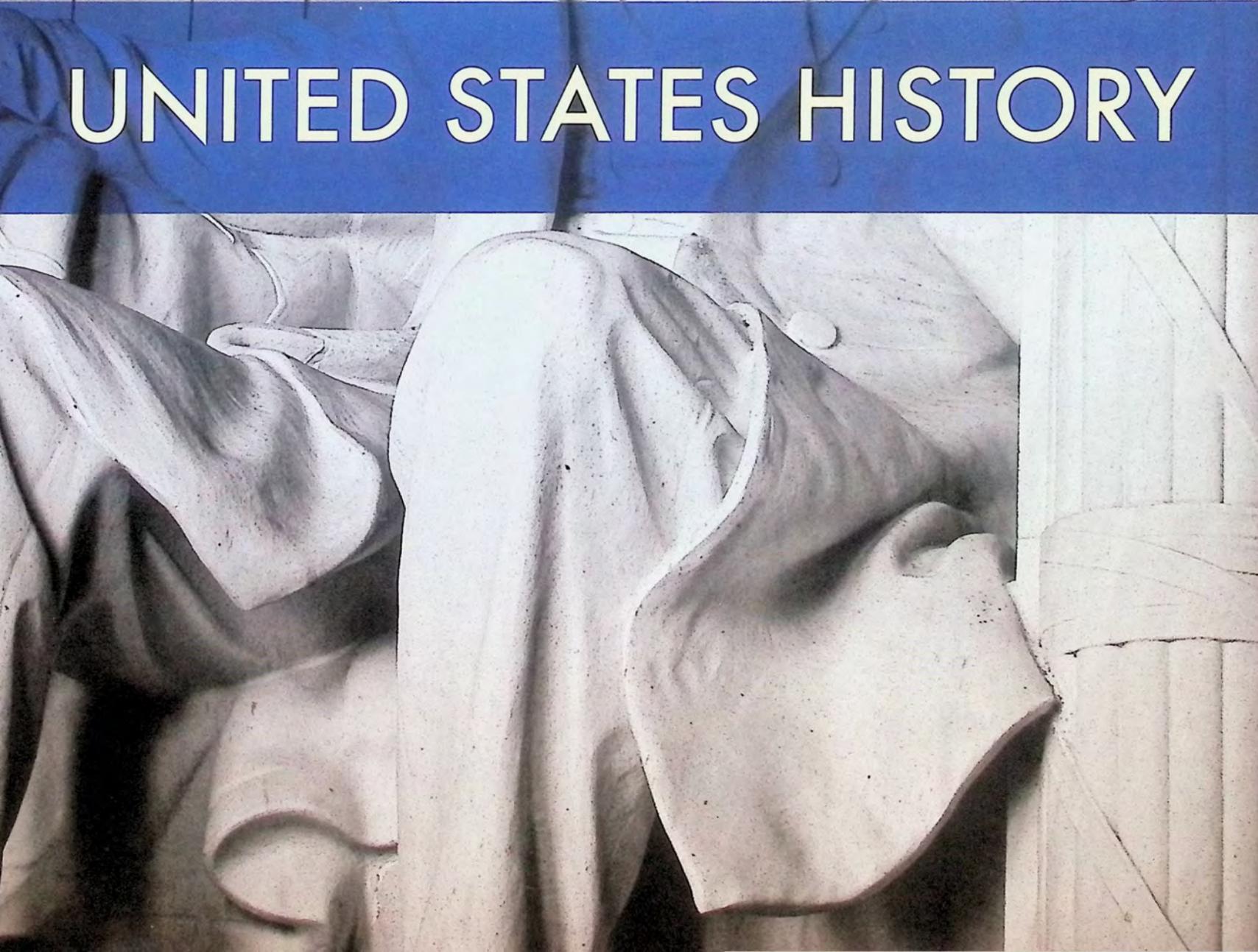


FIFTH EDITION



UNITED STATES HISTORY



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1

NEW AND OLD WORLDS MEET

At two hours after midnight
appeared the land...

Christopher Columbus
October 12, 1492, Captain's Log Entry



Columbus erroneously thought he had reached Asia
when he landed on an island he called San Salvador.

Big Ideas

1. What changes in the Old World led to exploration of the New World?
2. What did Europeans discover in the New World, and what changes did they bring to the New World?

- I. Changes in the Old World
- II. Contacts in the New World

Iron shackles clanked in the musty prison cell as huddled forms awakened. One prisoner, gathering quill and parchments from beneath his pillow, continued his writing. In happier times he had been a writer of romances and chivalric legends who had enjoyed modest acclaim. Now, during a war in 1298, he found himself cast into prison with a living legend named **Marco Polo**.

Though a prisoner of war, Polo was still free to tell the most fantastic stories. His adventures in China had spanned nearly twenty years, during which time he had been a favorite of Kublai, the grand khan of the Mongols.

Polo described mysterious Asia as a world of shimmering silks, fragrant spices, and unlimited gold. In a land that would someday be called Japan, Polo had heard that gold was so common it was used for pavement.

In that prison cell, Marco Polo's new friend, Rustichello da Pisa, penned the words of one of history's greatest travelers, later published under the imposing title *Description of the World*. Polo's narrative became the definitive work on Asia for the next three centuries. Its vivid descriptions enticed men to see the region for themselves, and this enticement prepared Europe to experience sweeping change. Asia offered Europeans a chance to experience remarkable growth, personally in wealth and nationally in power and prestige. Seeking this growth eventually led to the discovery of another world—a world that would make all they had known seem old.



Marco Polo

I. Changes in the Old World

China, Innovations, and Mercantilism

Early European explorers saw China as the source of great riches and opportunities for their countries. The first peoples to take advantage of access to China (and the East Indies islands of South Asia) were the Muslims, who for decades held a virtual monopoly on all trade in the region. Soon, however, Europeans determined to get their share of trade in the Indies, and that area became the focus of exploration before the discovery of the New World.

Several innovations made it possible for the Europeans to compete with the Muslims and eventually to discover the New World.

Guiding Questions

1. How did Europeans become interested in the riches of Asia?
2. How did European explorers travel to Asia?
3. How did the Protestant Reformation prompt many Europeans to travel to the New World?



The astrolabe and other new navigational instruments made it easier for explorers to sail the unknown oceans of the world more accurately.



Caravel

Mercantilism Versus Free Market

Free market economics, in contrast to mercantilism, sees trade as a mutually beneficial arrangement in which both sides emerge as winners. Each side gives up something it considers less valuable to gain something it considers more valuable.

One was the development of the **compass**, which enabled sailors to know in which direction they were heading. Another invention was the **astrolabe**, which allowed them to determine their ship's latitude on the ocean.

Another important innovation was a Portuguese ship called a **caravel**. This small light ship sported two or three triangular sails that made it easy to maneuver. The swiftness of the caravel, combined with its overwhelming cannon power, enabled not only the expansion of European trade with China and the Indies but also the discovery of the New World. The confrontation between Muslims and Europeans in the Indies was the second major conflict between the Muslim and the Christian European cultures. The first confrontation was the Crusades (1095–1291). Those wars sparked an increase in trade, as the European participants returned home with products from Asia.

Perhaps as important as such innovations was a shift in economic thinking that occurred in Europe about the time explorations began, and it greatly spurred exploratory efforts. Monarchs in Europe were gradually shifting from the feudal, or manorial, economic thinking prevalent during the Middle Ages to a nationalistic economic system of thought known as **mercantilism**. Although that shift in thinking might have been a step toward free market capitalism, it most certainly was not capitalism or free trade.

Mercantilism was an economic system that was designed to enhance the wealth and power of a nation. It operated on two basic assumptions:

1. Mercantilists believed that a nation's wealth consisted of precious metals, especially gold. The value of a product, they thought, was determined by how much gold (or other precious metal) people were willing to give in exchange for it.
2. Mercantilists were nationalists who believed that a country could increase its wealth by increasing its surplus of gold. For one nation to increase its wealth (gold), they thought, another country had to lose it. Mercantilism saw a world of winners and losers. The monarchs' desire for gold led to numerous conflicts between nations, possibly accounting in large measure for the desire of France and England to separate Spain from its treasures of gold found in the New World.

