politics have continuing relevance today. For more than 200 years the Declaration of Independence has inspired leaders of other independence movements and has remained a crucial document in the struggle for civil rights and human rights.

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

A Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled.

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

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness; that, to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security.

Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

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

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

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.
He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;
For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States;
For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world;
For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent;
For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury;
For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offenses;
For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighboring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies;
For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments;
For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

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

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

He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.
He has constrained our fellow Citizens, taken Captive on the high Seas, to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

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

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

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

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the Authority of the good People of these Colonies solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do.
The Declaration ends with the delegates’ pledge, or pact. The delegates at the Second Continental Congress knew that, in declaring their independence from Great Britain, they were committing treason—a crime punishable by death. "We must all hang together," Benjamin Franklin reportedly said, as the delegates prepared to sign the Declaration, "or most assuredly we shall all hang separately."

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

[Signed by]

John Hancock [President of the Continental Congress]

[Georgia]
Button Gwinnett
Lyman Hall
George Walton

[Rhode Island]
Stephen Hopkins
William Ellery

[Connecticut]
Roger Sherman
Samuel Huntington
William Williams
Oliver Wolcott

[North Carolina]
William Hooper
Joseph Hewes
John Penn

[South Carolina]
Edward Rutledge
Thomas Heyward, Jr.
Thomas Lynch, Jr.
Arthur Middleton

[Georgia]
Samuel Chase
William Paca
Thomas Stone
Charles Carroll

[Virginia]
George Wythe
Richard Henry Lee
Thomas Jefferson
Benjamin Harrison
Thomas Nelson, Jr.
Francis Lightfoot Lee
Carter Braxton

[North Carolina]
Robert Morris
Benjamin Rush
Benjamin Franklin
John Morton
George Clymer
James Smith
George Taylor
James Wilson
George Ross

[Massachusetts]
Josiah Bartlett
William Whipple
Matthew Thornton

[Connecticut]
Samuel Adams
John Adams
Robert Treat Paine
Elbridge Gerry

[New York]
William Floyd
Philip Livingston
Francis Lewis
Lewis Morris

[New Jersey]
Richard Stockton
John Witherspoon
Francis Hopkinson
John Hart
Abraham Clark

[Delaware]
Caesar Rodney
George Read
Thomas McKean

112 Chapter 4
After a series of setbacks, American forces won at Saratoga and survived. Determination, resilience, and unity have become part of the American character.

Terms & Names
- Valley Forge
- Trenton
- Saratoga
- inflation
- profiteering

One American’s Story

After the colonists had declared independence, few people thought the rebellion would last. A divided colonial population of about two and a half million people faced a nation of 10 million that was backed by a worldwide empire.

Albigense Waldo worked as a surgeon at Valley Forge outside Philadelphia, which served as the site of the Continental Army’s camp during the winter of 1777–1778. While British troops occupied Philadelphia and found quarters inside warm homes, the underclothed and underfed Patriots huddled in makeshift huts in the freezing, snow-covered Pennsylvania woods. Waldo, who wrote of his stay at Valley Forge, reported on what was a common sight at the camp.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  ALBIGENSE WALDO**

“Here comes a bowl of beef soup full of dead leaves and dirt. There comes a soldier. His bare feet are seen through his worn-out shoes—his legs nearly naked from the tattered remains of an only pair of stockings—his Breeches [trousers] are not sufficient to cover his nakedness—his Shirt hanging in Strings—his hair disheveled—his face meager.”

—quoted in *Valley Forge, the Making of an Army*

The ordeal at Valley Forge marked a low point for General Washington’s troops, but even as it occurred, the Americans’ hopes of winning began to improve.
The War Moves to the Middle States

The British had previously retreated from Boston in March 1776, moving the theater of war to the Middle states. As part of a grand plan to stop the rebellion by isolating New England, the British decided to seize New York City.

DEFEAT IN NEW YORK Two brothers, General William Howe and Admiral Richard Howe, joined forces on Staten Island and sailed into New York harbor in the summer of 1776 with the largest British expeditionary force ever assembled—32,000 soldiers, including thousands of German mercenaries, or soldiers who fight solely for money. The Americans called these troops Hessians, because many of them came from the German region of Hesse.

