UNIT 1
American Beginnings to 1783

CHAPTER 1
Three Worlds Meet Beginnings to 1506

CHAPTER 2
The American Colonies Emerge 1492–1681

CHAPTER 3
The Colonies Come of Age 1650–1760

CHAPTER 4
The War for Independence 1768–1783

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 Bartoll (1825)

1660 The English monarchy is restored when Charles II returns from exile.

1686 James II creates the Dominion of New England.

1688 In England the Glorious Revolution establishes the supremacy of Parliament.

1693 The College of William and Mary is chartered in Williamsburg, Virginia.

1652 Dutch settlers establish Cape Town in South Africa.

View of Boston, around 1764
The Colonies Come of Age

Benjamin Franklin publishes Poor Richard’s Almanac. 1733

Treaty of Paris ends French and Indian War. 1763

French and Indian War begins. 1754

In Japan, 84,000 farmers protest heavy taxation. 1739

Act of Union unites England and Wales with Scotland to form Great Britain. 1707

Treaty of Paris recognizes British control over much of India. 1763

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.

How can the colonies achieve equality and freedom?

Examine the Issues

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

Visit the Chapter 3 links for more information related to The Colonies Come of Age.
England and Its Colonies

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.
The Thirteen Colonies to the 1700s

Economic Activities

New England colonies
- Massachusetts: shipbuilding, shipping, fishing, lumber, rum, meat products
- New Hampshire: ship masts, lumber, fishing, trade, shipping, livestock, foodstuffs
- Connecticut: snuff, livestock
- New Hampshire: ship masts, lumber, fishing, trade, shipping, livestock, foodstuffs

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.

Tensions Emerge

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

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

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

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

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

![This plan and section of the British slave ship “Brookes” was published in London around 1790 by a leading British antislavery advocate named Thomas Clarkson. The image effectively conveys the degradation and inhumanity of the slave trade, which reduced human beings to the level of merchandise.](image)

> **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.
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 Obstiny, 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.

CRITICAL THINKING

3. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

Why were so many enslaved Africans brought to the Southern colonies? Think About:
- why Native Americans were not used instead
- why Europeans were not used instead
- the cash crops of the South
- the triangular trade

4. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

The ad shown above is from a Virginia newspaper of the 1730s. What does this ad reveal about the brutality of the slave system?

5. ANALYZING CAUSES

Why did fewer cities develop in the South during the 1700s? Use evidence from the text to support your response.
After growing up on a Massachusetts farm, John Adams found city life in Boston distracting. In 1759 he wrote,

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

—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 Englanders to small farms. In the more fertile areas of the middle colonies, such as New York and Pennsylvania,
farmers raised a variety of crops and livestock, including wheat, corn, cattle, and hogs. They produced so much that they sold their surplus food to the West Indies, where raising 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.

**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.

**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.

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.

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.”

—from “Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God”

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.

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 Colonies Come of Age

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.

"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.

HISTORICAL SPOTLIGHT
WASHINGTON’S RESIGNATION
George Washington’s military career nearly ended shortly after it started. In 1754, as the British prepared to wage war on France in North America, Washington eagerly awaited a position with the regular British army. The governor of Virginia offered Washington the rank of captain—a demotion from Washington’s position as colonel. Washington angrily rejected the offer as well as a later proposal that he retain the rank of colonel but have the authority and pay of a captain. The young Virginian’s patriotism, however, was too strong. He swallowed his pride and relaunched his military career as a volunteer aide to General Braddock in the spring of 1755.
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.

![Map of European Claims in North America](image)

**MAIN IDEA**

**Summarizing**

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

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER**

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 money during the war that it nearly doubled its national debt.

Hoping to lower the debt, King George III chose a financial expert, **George Grenville**, to serve as prime minister in 1763. Grenville soon angered merchants...
Throughout the colonies. He began to suspect that the colonists were smuggling goods into the country. In 1764 he prompted Parliament to enact a law known as the Sugar Act. The Sugar Act did three things. It halved the duty on foreign-made molasses (in the hopes that colonists would pay a lower tax rather than risk arrest by smuggling). It placed duties on certain imports. Most important, it strengthened the enforcement of the law allowing prosecutors to try smuggling cases in a vice-admiralty court rather than in a more sympathetic colonial court.

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

“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.
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.
**VIRGINIA**

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.

**THE SOUTH**

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.

**QUAKERS**

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.

**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

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**Average Age at Marriage**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginians</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quakers in Delaware</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Penn. &amp; N.J.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philadelphians</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontier People</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern Americans</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Who Could Divorce?**

*Puritans:*
- Yes

*Virginians:*
- No

*Quakers:*
- No

Source: David Hackett Fischer, Albion’s Seed

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**THINKING CRITICALLY**

**CONNECT TO HISTORY**

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

   SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R22.

**CONNECT TO TODAY**

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.
TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance for the growth of the colonies to the mid-18th century.

1. mercantilism
2. Dominion of New England
3. triangular trade
4. middle passage
5. Stono Rebellion
6. Enlightenment
7. Great Awakening
8. New France
9. Pontiac
10. Proclamation of 1763

MAIN IDEAS

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

England and Its Colonies (pages 66–71)
1. Why did Parliament pass the Navigation Acts?
2. How did the policy of salutary neglect benefit both England and its colonies?

The Agricultural South (pages 72–78)
3. Which ethnic groups besides the English began to settle in the South?
4. Which social class came to control the economy as well as the political and social institutions of the South?

The Commercial North (pages 79–84)
5. Why did large, single-crop plantations not develop in the North?
6. What factors contributed to the witchcraft hysteria in late 17th-century Salem?

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>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Britain limits westward expansion.</td>
<td>Colonists want to expand westward.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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?
1. Recall your discussion of the question on page 65: How can the colonies achieve equality and freedom? 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.

2. Learning From Media

Use the CD-ROM Electronic Library of Primary Sources or your library resources to review significant political, economic, and social developments of the colonial period. Then write a short speech commemorating the 100th anniversary of the founding of a colony.

- Write your speech based on your research, taking into account both hardships and triumphs. What were the key turning points? What lessons are important to remember? And, on the eve of the 100th anniversary, what challenges or difficulties are you prepared to forecast?
- Conclude your speech by reflecting back on the charter establishing the colony. Has the history of the past 100 years supported or strayed from the original colonists’ intentions?
- Share your speech with your classmates.

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 slavery.
   - J more urban.

**Additional Test Practice**, pages S1-S33.