Mercantilism also led to national desires to build colonial empires that would serve both as sources of riches and raw materials from which to manufacture goods and as markets for those goods once they were made in the mother country. In practice, mercantilism led to the government's granting of special charters, subsidies, and bounties for some companies or individuals while it discouraged imports and encouraged exports. Mercantilists sought to achieve a "favorable balance of trade," that is, to export more than they imported, thereby collecting even more gold. An understanding of mercantilism is necessary for understanding both the intense competition among the major European powers and the conflict that eventually arose between England and its New World colonies.

Sugar and Spice

Marco Polo's account of China in the 1200s fired the imaginations of Europe's merchants and adventurers. But the overland

route to China was costly and dangerous. Muslim merchants, who controlled the eastern silk and spice trade, choked the highways, prompting Western Europeans to find a waterway to China in order to bypass the Muslim monopoly.

The Portuguese led the way in 1488 when **Bartolomeu Dias** (DEE ahz) sailed southward along the west coast of Africa and rounded its southern cape, which he optimistically called Good Hope. A decade later, **Vasco da Gama** (dah GAH mah) followed up Dias's discovery by sailing to India. Da Gama returned to Portugal with a cargo of spices worth sixty times the cost of his expedition.

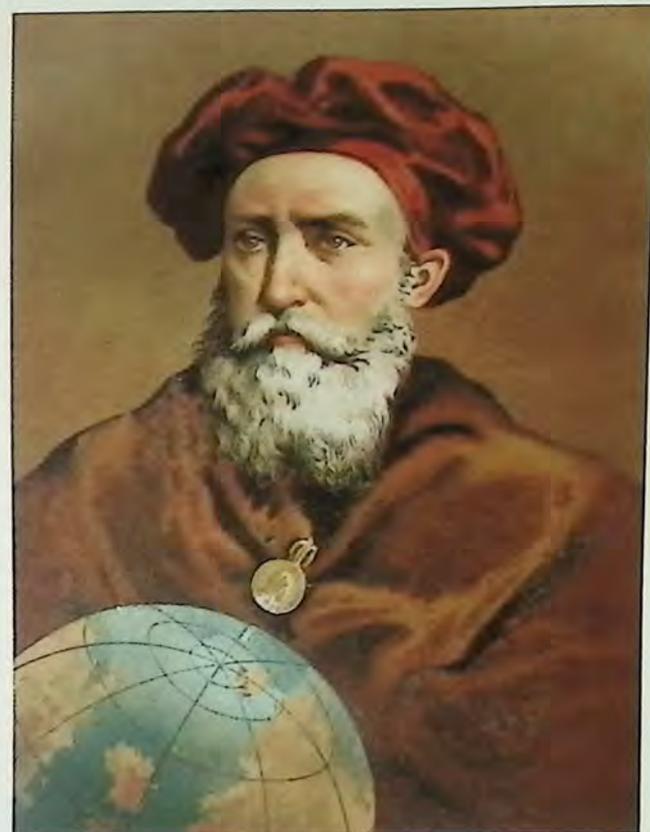
Such fantastic profits signaled the end of the Muslim monopoly on the spice trade and the beginning of the European scramble for wealth. Ships laden with cinnamon, gold, ivory, and sugar revolutionized Europe's economy, politics, and worldview.

As Portugal, Spain's neighbor, was dominating trade in the Indian Ocean, Spaniards looked in another direction for trade with Asia. Like most educated Europeans of the fifteenth century, the Italian-born **Christopher Columbus** believed that the world was round. Basing his calculations—or, as it turned out, his miscalculations—on the circumference estimates of the second-century Greek mathematician Ptolemy, Columbus reasoned that the shortest route to the East was west. Columbus and Ptolemy, though correct about the earth's shape, were incorrect about its size. Columbus figured that by sailing three thousand miles west, he could reach Japan and its fabled riches. (Actually, Japan is more than twelve thousand miles west from the coast of Spain.)

When the king of Portugal refused to underwrite a westward voyage, Columbus turned to the Spanish for help. After receiving the reluctant support of Queen Isabella, Columbus set out in early August 1492 with three ships and a letter of greeting from the Spanish crown to the king of Cipango (Japan). The letter was to be personalized after Columbus learned the name of the distant ruler.

On the evening of October 11, Columbus wrote in his ship's log, "the Admiral, at ten o'clock in the night, being on the sterncastle, saw a light. . . like a small wax candle. . . the Admiral was certain that they were near land." By 2:00 a.m. the light proved to be land, and though Columbus did not realize it, he had stumbled not onto an island of Cipango but onto a sliver of sand in the Bahamas. That day Columbus went ashore and named the island San Salvador (Holy Savior) in gratitude for the merciful ocean passage that God had given his expedition. Curious natives gathered about the strange band of pale visitors and offered gifts of parrots and raw cotton. Columbus was certain that he was on an island of the Indies, off the coast of mainland Asia; thus, he called the people *los indios*—Indians. Many more misunderstandings between the two cultures would occur in the centuries to follow.

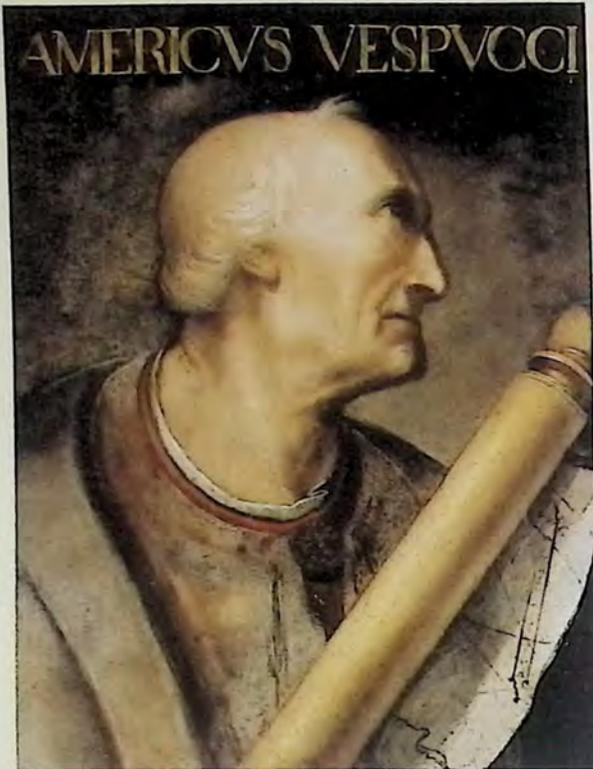
If he were an explorer looking for new lands, Columbus could not have been in a better location, since there are literally thousands of islands in the Caribbean archipelago. But as an explorer looking for Asian riches, Columbus could not have been in a more frustrating position. He would make three more voyages to the region in a vain search for China and Japan, and it appears that he went to his grave believing he had reached the outskirts of Asia. In addition, much confusion occurred because he used the inaccurate term "Indian" for the native peoples of the region.