Washington rallied 23,000 men to New York’s defense, but he was vastly outnumbered. Most of his troops were untrained recruits with poor equipment. The battle for New York ended in late August with an American retreat following heavy losses. Michael Graham, a Continental Army volunteer, described the chaotic withdrawal on August 27, 1776.

A PERSONAL VOICE MICHAEL GRAHAM

“...it is impossible for me to describe the confusion and horror of the scene that ensued: the artillery flying . . . over the horses’ backs, our men running in almost every direction, . . . [a]nd the enemy huzzahing when they took prisoners. . . . At the time, I could not account for how it was that our troops were so completely surrounded but have since understood there was another road across the ridge several miles above Flatbush that was left unoccupied by our troops. Here the British passed and got betwixt them and Brooklyn unobserved. This accounts for the disaster of that day.”

—quoted in The Revolution Remembered: Eyewitness Accounts of the War for Independence

By late fall, the British had pushed Washington’s army across the Delaware River into Pennsylvania. The vast majority of Washington’s men had either deserted or had been killed or captured. Fewer than 8,000 men remained under Washington’s command, and the terms of their enlistment were due to end on December 31. Washington desperately needed some kind of victory for his men to keep them from going home.

THE BATTLE OF TRENTON Washington resolved to risk everything on one bold stroke set for Christmas night, 1776. In the face of a fierce storm, he led 2,400 men in small rowboats across the ice-choked Delaware River.

By 8 o’clock the next morning, the men had marched nine miles through sleet and snow to the objective—Trenton, New Jersey, held by a garrison of Hessians. Lulled into confidence by the storm, most of the Hessians had drunk too much rum the night before and were still sleeping it off. In a surprise attack, the Americans killed 30 of the enemy and took 918 captives and six Hessian cannons.

The Americans were rallied by another astonishing victory eight days later against 1,200 British stationed at Princeton. Encouraged by these victories, Washington marched his army into winter camp near Morristown, in northern New Jersey.

THE FIGHT FOR PHILADELPHIA As the muddy fields dried out in the spring of 1777, General Howe began his campaign to seize the American capital at Philadelphia. His troops sailed from New York to the head of Chesapeake Bay, and landed near the capital in late August. The Continental Congress fled the city while Washington’s troops unsuccessfully tried to block the redcoats at nearby Brandywine Creek. The British captured Philadelphia, and the pleasure-loving General Howe settled in to enjoy the hospitality of the city’s grateful Loyalists.
**VICTORY AT SARATOGA** Meanwhile, one of Howe's fellow British generals, General John “Gentleman Johnny” Burgoyne, convinced the London high command to allow him to pursue a complex scheme. Burgoyne’s plan was to lead an army down a route of lakes from Canada to Albany, where he would meet Howe's troops as they arrived from New York City. According to Burgoyne’s plan, the two generals would then join forces to isolate New England from the rest of the colonies.

Burgoyne set out with 4,000 redcoats, 3,000 mercenaries, and 1,000 Mohawk under his command. His army had to haul 30 wagons containing 138 pieces of artillery along with extra personal items, such as fine clothes and champagne. South of Lake Champlain, swamps and gullies, as well as thick underbrush, bogged down Burgoyne’s army. Food supplies ran low.

The Continental Congress had appointed General Horatio Gates to command the Northern Department of the Continental Army. Gates, a popular commander, gathered militiamen and soldiers from all over New York and New England. Burgoyne lost several hundred men every time his forces clashed with the Americans, such as when Ethan Allen and his Green Mountain Boys attacked Burgoyne at Bennington, in what is now Vermont. Even worse, Burgoyne didn’t realize that Howe was preoccupied with conquering and occupying Philadelphia and wasn’t coming to meet him.

Massed American troops finally surrounded Burgoyne at Saratoga, where he surrendered his battered army to General Gates on October 17, 1777. The surrender at Saratoga dramatically changed Britain’s war strategy. From that time on, the British generally kept their troops along the coast, close to the big guns and supply bases of the British fleet.