Vasco da Gama



Christopher Columbus

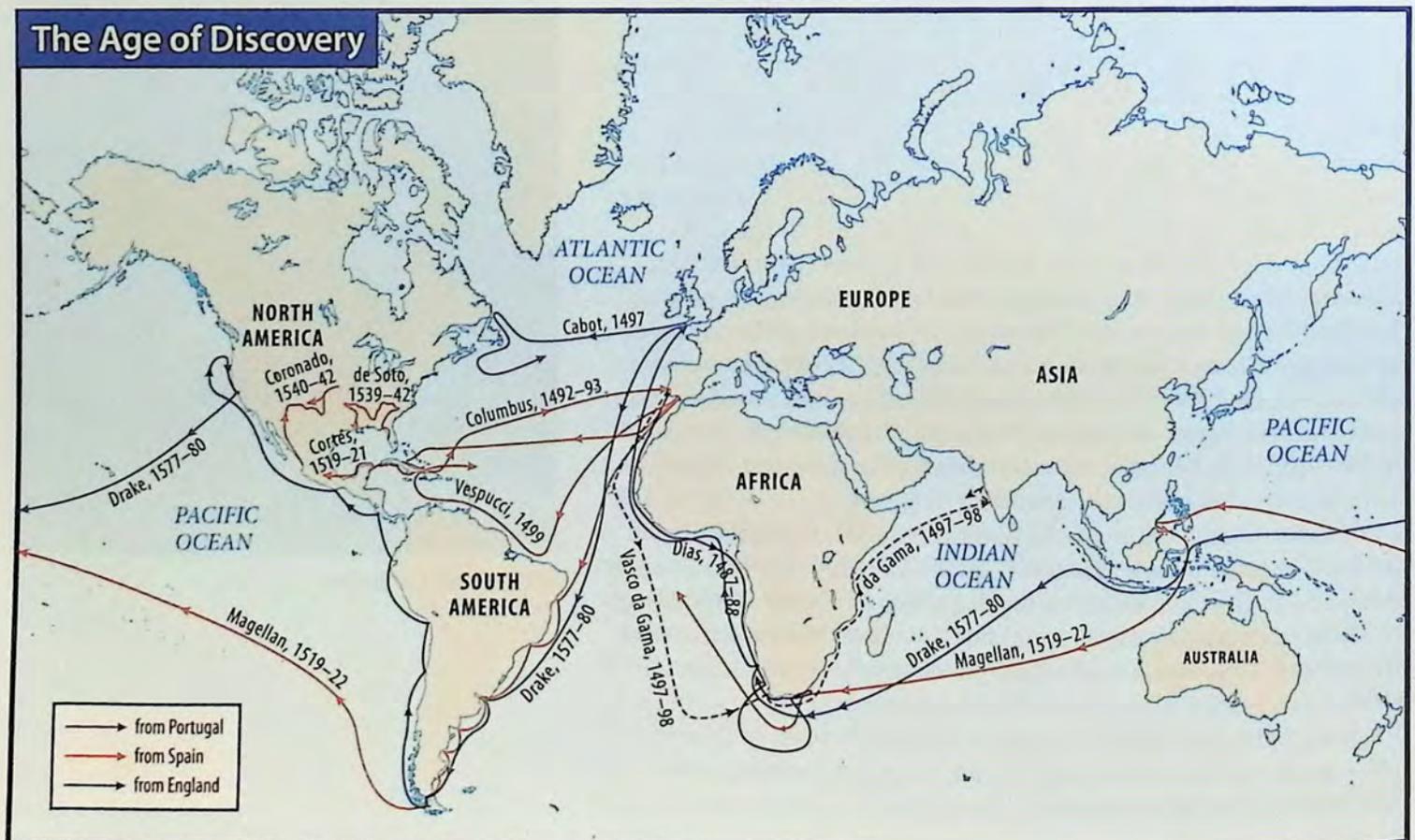


Amerigo Vespucci

Other men, however, came to realize what Columbus did not—that there was a new world across the ocean. One of those men was **Amerigo Vespucci** (vehs POO chee), who made at least two voyages to the Caribbean and South America. One of history's interesting ironies is that in 1507 a little-known German mapmaker was so bold as to name this area not Columbus, but "America" in honor of Amerigo.

England was not idle during the race for the Asian region. In 1497, the Italian explorer Giovanni Caboto—known to the English for whom he sailed as **John Cabot** (KAB uht)—reached Newfoundland in his search for a passage to China. The following year, he once again sailed west for the East, but he never returned. His fate remains a mystery; yet his initial discovery changed the course of history, for it provided the basis for England's claim to and colonization of North America.

Two continents were now added to the world map. Yet the Americas seemed more of an obstacle to sail around than a land to settle. Explorers set about finding a way to bypass it, believing riches lay just beyond the new world horizon. **Ferdinand Magellan** (muh JEHL uhn) determined that he could reach the Spice Islands of the East by sailing south around the Americas. In what would be one of the the greatest sea voyages of all time, Magellan sailed from Spain in 1519 with five ships and a crew of about 270 men. While stopped on the coast of present-day Argentina, a mutiny occurred. Magellan crushed the rebellion and executed its leaders. Afterwards, one of the ships sank in a terrible storm. As he neared the area where the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans converge, fierce storms and huge waves tossed the ships. The crew on one ship abandoned the expedition and returned to Spain. Unfortunately, this ship contained a large portion of the fleet's supplies.



The three remaining ships sailed through waters never before traversed by Europeans. A few years earlier, the Spanish explorer Balboa had first seen that blue expanse from a hillside in Panama, but Magellan's little fleet was now plunging through its waves. However, Asia did not lie just beyond the Americas. As Magellan continued to pursue an ever-receding horizon, provisions ran low.

For almost a hundred days the crew languished on the difficult sea. The stench of foul water and death hung heavy about the ships. Gnawing hunger drove the sailors to eat sawdust and leather from the ships' rigging. Rats became a prized dish. Although the three ships eventually reached present-day Guam, where the survivors obtained needed supplies, it was now painfully clear that a western route to Asia was impractical.

The ships sailed on to the Philippines, where a tribal squabble resulted in Magellan's death by poisoned arrows. Although he never lived to see it, one of his ships reached the Spice Islands and continued the voyage westward for home. Three years after Magellan's fleet left Spain, that ship, the *Victoria*, returned with only eighteen of the original fleet's crew. Their daring feat was stunning—they were the first to **circumnavigate** (sail completely around) the world!

Nearly five centuries later, the first circumnavigational voyage remains an incredible achievement. Magellan had revealed the size of the globe, yet for the time its vastness set limits on western trade routes. Increasingly, the focus would be on the Americas, a new world that offered new promise.

Religious Change

While Magellan's ships were making their global trek, a German monk named **Martin Luther** (1483–1546) was gaining the attention of all Europe. For centuries Roman Catholicism had dominated every aspect of European society. But by Luther's time the corruption of the Roman Catholic Church was apparent. Luther stood against these corruptions, but he was different from many others who sought reform.

Luther came to realize that the root of these problems was a false view of how people could be saved from their sins. The Catholic Church taught that God's grace flowed to sinners only through the Church's system of penance. Luther, however, preached that salvation was a work of God. God justified (declared to be righteous) those who trusted in Jesus' death on the cross and resurrection and who called out for salvation from their sin.

Eventually, Luther and others like him formed their own churches. These churches emphasized that Christians were free from the authority of Roman Catholicism. They also emphasized that Christians should not depend on others for their spiritual well-being. All Christians should learn to read the Scriptures for themselves and should know how to apply God's Word to their lives.

Luther's teaching called into question much about the Roman Catholic Church. And since the Church played a role in all aspects of European society, Luther's influence led to great changes in the culture of Europe. The movement that pressed for these changes was the **Protestant Reformation**. England, Switzerland, Scandinavia, and parts of Germany were the places most influenced by this movement. France and Spain were the most opposed to it. As the Reformation spread across Europe, theological battle lines often became actual battle lines. Some of the competition between



Martin Luther



This is an artist's portrayal of Martin Luther nailing his Ninety-Five Theses to the church door in Wittenberg, Germany.



John Calvin

English explorers and French and Spanish explorers was motivated by a rivalry between Protestantism and Roman Catholicism. Both religious groups saw the discovery of these new lands as an opportunity to spread their influence.

Geneva, Switzerland, soon became one of the leading centers of the Reformation. **John Calvin** (1509–1564) was Geneva's most influential teacher. Like Luther, Calvin taught that salvation was God's work and that sinners needed simply to trust in Christ. Calvin also attempted to restructure the society of Geneva so that every part of human life experienced the renewal of the Reformation.

Believing that a solid education was the best way to produce effective leaders for church and society, Calvin and many other reformers reorganized their educational systems. They emphasized universal literacy as well as advanced education for the clergy.

Calvin and other reformers also taught that every vocation was a sacred calling. For this reason the merchant, weaver, and carpenter needed to work steadily, waste no time, and do everything in moderation. As a result, cities that implemented these reforms, like Geneva, enjoyed a great increase in wealth and influence. Many Protestants interpreted this growth—seen by some historians and sociologists as an early success for capitalism—as God's blessing for obeying His will.

Although Calvin and other reformers emphasized that Christians should submit to their governmental leaders, Calvin did speak critically of certain kinds of government. Many reformers believed that monarchy tended toward abuse and corruption. A better form of government—one that would protect the liberty of the people—was a series of assemblies elected by the citizens. Geneva and a few other cities developed this kind of government.

Calvin's ideas proved to be very influential in Europe. In England especially, many Protestants desired not only to free themselves from traces of Roman Catholicism but also to reshape their society. Geneva was seen by many as a model city—the pattern for a new world.

Section Review

- 1–2. Who was responsible for stirring European interest in China before the Age of Discovery? How did he do so?
3. How did the Crusades affect European trade?
4. What name was given to the economic system during the age of exploration and colonization whereby colonies were exploited for the benefits and wealth they could bring to the mother country?
5. How did Columbus's plan for reaching Asia differ from da Gama's?
6. What was Martin Luther's main disagreement with the Roman Catholic Church?
- ★ Explain the innovations in technology that made exploration much easier for the Europeans.
- ★ How did the teachings of men such as Luther and Calvin support the ideals of (a) freedom, (b) individualism, and (c) equality?

II. Contacts in the New World

First Peoples

While these various Europeans were discovering and exploring unknown (at least to them) oceans and lands, other non-Europeans were living in their own developed civilizations in South, Central, and North America. In South America lived the Incas. In Central America, the Mayas and the Aztecs developed civilizations. And across North America were numerous thriving groups of American Indians.

Where had they come from? In the Far North, near the Arctic Circle, the massive continents of Asia and America each taper into slender fingers of land that stop just short of touching. Some historians think that sometime after the Flood, the ancestors of the American Indians entered the Western Hemisphere there. Some historians think they crossed the narrow **Bering Strait** in small boats or on foot over a bridge of ice. Other historians think that a land bridge connected the two continents, and that the peoples perhaps simply walked over it.

However they came, those Asian immigrants moved slowly southward. Eventually, their descendants settled the entire hemisphere down to the tip of South America. When the European explorers arrived in the New World, they found it already teeming with humans living in developed civilizations. Millions of American Indians were living in North America before Columbus made his discovery.

Historians of American Indians usually group them into tribes (several families sharing common customs) and culture areas (several tribes living near each other and sharing similar customs, means of livelihood, and levels of civilization). When the Europeans arrived in the New World, it was already inhabited by several major groups, each in its own culture area. For example, in the Southwest was the Pueblo civilization. In the middle Atlantic region and the Northeast was the Eastern Woodlands civilization. These groups of peoples shared certain common characteristics. Yet, each of them was different from the others in many ways.

One difference among the various Indian tribes was the types of homes in which they lived.



Guiding Questions

1. What civilizations did Europeans discover in the New World?
2. What Spanish explorers made discoveries in the New World, and why was Spain's approach to governing its colonies unwise?
3. How did other European nations settle the New World, and how did English settlements differ from the Spanish and the French?





The ruins at Tuzigoot National Monument in Arizona were the homes of Sinagua Indians, who lived in pueblos.

Other Pueblo Indians lived under overhanging rocks, such as these at Mesa Verde, Colorado.



Basic Groups of American Indians

The Pueblos—Probably the first North American Indians the Spanish explorers of the Southwest encountered were the pueblo dwellers. The word *pueblo* means “town.” The **Pueblo Indians** lived in small villages made up of two or three family groups or clans. Some of the Pueblo Indians lived in caves along the rims or under ledges of canyons of the Southwest and became known as the cliff dwellers. Some of the tribes among the Pueblos were the Zuni, the Hopi, and the Taos.

The pueblos were independent of each other, and each town was ruled by a council of elected elders. The villages, though sometimes quite large, never developed into cities because of the lack of food caused by the dry climate of the Southwest. When one of the men married, he moved in with his wife’s clan, perhaps building a new room onto or above the existing adobe (mud brick) house. Families that had too many sons dwindled, and those that had many daughters grew.

Pueblo Indians were farmers, growing maize (corn), squash, and beans. They also made baskets and pottery. They were basically a stationary people, but occasionally, they were forced to move to ensure an adequate supply of water. The Pueblos reached their “golden age” around AD 1000, but lack of water and frequent raids by neighboring tribes took a toll. A severe drought occurred from about 1275 to 1310. By the time Columbus arrived in the New World, the Pueblo civilization had declined significantly.

The Mound Builders—Two successive cultures developed in what is now called the Midwest: the Adena culture (1000 BC to AD 200) and the Hopewell culture (AD 500 to 1600). Their civilizations developed in villages along the Ohio River Valley and later spread eastward to the Chesapeake Bay area, New York, and New England.

These peoples lived in fixed agricultural settlements where they grew squash, gourds, and sunflowers. They also grew tobacco. Their agricultural pursuits produced bountiful harvests, and that large food supply sparked population growth.

These peoples lived in large dome-shaped structures of bent saplings covered with animal skins or bark. They were noted for the hundreds of large mounds they built; hence, they were called the **Mound Builders**. In the mounds, some of which measured more than 30 feet high and around 200 feet in circumference, they often buried their dead. The Indians also buried many artifacts in the mounds, but most of them, except for pottery and stone or iron tools, rotted in the damp soil. The most famous mound visible today is the Great Serpent Mound in southern Ohio, about fifty miles east of Cincinnati. It portrays a slithering snake more than 1,300 feet long. The snake's mouth is open, apparently swallowing a small round mound.

The Mound Builders developed an extensive, almost continent-wide trading network. They obtained copper from Indians in the Great Lakes area, seashells and shark teeth from Indians along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, quartz and grizzly bear teeth from the Rocky Mountains, and freshwater pearls from surrounding rivers.

Eastern Woodlands Indians—Another diverse American Indian civilization developed in the Southeast and along the Atlantic coast into the Northeast. These tribes were called the **Eastern Woodlands Indians** and were probably the first Indians the English, French, Dutch, and Swedish settlers encountered in the New World. The civilization's development began around AD 700 between the areas of Memphis and St. Louis and spread quickly throughout the Southeast, especially after 1200. They tended to settle along the rich bottomlands of the Mississippi, Ohio, and Tennessee rivers and developed tight-knit agricultural communities. The women grew corn, beans, squash, and sunflowers while the men were hunters and, when necessary, warriors.

These Indians had a matriarchal society, meaning that the women held power in the social structure and political decision making. They were a politically skillful people, not unorganized and uncivilized. In the Southeast, this group included the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, and Seminoles. Northern tribes of Eastern Woodlands Indians included the Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, and Tuscaroras.

At various times in early American history, these tribes were sometimes friends and sometimes enemies of the European explorers and colonists. Sometimes they helped the early settlers and sided with the colonists against the colonists' enemies. Other times they helped the settlers' enemies and warred against the colonists. As we shall learn in later chapters, the group as a whole gradually declined over the centuries as a result of droughts, famines, European diseases (e.g., smallpox, chicken pox, and measles), infighting, wars with the colonists, enslavement, and intermarriage.

The Spanish Century

Throughout the sixteenth century, the Spanish dominated the exploration and exploitation of the New World. From their Caribbean settlements on Hispaniola (begun by Christopher Columbus



The Great Serpent Mound in southern Ohio is a splendid example of a burial mound.

and his brother), Puerto Rico, and Cuba, the Spanish launched their conquests of the mainland. There in Mexico and Central and South America, the conquistadors discovered advanced civilizations, vast cities, and incredible treasure. Within a quarter century, the Spanish vanquished the Indian populations, amassing an empire that was virtually unrivaled both in terms of size and wealth.

Hernando Cortés was the first great **conquistador** (conqueror). In 1519, he and his fleet of 11 ships reached Mexico with strict orders from the governor of Cuba to explore the mainland coast and proceed no farther. Cortés disobeyed. To reduce the potential for mutiny against his unsanctioned mission, and knowing he would be hanged for insubordination if he were ever forced to return to Cuba, Cortés ordered his ships run aground.

He marched inland with more than 500 men, numerous dogs, several cannons, and 16 horses. As he proceeded, he enlisted support from many Indian tribes that had been conquered by the strongest tribe in the region, the Aztecs. Many welcomed the Spaniards as deliverers from Aztec rule. Those tribes despised the Aztecs for requiring heavy tribute (payments) from them and especially for taking the best of their young warriors to offer as human sacrifices in their bloody rituals.