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**Military Strengths and Weaknesses**

**UNITED STATES**
- Strengths
  - familiarity of home ground
  - leadership of George Washington and other officers
  - inspiring cause of the independence

- Weaknesses
  - most soldiers untrained and undisciplined
  - shortage of food and ammunition
  - inferior navy
  - no central government to enforce wartime policies

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**GREAT BRITAIN**
- Strengths
  - strong, well-trained army and navy
  - strong central government with available funds
  - support of colonial Loyalists and Native Americans

- Weaknesses
  - large distance separating Britain from battlefields
  - troops unfamiliar with terrain
  - weak military leaders
  - sympathy of certain British politicians for the American cause

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**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER**

1. **Location** From which city did General Burgoyne march his troops to Saratoga?
2. **Place** What characteristics did many of the battle sites have in common? Why do you think this was so?
A TURNING POINT  Still bitter from their defeat by the British in the French and Indian War, the French had secretly sent weapons to the Patriots since early 1776. The Saratoga victory bolstered French trust in the American army, and France now agreed to support the Revolution. The French recognized American independence and signed an alliance, or treaty of cooperation, with the Americans in February 1778. According to the terms, France agreed not to make peace with Britain unless Britain also recognized American independence.

WINTER AT VALLEY FORGE  It would take months for French aid to arrive. In the meantime, the British controlled New York and parts of New England. While British troops wintered comfortably in Philadelphia, Washington and his meager Continental Army struggled to stay alive amidst bitter cold and primitive conditions at winter camp in Valley Forge, Pennsylvania. Soldiers suffered from exposure and frostbite, and surgeons like Albigense Waldo worked constantly but often unsuccessfully to save arms and limbs from amputation. Washington’s letters to the Congress and his friends were filled with reports of the suffering and endurance of his men.

A PERSONAL VOICE  GEORGE WASHINGTON

“To see men without Clothes to cover their nakedness, without Blankets to lay on, without Shoes, by which their Marches might be traced by the blood of their feet, and almost as often without Provision . . . is a mark of patience and obedience which in my opinion can scarcely be paralleled.”

—quoted in Ordeal at Valley Forge

Of the 10,000 soldiers who braved wind, snow, and hunger at Valley Forge that winter, more than 2,000 died. Yet those who survived remained at their posts.

Colonial Life During the Revolution

The Revolutionary War touched the life of every American, not just the men on the battlefield.

FINANCING THE WAR  When the Congress ran out of hard currency—silver and gold—it borrowed money by selling bonds to American investors and foreign governments, especially France. It also printed paper money called Continentals. As Congress printed more and more money, its value plunged, causing rising prices, or inflation.

The Congress also struggled to equip the beleaguered army. With few munitions factories and the British navy blockading the coast, the Americans had to smuggle arms from Europe. Some government officials engaged in profiteering, selling scarce goods for a profit. Corrupt merchants either hoarded goods or sold defective merchandise like spoiled meat, cheap shoes, and defective weapons.

In 1781, the Congress appointed a rich Philadelphia merchant named Robert Morris as superintendent of finance. His associate was Haym Salomon, a Jewish political refugee from Poland. Morris and Salomon begged and borrowed on their personal credit to raise money to provide salaries for the Continental Army. They raised funds from many sources,
The demands of war also affected civilians. When men marched off to fight, many wives had to manage farms, shops, and businesses as well as households and families. Some women, such as Benjamin Franklin’s daughter, Sarah Franklin Bache of Philadelphia, organized volunteers to mend clothing for the soldiers. Many women made ammunition from their household silver. And hundreds of women followed their husbands to the battlefield, where they washed, mended, and cooked for the troops.

Some women risked their lives in combat. At Fort Washington, New York, Margaret Corbin replaced a gunner who was shot and then was shot herself. Mary Ludwig Hays McCauly took her husband’s place at a cannon when he was wounded at the Battle of Monmouth. Known for carrying pitchers of water to the soldiers, McCauly won the nickname “Molly Pitcher.” Afterward, General Washington made her a noncommissioned officer for her brave deeds.