The great Aztec king, **Montezuma**, hearing of the Spanish arrival, sent representatives offering gifts. It appears that he thought that Cortés might be an Aztec god. The enticing gleam of turquoise masks, intricate gold figurines, and massive disks of hammered gold made Cortés decide he would conquer the Aztecs. He commented that he had a “disease of the heart that only gold can cure.”

Cortés marched to Tenochtitlán (tay nahch tee TLAHN), the Aztec capital located on the site of modern Mexico City. He eventually crushed the Aztec resistance there.

Despite the advanced cultures of the Aztecs and other Indian tribes in Central and South America, they were no match for the military superiority of the Europeans. Cortés’s experiences

in Mexico were indicative of the clash of cultures that would lead to European dominance in that hemisphere. At one battle, Cortés’s army was outnumbered an estimated one hundred to one; yet they were able to fight to a draw. Indians, equipped with spears and clubs, faced soldiers armed with muskets and artillery. Some of the Spanish soldiers were mounted on animals that the Indians had never seen—horses.

Far more devastating to the native populations than firearms were the European diseases, to which the Indians had little immunity. The Indian population dropped by an estimated 90 percent between the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In the West Indies, the destruction of whole Indian populations by disease created a labor shortage for the Spanish that would be forcefully remedied with the arrival of more newcomers—African slaves.

Spain did not confine its New World interests to Mexico and Central and South America. A number of conquistadors explored the vast hinterland of North America (southeastern, southwestern, and Gulf coast regions) hoping to repeat Cortés’s seizure of Indian wealth. **Francisco de Coronado**, for example, commanded an



Hernando Cortés meeting Montezuma

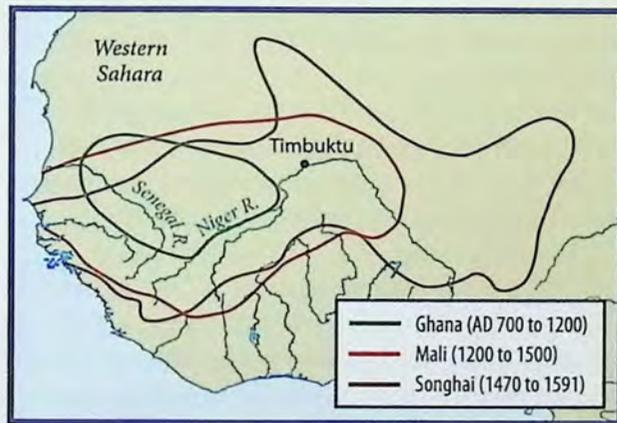
Indians and European Diseases

The Indians had one enemy against which they had no known defense: diseases spread by the Europeans who landed in the New World. What we call common childhood diseases today—such as measles, mumps, and whooping cough—are generally manageable, fairly easily treated, and rarely fatal. Among a population that has never been exposed to them, however, those same diseases are often deadly. In addition to the diseases already mentioned, the Indians were exposed to typhus, cholera, influenza, and others. Perhaps the most deadly among them was smallpox, a disease that was finally eradicated in the late twentieth century.

West African Culture

From about 600 to 1600, a succession of empires—first Ghana, then Mali, and later the Songhai—flourished in West Africa. Each of the three was progressively larger than the previous one. West Africa was a land of thriving trade, diverse societies, and many rich states.

The empire of Ghana was located between the salt mines of the Sahara and the gold mines to the south. Ghana prospered by taxing goods that traders carried through the territory. Frequent wars, exhaustion of the soil due to continued cultivation, and the opening of new trade routes that bypassed Ghana



led to the empire's collapse by the early 1200s.

East of Ghana, the empire of Mali arose. Its wealth and power resulted from controlling the salt and gold trade. Mali's empire reached its peak in the 1300s under the leadership of Mansa Musa (ca. 1280–ca. 1337). Musa's capital, Timbuktu, was a center of trade and scholarship. The prosperous city attracted doctors, religious leaders, and scholars. Timbuktu became known for its bustling prosperity and intellectual climate.

Along the Niger River, the empire of Songhai emerged. When Mali began to decline, the ruler of Songhai seized Timbuktu in 1468. He then pushed north into the Sahara and south along the Niger River; thus the empire extended farther than Ghana or Mali. With wealth from the north and south trade routes, various rulers of Songhai raised large armies and conquered new territory.

They also built cities, administered laws, and supported art, architecture, and education. The Songhai became the largest West African empire in history. Songhai remained a powerful empire until 1591, when Moroccan troops shattered its army.

As in other parts of the world, slavery existed in African society. Often prisoners of war were held for ransom or became slaves of the conquering people. West African slavery changed with the arrival of Muslim traders who exchanged horses, cotton, and other goods for enslaved people.

West Africans knew little about Europeans before the 1400s. In that century, Portuguese traders established outposts on their coast. Unfortunately, in addition to trading a variety of goods, the Portuguese began purchasing slaves. At first, such transactions were limited to a small number of people bought from village chiefs, usually captives from rival groups. By the 1700s, that number rose dramatically as the demand for slave labor in the New World increased.

expedition that left Mexico in 1540 to explore what would later be the southwestern United States. Believing the Indian tales about the mythical Seven Cities of Gold, Coronado explored Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Kansas. That anyone in Coronado's expedition survived the four-thousand-mile trek in the extreme temperatures of the Southwest was an extraordinary accomplishment. His expedition did not find gold, but one of its parties did discover and explore the Grand Canyon.

Before the Spanish knew about what is today Florida, they had already established scores of settlements throughout the West Indies. There, and later in Central and South America, they discovered wealth, which they sent back to Spain in treasure fleets. Spaniards also made a number of attempts to settle the southeastern United States.

In 1513, **Juan Ponce de León** sailed northwest from Puerto Rico in search of more rumored wealth. He sailed up the east coast of the Florida peninsula and landed near present-day St. Augustine, claiming the area for Spain and naming it Florida. Some accounts say that he was searching for the legendary Fountain of Youth, although some historians have disputed this claim. Years later, in 1565, the Spanish established the settlement of **St. Augustine**. It



Juan Ponce de León

Castillo de San Marcos protected St. Augustine, the oldest permanent settlement in North America.



is the oldest permanent city settled by Europeans in the present United States.

In 1539, **Hernando de Soto** landed at present-day Tampa Bay, Florida, where he began a meandering trek through Florida. De Soto's journey took him as far north as modern Charlotte, North Carolina. Then, traveling through the Deep South, he eventually discovered the Mississippi River.

In later decades, the Spanish built settlements and outposts along the coast of Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, and Virginia's Chesapeake Bay, and as far west as Tennessee's Great Smoky Mountains. However, disease, hunger, and hostile Indians prevented Spain from becoming firmly established in North America.

Through their exploration and settlement efforts, the Spanish claimed much of what is now the United States. But Spanish rule was not beneficial to the new land; the Spanish preferred exploiting the land to developing it. To Spain, the New World was little more than a treasure chest to be looted, not a resource to be cultivated. Also, the government that Spain brought to the New World was harsh and dictatorial.

The Spanish and Portuguese also introduced to the New World a practice which would create problems that would not be resolved until the American Civil War—slavery. Not only did the Spanish enslave Indian captives, but the Spanish and the Portuguese captured and brought African slaves to their Caribbean island settlements. Eventually, those slaves were sold to colonists on the mainland of North America. The repercussions of that slave trade would be felt for centuries afterward.

International Competition

By the late sixteenth century, it was clear that it was easier for Spain to claim territory than to keep it. The shiploads of gold and silver that Spain was siphoning out of the New World heightened French, English, and Dutch envy of Spain and their interest in America. In addition, Spain's Catholic king **Philip II** (ruled 1556–98) was bent on crushing Protestantism in western Europe—and he had much success in doing so. Subsidized by Mexican gold and Peruvian silver, Philip's army was the largest, best-equipped in Europe, and thousands of Protestants were killed in its bloody wake. Bitterness over Catholic Spain's military threat made Spanish New World outposts a tempting target for Protestant sea captains, such as England's **Sir Francis Drake**.