Thousands of African-American slaves escaped to freedom, some to the cities, where they passed as free people, others to the frontier, where they sometimes joined Native American tribes. About 5,000 African Americans served in the Continental Army, where their courage, loyalty, and talent impressed white Americans. Native Americans remained on the fringes of the Revolution. Some fought for the British but most remained apart from the conflict.

**SUMMARIZING**
In what ways did women contribute to the Revolutionary War?

**MAIN IDEA**

1. **TERMS & NAMES** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - Valley Forge
   - Trenton
   - Saratoga
   - Inflation
   - Profiteering

2. **TAKING NOTES**
   In a chart like the one below, list each early battle of the American Revolution, its outcome, and why it was important.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Battle</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. **HYPOTHESIZING**
   Imagine that Burgoyne and the British had captured Saratoga in 1777. How might the course of the war have changed? Think About:
   - the military strength of the British
   - the fighting skills of the Americans
   - French support of the colonists

4. **EVALUATING**
   If you were a woman civilian during the beginning of the American Revolution, what problem caused by the war do you think would affect you the most? Think About:
   - inflation and the scarcity of goods
   - the separation of families
   - the demands of the war effort

*The War for Independence* 117
Winning the War

**MAIN IDEA**
Strategic victories in the South and at Yorktown enabled the Americans to defeat the British.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**
The American defeat of the British established the United States as an independent Nation.

**Terms & Names**
- Yorktown
- Friedrich von Steuben
- Marquis de Lafayette
- Charles Cornwallis
- Treaty of Paris
- egalitarianism

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Colonel William Fontaine of the Virginia militia stood with the American and French armies lining a road near Yorktown, Virginia, on the afternoon of October 19, 1781, to witness the formal British surrender. The French were dressed in bright blue coats and white trousers, while the American troops, standing proudly behind their generals, wore rough hunting shirts and faded Continental uniforms. Colonel Fontaine later described the scene.

**A PERSONAL VOICE COLONEL WILLIAM FONTAINE**
I had the happiness to see that British army which so lately spread dismay and desolation through all our country, march forth . . . at 3 o’clock through our whole army, drawn up in two lines about 20 yards distance and return disrobed of all their terrors. . . . You could not have heard a whisper or seen the least motion throughout our whole line, but every countenance was erect and expressed a serene cheerfulness.

—quoted in The Yorktown Campaign and the Surrender of Cornwallis, 1781

The American Revolution had finally ended, and the Americans had won—a fact that astonished the world. Several years before, in the depths of the Valley Forge winter of 1777–1778, few would have thought such an event possible.

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**European Allies Shift the Balance**

In February 1778, in the midst of the frozen winter at Valley Forge, American troops began an amazing transformation. Friedrich von Steuben (vōn stō’bən), a Prussian captain and talented drillmaster, volunteered his services to General Washington and went to work “to make regular soldiers out of country bumpkins.” Von Steuben taught the colonial soldiers to stand at attention, execute field maneuvers, fire and reload quickly, and wield bayonets. With the help of such European military leaders, the raw Continental Army was becoming an effective fighting force.
LAFAYETTE AND THE FRENCH  Around the same time, another military leader, the Marquis de Lafayette (mär-kē’ dō läf’ ē-ät’), a brave, idealistic 20-year-old French aristocrat, offered his assistance. The young Lafayette joined Washington’s staff and bore the misery of Valley Forge, lobbied for French reinforcements in France in 1779, and led a command in Virginia in the last years of the war.

The British Move South

After their devastating defeat at Saratoga, the British changed their military strategy; in the summer of 1778 they began to shift their operations to the South. There, the British hoped to rally Loyalist support, reclaim their former colonies in the region, and then slowly fight their way back north.