King Philip II of Spain



Sir Francis Drake

Drake was the most famous admiral during Queen **Elizabeth I**'s rule. He and other commanders attacked and often robbed Spanish ships in the New World. They called themselves **Sea Dogs**. The Spanish viewed them as pirates. In 1577, Drake followed the course around South America that Magellan had first steered a half century earlier. Drake looted Spanish outposts in the Pacific and, failing to find a northern sea route back to the Atlantic, sailed from California westward to England. The circumnavigator reached England again in 1580, his ship laden with Spanish treasure.

In 1493, to settle a dispute over who could explore and claim new lands in the Western Hemisphere, Pope Alexander VI had divided the world in half, giving Portugal rights to lands east of the "line of demarcation" and giving Spain the lands west of the line. Protestant England scorned the pope's presumption that the world was his to divide. His ruling would have shut the English out of the New World. Drake was a strong Protestant and an ardent English patriot. Sailing for the honor of England, he was determined to challenge Spain's monopoly in America. After his circumnavigation of the globe, however, Drake's concerns about Spain would be much closer to home. In 1586, Philip II began amassing a huge fleet to conquer Protestant England. The outcome of this conflict would determine not only the fate of the island kingdom but also who would colonize most of North America—Catholic Spain or Protestant England.

In 1588, the **Spanish Armada**, 130 ships and about 30,000 men, entered the English Channel. Drake used fire ships to break up the Spanish formation, sinking a number of vessels. The Spanish admiral's attempt to outrun the English guns by sailing around Ireland ended when a fierce storm, which the relieved English later called the "Protestant Wind," destroyed much of Spain's fleet. Philip's dream of conquering Protestant England lay amid the wreckage floating off the rugged Irish coast.

The defeat of the Spanish Armada was both dramatic in its scope and decisive in its results. It secured the future for Protestants in England. In addition, it brought about the end of the Spanish century and the beginning of English dominance on the seas and eventually in North America.

The English Foothold

In the 1580s, a number of Englishmen, including Sir **Walter Raleigh**, compiled for Queen Elizabeth a list of arguments favoring the colonization of North America. They presented a number of advantages to settling the New World, including expanding Protestantism, boosting trade and national influence, reducing unemployment, and establishing military outposts to thwart Spanish dominance.

In 1584, the queen gave Raleigh permission to plant a colony in the land he called Virginia in honor of the unmarried virgin queen. Although Raleigh himself never came to North America, he sponsored an expedition of colonists to settle on **Roanoke Island**, located along North Carolina's Outer Banks. The colony was short-lived. After wintering on the island, the colonists encountered rough treatment from neighboring Indians and threats of a Spanish attack. As a result, the English abandoned the lonely outpost in the summer of 1586.

The determined Raleigh financed a second group to Roanoke Island in 1587 under the command of John White, a veteran of the



Queen Elizabeth I of England



Sir Walter Raleigh

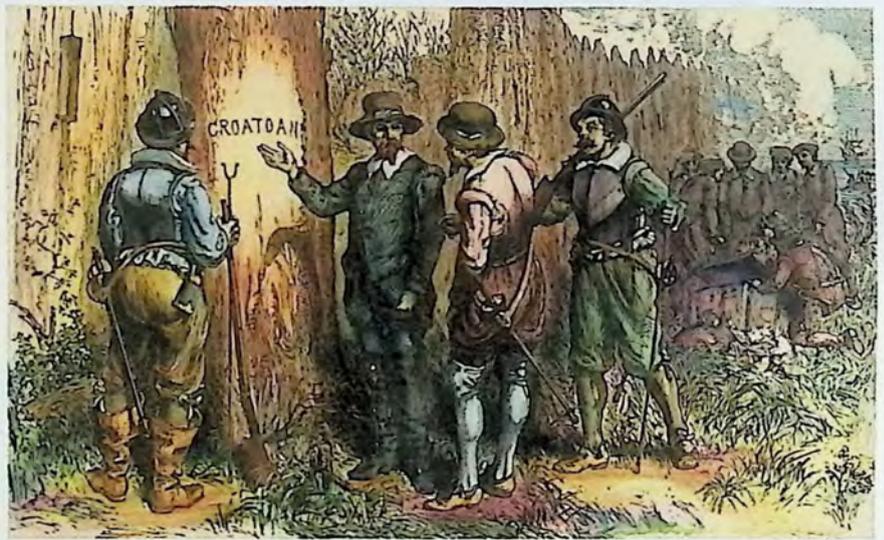


This current road sign welcomes visitors to Roanoke Island.

first expedition. White's group numbered about 115 and for the first time included women and children. Among them were White's daughter and her husband. White's daughter gave birth to a child shortly after arriving in the New World. That baby, Virginia Dare, was the first English child born in America.

Unfortunately, the colonists arrived too late in the summer to plant crops. With the prospect of a lean winter, they urged White to return to England for supplies. After he reached England, however, the war with Spain delayed his return until 1590. When White returned, the little colony had disappeared. All he found was a single word carved on a tree where the village had once stood—"Croatoan." The Croatoans were an Indian tribe in the area. The fate of the "Lost Colony" has never been determined. Perhaps they were killed or captured by Indians. Perhaps they joined a nearby tribe. When Elizabeth I died in 1603, no trace of her colonizing efforts remained in the hostile wilderness that bore her name.

John White returned to Roanoke in 1590.



New France

The British colonies were significantly different from the Spanish and French settlements in the New World. Spanish America was a rigidly structured plantation society controlled directly and completely by the monarch, run for its profit and the benefit of the Catholic Church. Relatively few Spaniards came to the New World to live, and fewer families migrated there.

Similarly, the sparse French settlements in Canada, or **New France**, were largely dependent on the mother country for their success. The French king determined colonial policies and exercised complete control over his colonial subjects. In addition, the economic realities of New France did not encourage growth and independence. The long Canadian winters reduced most farming to a subsistence level, leaving little to export. And though the French fur trade was profitable, it was more suited for frontiersmen than farmers and merchants, which are key participants in a mature, productive settlement.

New Netherland

The area of the North Atlantic coast of North America that is now New York was discovered and claimed for the Dutch by **Henry Hudson** in 1609. The area was named

Henry Hudson landed in present-day New York.



New Netherland, and its main town was named New Amsterdam (now New York City). The colony became a province of the Dutch Republic in 1624.

The most famous governor of New Netherland was a one-legged firebrand named Peter Stuyvesant (STY vih sent). He took control in 1647 and sought to protect the colony from potential Indian attacks. He became very unpopular for his heavy-handed rule.

In 1664, the English seized the colony, promising the citizens freedom of life, liberty, and property in return for their surrender. Stuyvesant signed the treaty ceding the colony, and it was officially renamed New York. The population of the area had grown from 270 in 1628 to about 9,000 (700 of which were black slaves) by 1664.

English Dominance in North America

As we shall see in the next chapter, the English came in greater numbers than their rivals to the south and north, and by the 1620s they were coming as families. They brought their English heritage with them. Their books were printed in London, their houses were styled after English architecture, and their schools were patterned after those in England. They also brought English political institutions. Significantly, in Queen Elizabeth's original charter authorizing an American settlement, colonists and their succeeding generations were granted the full rights of English citizenship—in the words of the charter, “as if they were borne and personally residuante within our sed Realme of England.”

English patterns of self-government became an early, integral part of colonial life. In 1619, the Virginia colony at Jamestown (discussed in Chapter 2) established the House of Burgesses, an assembly modeled after the English Parliament. As other colonies developed, so did their political institutions. Living in relative isolation from the mother country, generations of colonists gained practical experience in self-government under a local political system that for them held more relevance than the royal government on the other side of the ocean.

Section Review

- 1–3. What were the three basic groups of American Indians that explorers encountered in the New World, and where was each generally located?
4. What European nation first dominated the exploration of the New World?
- 5–6. What great Indian empire formerly ruled Mexico? What Spaniard is responsible for conquering it?
- 7–8. Who financed the first two English attempts to settle North America? Where were these settlements located?
9. Which European power furthered its control over North America by promising Dutch colonists preservation of life, liberty, and property in return for their surrender?
- ★ Assess the impact of European diseases on Indians in the New World.
- ★ Why was the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 important to the history of European settlement in North America?