EARLY BRITISH SUCCESS IN THE SOUTH  At the end of 1778, a British expedition easily took Savannah, Georgia, and by the spring of 1779, a royal governor once again commanded Georgia. In 1780, General Henry Clinton, who had replaced Howe in New York, along with the ambitious general Charles Cornwallis sailed south with 8,500 men. In their greatest victory of the war, the British captured Charles Town, South Carolina, in May 1780 and marched 5,500 American soldiers off as prisoners of war. Clinton then left for New York, leaving Cornwallis to command the British forces in the South and to conquer South and North Carolina. For most of 1780, Cornwallis succeeded. As the redcoats advanced, they were joined by thousands of African Americans who had escaped from Patriot slave

Revolutionary War, 1778–1781

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER

1. Place  Where were most of the later Revolutionary War battles fought?

2. Movement  Why might General Cornwallis’s choice of Yorktown as a base have left him at a military disadvantage?
owners to join the British and win their freedom. In August, Cornwallis’s army smashed American forces at Camden, South Carolina, and within three months the British had established forts across the state. However, when Cornwallis and his forces advanced into North Carolina, Patriot bands attacked them and cut British communication lines. The continuous harassment forced the redcoats to retreat to South Carolina.

**BRITISH LOSSES IN 1781** Washington ordered Nathanael Greene, his ablest general, to march south and harass Cornwallis as he retreated. Greene divided his force into two groups, sending 600 soldiers under the command of General Daniel Morgan to South Carolina. Cornwallis in turn sent Lieutenant Colonel Banastre Tarleton and his troops to pursue Morgan’s soldiers.

Morgan and his men led the British on a grueling chase through rough countryside. When the forces met in January 1781 at Cowpens, South Carolina, the British expected the outnumbered Americans to flee; but the Continental Army fought back, and forced the redcoats to surrender.

Angered by the defeat at Cowpens, Cornwallis attacked Greene two months later at Guilford Court House, North Carolina. Cornwallis won the battle, but the victory cost him nearly a fourth of his troops—93 were killed, over 400 were wounded, and 26 were missing.

Greene had weakened the British, but he worried about the fight for the South. On April 3, 1781, he wrote a letter to Lafayette, asking for help.

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**A PERSONAL VOICE** *NATHANAELE GREENE*

“[I] wish you to March your force Southward by Alexandria & Fredricksburg to Richmond. . . . It is impossible for the Southern States with all the exertions they can make under the many disadvantages they labour to save themselves. Subsistence is very difficult to be got and therefore it is necessary that the best of troops should be employed. . . . Every exertion should be made for the salvation of the Southern States for on them depend the liberty of the Northern.”

—from The Papers of General Nathanael Greene, vol. VIII

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Daniel Morgan’s colonial forces defeated a crack British regiment under Colonel Tarleton at the battle of Cowpens in 1781. More than 300 British soldiers were killed or wounded, and 600 were taken prisoner. This detail from The Battle of Cowpens by William Ranney shows that the Americans included both white and African-American soldiers.
After the exhausting battle in the Carolinas, Cornwallis chose to move the fight to Virginia, where he met up with reinforcements. First he tried to capture the divisions led by Lafayette and von Steuben. When that failed, Cornwallis made a fateful mistake: he led his army of 7,500 onto the peninsula between the James and York rivers and camped at Yorktown, a few miles from the original English settlement of Jamestown (see map, page 119). Cornwallis planned to fortify Yorktown, take Virginia, and then move north to join Clinton’s forces.

The British Surrender at Yorktown

A combination of good luck and well-timed decisions now favored the American cause. In 1780, a French army of 6,000 had landed in Newport, Rhode Island, after the British left the city to focus on the South. The French had stationed one fleet there and were operating another in the West Indies. When news of Cornwallis’s plans reached him, the Marquis de Lafayette suggested that the American and French armies join forces with the two French fleets and attack the British forces at Yorktown.

VICTORY AT YORKTOWN Following Lafayette’s plan, the Americans and the French closed in on Cornwallis. A French naval force defeated a British fleet and then blocked the entrance to the Chesapeake Bay, thereby preventing a British rescue by sea. Meanwhile, about 17,000 French and American troops surrounded the British on the Yorktown peninsula and bombarded them day and night. The siege of Yorktown lasted about three weeks. On October 17, 1781, with his troops outnumbered by more than two to one and exhausted from constant shelling, Cornwallis finally raised the white flag of surrender.

On October 19, a triumphant Washington, the French generals, and their troops assembled to accept the British surrender. After General Charles O’Hara, representing Cornwallis, handed over his sword, the British troops laid down their arms. In his diary, Captain Johann Ewald, a German officer, tried to explain this astonishing turn of events.

A PERSONAL VOICE CAPTAIN JOHANN EWALD

“With what soldiers in the world could one do what was done by these men, who go about nearly naked and in the greatest privation? Deny the best-disciplined soldiers of Europe what is due them and they will run away in droves, and the general will soon be alone. But from this one can perceive what an enthusiasm—which these poor fellows call ‘Liberty’—can do!”

—Diary of the American War

SEEKING PEACE Peace talks began in Paris in 1782. Representatives of four nations—the United States, Great Britain, France, and Spain—joined the negotiations, with each nation looking out for its own interests. Britain hoped to avoid giving America full independence. France supported American independence but feared America’s becoming a major power. Spain was interested in acquiring the land between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River.
Many observers expected the savvy European diplomats to outwit the Americans at the bargaining table. But the Continental Congress chose an able team of negotiators—John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Jay of New York. Together the three demanded that Britain recognize American independence before any other negotiations began. Once Britain agreed to full independence, the talks officially opened.

In September 1783, the delegates signed the Treaty of Paris, which confirmed U.S. independence and set the boundaries of the new nation. The United States now stretched from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River and from Canada to the Florida border.

Some provisions of the treaty promised future trouble. The British made no attempt to protect the land interests of their Native American allies, and the treaty did not specify when the British would evacuate their American forts. On the other side, the Americans agreed that British creditors could collect debts owed them by Americans and promised to allow Loyalists to sue in state courts for recovery of their losses. The state governments, however, later failed to honor this agreement.

The War Becomes a Symbol of Liberty

With the signing of the Treaty of Paris, all European nations recognized the United States of America. Former British subjects now possessed a new identity as free Americans, loyal to a new ideal. The American Revolution would inspire the world as both a democratic revolution and a war for independence.

**THE IMPACT ON AMERICAN SOCIETY** Revolutionary ideals set a new course for American society. During the war, class distinctions between rich and poor had begun to blur as the wealthy wore homespun clothing and military leaders showed respect for all of their men. These changes stimulated a rise of egalitarianism—a belief in the equality of all people—which fostered a new attitude: the idea that ability, effort, and virtue, not wealth or family, defined one's worth.

The egalitarianism of the 1780s, however, applied only to white males. It did not bring any new political rights to women. A few states made it possible for women to divorce, but common law still dictated that a married woman’s property belonged to her husband.
Moreover, most African Americans were still enslaved, and even those who were free usually faced discrimination and poverty. However by 1804, many Northern states had taken steps to outlaw slavery.

The Southern states, where slavery was more entrenched, did not outlaw the practice, but most made it easier for slave owners to free their slaves. Planters in the upper South debated the morality of slavery, and some, like George Washington, freed their slaves. In Maryland and Virginia, the number of free blacks increased from about 4,000 to over 20,000 following the war. The slavery debate generally did not reach the Deep South, although some Southern slaveholders did have grave misgivings.

For Native Americans, the Revolution brought uncertainty. During both the French and Indian War and the Revolution, many Native American communities had either been destroyed or displaced, and the Native American population east of the Mississippi had declined by about 50 percent. Postwar developments further threatened Native American interests, as settlers from the United States moved west and began taking tribal lands left unprotected by the Treaty of Paris.