Peter Stuyvesant was the one-legged, hard-nosed, and heavy-handed ruler of New Netherland until he lost the colony to the English.

People, Places, and Things to Remember

Marco Polo
 compass
 astrolabe
 caravel
 mercantilism
 Bartolomeu Dias
 Vasco da Gama
 Christopher Columbus
 Amerigo Vespucci
 John Cabot
 Ferdinand Magellan
 circumnavigate
 Martin Luther
 Protestant Reformation
 John Calvin
 Bering Strait
 Pueblo Indians
 Mound Builders
 Eastern Woodlands Indians
 Hernando Cortés
 conquistador
 Montezuma
 Francisco de Coronado
 Juan Ponce de León
 St. Augustine
 Hernando de Soto
 Philip II
 Francis Drake
 Elizabeth I
 Sea Dogs
 Spanish Armada
 Walter Raleigh
 Roanoke Island
 Lost Colony
 New France
 Henry Hudson
 New Netherland

CHAPTER REVIEW

Making Connections

- For the ten explorers listed below, answer the following two questions: For what country did he sail? Why is he most remembered?

a. Bartolomeu Dias	f. Hernando Cortés
b. Vasco da Gama	g. Francisco de Coronado
c. Christopher Columbus	h. Juan Ponce de León
d. John Cabot	i. Hernando de Soto
e. Ferdinand Magellan	j. Francis Drake
- Why did many European nations practice mercantilism?
- How did Martin Luther differ from others who sought to reform the Roman Catholic Church?
- 4–5. Why did the Protestant sea captains make raids on Spanish shipping? (List two reasons.)

Developing History Skills

- Evaluate the cultural achievements of the Pueblos, the Mound Builders, and the Eastern Woodlands Indians. What do you believe were their greatest accomplishments?
- 2–4. Give three ways the English settlements in the New World differed from those of the French and the Spanish.

Thinking Critically

- Respond to the following statement: “The defeat of the Spanish Armada had nothing to do with divine providence. We have no historical proof that God was fighting for England and Protestantism. It is true that this defeat helped Protestants, but many events in the 1500s hurt the Protestant cause. If God was fighting for Protestantism in 1588, why did He not protect the thousands of French Huguenots [Protestants] who were killed in 1572 at what became known as St. Bartholomew’s Day massacre?”
- Evaluate the exploits of Drake and the Sea Dogs (include the good and the bad about their endeavors).

Living as a Christian Citizen

- You are Hernando Cortés. How should you deal with the native inhabitants of the Americas?
- You are an English nobleman attempting to organize a colonizing effort in North America. You are trying to convince a group of devout Protestants to plant a colony in Virginia. Write an essay designed to persuade them to cross the ocean and establish this colony.

THIRTEEN COLONIES

2



An illustration of the Jamestown fort

Being thus arrived in a good harbor, and brought safe to land, they fell upon their knees and blessed the God of Heaven.

William Bradford
ca. 1650, recalling the Pilgrims' arrival in the New World

- I. Why the English Came
- II. English Settlements Made Permanent
- III. The New England Colonies
- IV. The Middle Colonies
- V. The Southern Colonies

Big Ideas

1. What motivated English settlement?
2. How did English settlements differ from other European settlements?
3. What characterized the New England colonies?
4. How did the middle colonies differ from other English colonies?
5. What characterized the southern colonies?

Guiding Question

What five motivations resulted in English settlers coming to the North American colonies?

The Lure of Land

The promise of abundant land drew many colonists to America. The charter colonies in Virginia and Massachusetts began under an arrangement whereby individuals were to work and share alike for the good of the colony. The absence of private ownership of property robbed the colonists of incentive and productivity, so the system was a failure. The companies soon reorganized to provide for land ownership. By 1614, each Jamestown colonist received three acres of land. With a seemingly endless supply of land rolling to the west, the Virginia Company later offered **headrights** (land grants) of fifty-acre tracts to those who paid for their passage or who fulfilled an **indenture** (work contract) for a specified period, usually between four and seven years. Nearly half of the arrivals to the colonies outside of New England came in this latter manner and were known as indentured servants. A man who was willing to work, no matter how poor he was when he arrived, received land, tools, seed, and, above all, opportunity.



King John signing the Magna Carta in 1215

Twice the English had tried to establish colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America. First, they had attempted to build a settlement on Roanoke Island, only to be discouraged by threats from the Indians and the Spanish. The next year they tried again to establish a colony there, only to have the inhabitants mysteriously disappear, leaving only the hint “Croatoan” carved on a tree. By 1700, however, the east coast of North America had become a “new England,” dotted with many thriving English settlements. The story of this change is a remarkable one, and it has done much to define American culture. But to understand this story, one must begin by learning something about how the English viewed the New World and the opportunities there.

I. Why the English Came

Englishmen came to the New World for many reasons. Many of them were fortune seekers drawn by dreams of quick riches. The gold and silver never materialized, however, so the settlers took advantage of the many resources found in the New World. Tobacco, rice, lumber, pine tar, indigo, and furs became valuable exports, enriching both England and the colonies.

Some Englishmen traveled to the colonies for the opportunity to own land. In England, wealthy families held much of the land. Tradition kept a family from selling their land to anyone else, and only the firstborn inherited land. Younger family members and most other Englishmen had little hope of owning their own property. However, America had an abundance of available land.

Still other Englishmen desired political freedom, even though some already had a limited voice in their government. The Magna Carta, a document signed by King John in 1215, had limited the power of the English monarch. It also guaranteed certain basic rights to the nobility, but most Englishmen remained unprotected from government abuse. For example, James I and Charles I tried to strengthen royal power at the cost of personal liberty. As a result, many Englishmen went to America to escape oppressive leaders.

Religious freedom also became a powerful force in attracting settlers to America. Most of those who traveled to the New World for religious liberty wanted the freedom to structure their society so that every part of life experienced the renewal of the Protestant Reformation.

Many of those who became settlers had been frustrated when England’s official church, the **Church of England** (also known as the Anglican Church), embraced aspects of the Reformation while continuing several Roman Catholic practices. Christians quickly discovered that English rulers were not interested in fully implementing the work of the Reformation. As a result, they viewed the New World as a haven where they could establish communities and complete the Reformation. This reason for settlement distinguished the colonial heritage of the United States from that of new colonies established in other regions.

One other reason some settlers came to America was a longing for adventure. However, most found hardships and great difficulty. While many of America’s early settlers found plenty of adventure, the cost of life and success proved to be very high for the first colonists.

Section Review

- 1–5. List five reasons why the English and others came to America.
6. What political document guaranteed certain basic rights to some Englishmen?
- ★ Why did English believers become frustrated with the Church of England?

II. English Settlements Made Permanent

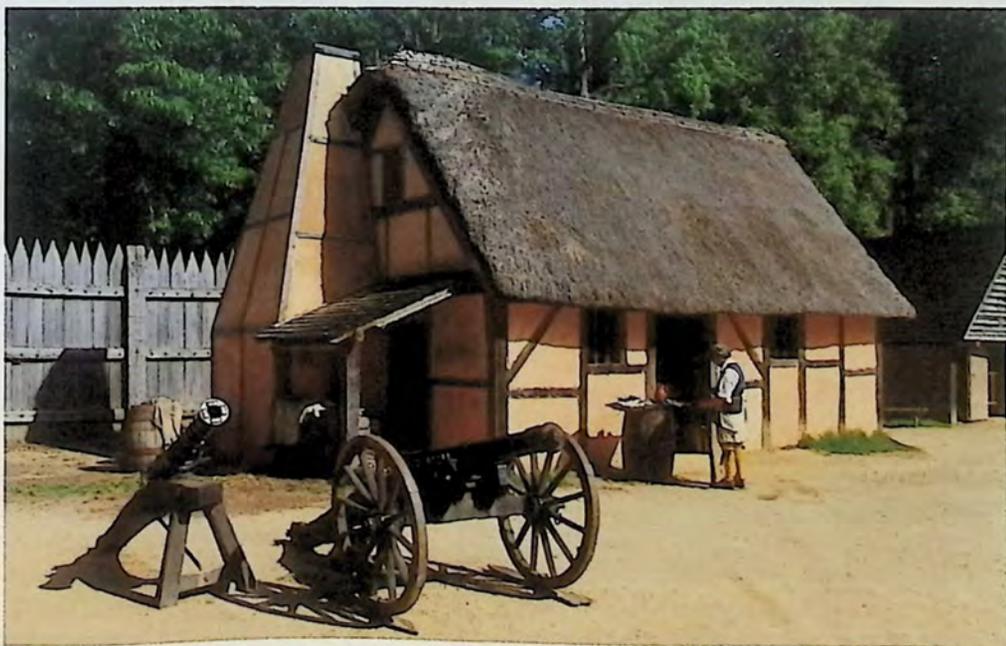
Sir Walter Raleigh's Roanoke expedition was the last individual effort of an Englishman to establish a colony. Later attempts were made by companies of individuals who shared the expenses of founding a colony, with the understanding that profits would also be shared.