**THE CHALLENGE OF CREATING A GOVERNMENT** In adopting the Declaration of Independence, Americans had rejected the British system of government, in which kings and nobles held power. In its place, they set out to build a stable republic, a government of the people. The Continental Congress had chosen a motto for the reverse side of the Great Seal of the United States: “a new order of the ages.” Creating this new order forced Americans to address complex questions: Who should participate in government? How should the government answer to the people? How could a government be set up so that opposing groups of citizens would all have a voice?
Women and Political Power

In their families and in the workplace, in speeches and in print, countless American women have worked for justice for all citizens. Throughout the history of the United States, women have played whatever roles they felt were necessary to better this country. They also fought to expand their own political power, a power that throughout much of American history has been denied them.

1770s

**PROTEST AGAINST BRITAIN**

In the tense years leading up to the Revolution, American women found ways to participate in the protests against the British. Homemakers boycotted tea and British-made clothing. In the painting at right, Sarah Morris Mifflin, shown with her husband Thomas, spins her own thread rather than use British thread. Some businesswomen, such as printer Mary Goddard, who produced the official copies of the Declaration of Independence, took more active roles.

1848

**SENeca FALLs**

As America grew, women became acutely aware of their unequal status in society, particularly their lack of suffrage, or the right to vote. In 1848, two women—Elizabeth Cady Stanton, shown above, and Lucretia Mott—launched the first woman suffrage movement in the United States at the Seneca Falls Convention in Seneca Falls, New York. During the convention, Stanton introduced her Declaration of Sentiments, in which she demanded greater rights for women, including the right to vote.

1920

**THE RIGHT TO VOTE**

More than a half-century after organizing for the right to vote, women finally won their struggle. In 1920, the United States adopted the Nineteenth Amendment, which granted women the right to vote. Pictured to the right is one of the many suffrage demonstrations of the early 1900s that helped garner public support for the amendment.
**1972–1982**

**THE EQUAL RIGHTS AMENDMENT MOVEMENT**

During the mid-1900s, as more women entered the workforce, many women recognized their continuing unequal status, including the lack of equal pay for equal work. By passing an Equal Rights Amendment, some women hoped to obtain the same social and economic rights as men.

Although millions supported the amendment, many men and women feared the measure would prompt unwanted change. The ERA ultimately failed to be ratified for the Constitution.

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**2010**

**WOMEN IN CONGRESS**

In spite of the failure of the ERA, many women have achieved strong positions for themselves—politically as well as socially and economically.

In the 111th Congress, 73 women served in the House of Representatives and 17 served in the Senate. Shown above is Nancy Pelosi, the first woman to serve as Speaker of the House.

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**THINKING CRITICALLY**

**CONNECT TO HISTORY**

1. **Synthesizing** How did women’s political status change from 1770 to 2010? **SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R19.**

**CONNECT TO TODAY**

2. **Researching and Reporting** Think of a woman who has played an important role in your community. What kinds of things did this woman do? What support did she receive in the community? What problems did she run into? Report your findings to the class.
**VISUAL SUMMARY**

**The War for Independence**

- **1765**
  - Stamp Acts
  - Sons of Liberty founded
- **1767**
  - Townshend Acts
- **1770**
  - Boston Massacre
- **1773**
  - Boston Tea Party
- **1774**
  - Intolerable Acts
- **1775**
  - George III rejects Olive Branch Petition
  - Lexington and Concord; Bunker Hill
  - Declaration of Independence
  - American victory at Saratoga
- **1776**
  - British seize New York
- **1777**
  - British seize Philadelphia
  - British seizure Savannah, Georgia
  - Battle of Trenton
- **1778**
  - British seize Charles Town, South Carolina
- **1779**
  - British reverses in the South
- **1780**
  - British surrender at Yorktown
- **1781**
  - Treaty of Paris

**TERMS & NAMES**

For each term below, write a sentence explaining its connection to the American Revolution. For each person below, explain his role in the event.

1. Stamp Act
2. Boston Massacre
3. committee of correspondence
4. Olive Branch Petition
5. Common Sense
6. Thomas Jefferson
7. Saratoga
8. Valley Forge
9. Marquis de Lafayette
10. Yorktown

**MAIN IDEAS**

**The Stirrings of Rebellion** (pages 96–102)

11. What methods did colonists use to protest actions by Parliament between 1765 and 1775?
12. Describe the causes and the results of the Boston Tea Party.
13. What were the results of fighting at Lexington and Concord?

**Ideas Help Start a Revolution** (pages 103–108)

14. What did Jefferson mean, and not mean, by the phrase “all men are created equal”?
15. Why did many colonists not support independence?

**Struggling Toward Saratoga** (pages 113–117)

16. Why was the Battle of Trenton significant?
17. What British military plan did the colonial victory at Saratoga ruin?
18. Explain how civilians supported the war effort in the colonies.

**Winning the War** (pages 118–123)

19. How did France help the colonies during the American Revolution?
20. Describe three significant challenges facing the United States when the American Revolution ended.

**THINKING CRITICALLY**

1. **USING YOUR NOTES** Create a dual-path chart showing how the colonies became independent. On one path, list four or more military events, such as battles and changes in command. On the other, list four or more political events, including protests, publication of documents, and legal actions.

2. **EVALUATING** Review France’s role in helping the colonies rebel against Great Britain. Under what conditions, if any, do you think the United States should help other countries?
INTERACT WITH HISTORY

Recall the issues that you explored at the beginning of the chapter. Imagine that it is 1783, and you have been present at a gathering of your friends who recall the many sacrifices made during the War for Independence from Great Britain. Write a journal entry in which you try to describe some of those sacrifices. Recall key military events, contributions made by civilians, and key figures who played important roles in the struggle for freedom.

FOCUS ON WRITING

Review the Another Perspective on page 111 and note Abigail Adams’s view of the status of women. Write a letter answering her in which you give some ideas about the status of women after the Revolutionary War.

STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

Use the cartoon below and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer question 1.

1. This British cartoon was published during the winter of 1775–1776. In it, King George III and his ministers are shown killing the goose that laid the golden egg. The cartoon is criticizing —
   A. the killing of British soldiers at Concord and Bunker Hill.
   B. King George’s response to the Olive Branch Petition.
   C. John Locke’s theory of natural rights.
   D. Thomas Paine’s *Common Sense*.

2. The Battle of Trenton was important to the Americans because —
   A. it prevented the capture of Philadelphia by the British.
   B. it was a badly needed victory that inspired soldiers to reenlist.
   C. it prompted the French to sign an alliance with the Americans.
   D. it ended a series of British victories in the South.

Use the information in the box and your knowledge of U.S. history to answer question 3.

3. Which of the following lists the events in chronological order from first to last?
   A. Declaration of Independence, Battles of Lexington and Concord, Second Continental Congress
   B. Battles of Lexington and Concord, Second Continental Congress, Declaration of Independence
   C. Second Continental Congress, Battles of Lexington and Concord, Declaration of Independence
   D. Second Continental Congress, Declaration of Independence, Battles of Lexington and Concord

For additional test practice, go online for:
• Diagnostic tests
• Tutorials

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

In a small group read and discuss the “One American’s Story” at the beginning of Section 2. Then consider the following question: What makes someone a patriot? Using stories and images from the Internet, books, magazines, and newspapers, make a list of people you consider to be patriots. List their names as well as the reasons why you chose them on a chart in your classroom.
The American Revolution led to the formation of the United States of America in 1776. Beginning in the 1760s, tensions grew between American colonists and their British rulers when Britain started passing a series of new laws and taxes for the colonies. With no representation in the British government, however, colonists had no say in these laws, which led to growing discontent. After fighting broke out in 1775, colonial leaders met to decide what to do. They approved the Declaration of Independence, announcing that the American colonies were free from British rule. In reality, however, freedom would not come until after years of fighting.

Explore some of the people and events of the American Revolution online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at hmhsocialstudies.com.
“I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!”

— Patrick Henry

“Give Me Liberty or Give Me Death”
Read an excerpt from Patrick Henry’s famous speech, which urged the colonists to fight against the British.

Seeds of Revolution
Watch the video to learn about colonial discontent in the years before the Revolutionary War.

Independence!
Watch the video to learn about the origins of the Declaration of Independence.

Victory!
Watch the video to learn how the American colonists won the Revolutionary War.