Joint-stock companies, whose investors shared profits, provided a means whereby enterprises could obtain large monetary resources and remain free from the government control that accompanied government-sponsored projects. These companies provided a vehicle through which individuals could work together to establish new institutions in a new land. In 1606, King James I granted a charter to such a group, the London Company, permitting them to colonize Virginia.

Jamestown

The London Company (later renamed the Virginia Company) sent 104 men and boys to America. After a rough ocean passage, they reached the Chesapeake Bay in May 1607, where they found a wide inlet that they cautiously entered and went ashore. The Englishmen named both the river and their little fort after their monarch. **Jamestown** became the first permanent English settlement in the New World.

The first years were bitter ones for the colony. Malaria, typhoid fever, and dysentery (an intestinal disorder) took a devastating toll. By the end of the first winter, over half of the colonists had died in this hostile land.



Jamestown

Guiding Questions

1. What struggles did members of the Virginia colony endure and what is the significance of the year 1619 to this colony?
2. What three types of colonial administrations were developed by the British?



Captain John Smith

Indians of the Powhatan Confederacy also complicated the settlers' existence. At first, relations between the two peoples were friendly enough, but as the colonists began to clear more land, the Indians sent war parties to attack. A shaky peace came to the area in 1614 with the marriage of **Pocahontas** (POH kuh HAHN tus), the daughter of the Powhatan chief, to Englishman John Rolfe.

Typhoid was not the only fever to wreak havoc among the colonial ranks; gold fever consumed much of the settlers' time and resources. As a result, they neglected and even scorned planting and hunting. That attitude threatened the colony with starvation. Captain **John Smith**, however, enforced the kind of discipline necessary for the survival of Jamestown, drawing from the biblical principle of 2 Thessalonians 3:10—that only those who work should eat. Smith also improved the settlers' relations with Powhatan's men, who taught the settlers how to grow maize and melons.

In 1609, hundreds of new colonists arrived in Jamestown. Unfortunately, that same year a gunpowder explosion had severely injured John Smith and forced his return to England. The winter of

The Swashbuckling Career of Captain John Smith (1580–1631)

Captain John Smith is justly famous for his role in helping establish the Virginia colony, but his adventures there were only a part of his sensational exploits. As a teenager, Smith fled the dull life of a farm laborer in England to seek adventure as a soldier of fortune. He fought for the Dutch in their war for independence against Spain and afterward traveled around Europe looking for another war and an army in need of an experienced hand.

In 1600, he joined the Austrian and Hungarian forces fighting the Turks in Hungary, where he eventually rose to the rank of captain. In one glorious but gory incident, Smith took on three Turks in separate one-on-one combats and killed and beheaded all three. He was later captured by the Turks and sold into slavery. Sent to work in the fields of what is now southern Russia, Smith killed his Turkish master with a club used for threshing. After hiding the body, Smith donned his dead master's clothes, took his horse, and escaped into Russia. From there, he was able to make his way back to Europe, eventually ending up in England in time to join the Jamestown expedition.

As one of the leaders of the Jamestown colony, Smith had a number of encounters with the Indians. On one occasion, he and fifteen men on a trading trip were surrounded in an Indian village by more than seven hundred Indians. Quickly, Smith seized the chief of the Indians by the hair and clapped a pistol to the chief's chest. Fearing for their leader's safety, the Indians disarmed and traded peacefully with the Englishmen.

The most famous episode between Smith and the Indians (one which some historians still question) involved the Indian princess

Pocahontas. As Smith related the story, the Indians captured him while he was exploring. The Indian chief had ordered his braves to club Smith to death when the chief's daughter, Pocahontas (only about thirteen years old), dashed out, cradled Smith's head in her arms, and begged that his life be spared. A somewhat indulgent father, the chief agreed, and Smith was spared.

Smith's adventures did not end when he left Virginia. French pirates captured him, and Smith spent several months sailing with them as they preyed on ships in the Atlantic. For the most part, however, Captain

Smith spent his last years living in England, writing of his exploits, dispensing advice on colonizing to whomever would listen, and wishing that he could return at least once more to the New World for more adventure.



Pocahontas supposedly saved the life of John Smith.

“Precious Stink”

“Precious stink.” That is how an early Virginian settler described pungent and profitable tobacco, America’s first cash crop. The Spanish discovered the New World plant when they encountered Caribbean natives smoking *tabacos*—rolled leaves that they lit and inserted into both nostrils.

The Virginia settlers were the first to compete with the Spanish tobacco trade when, in 1614, John Rolfe sent a shipload of tobacco to England, where it received mixed reviews. Tobacco had reached England

as early as Raleigh’s first colonizing effort, but Rolfe’s crop was a milder variety owing to his introduction of a sweeter strain of West Indies tobacco.

Many people believed that tobacco actually had medical benefits. A popular couplet of the time went “Divine tobacco! which gives ease / To all our pains and miseries.” Actually, today we know that it is the source of a great deal of pain and misery. King James I objected to the colonial crop as a “noxious weed.” Yet, despite its harmful effects, the

“jovial weed” remained popular. Just five years after Rolfe’s first shipment, Virginia exported forty thousand pounds of tobacco, and by the late 1630s that figure had skyrocketed to 1.5 million pounds per year.

Tobacco became so crucial to the Virginia economy that the price of goods was measured not in shillings or dollars but in pounds of tobacco. One person aptly declared that Virginia “was founded upon smoak.”

1609–10 was possibly the worst trial the Jamestown colonists faced. It was known as the “starving time” because death due to hunger became a way of life. Settlers ate horses, dogs, cats, mice, and snakes. Some even ate the bodies of the dead. Roughly 90 percent of the colony died during that terrible winter.

In the spring of 1610, survivors planned to abandon Jamestown. However, when three supply ships arrived, they decided to remain. Although many more hardships awaited the settlement, the starving time was the toughest one, and they had grimly endured it.

In 1618, the Virginia Company of London granted colonists the right to elect a law-making body. That group, the **House of Burgesses**, became the first self-governing assembly in the New World.

A month after the representatives, called burgesses, undertook the business of governing the colony, a Dutch ship arrived at Jamestown. No one there could have foreseen its significance. John Rolfe simply recorded in his journal that “about the last of August . . . twenty [Africans]” arrived. The first Africans in British North America were treated like indentured servants, working for a period and then receiving their freedom. Gradually, though, racial distinctions were made among indentured servants, and blacks were placed in permanent bondage. Slave labor was later used throughout the colonies from New England to Georgia. That day in 1619, when those Africans were deposited by force on the banks of the James River, signaled the beginning of tremendous social division and moral tension for succeeding generations of Americans.

Another ship’s arrival in 1619 held more immediate significance. Ninety eligible women arrived, available for purchase as wives for the cost of their passage. The price was 125 pounds of tobacco (which served as currency at the time), and sales were brisk. The establishment of families in Virginia brought a more settled aspect and a steadier growth to the colony.

One source of difficulty for the Virginians was Indian relations. As mentioned earlier, the initial tension between the Indians and the English eased with the marriage of Pocahontas to John Rolfe. The Indian princess converted to Christianity and even made a celebrated tour of England. Unfortunately, the trip ended tragically

Pocahontas

Virginia’s governor sent Pocahontas, who had received the Christian name Rebecca, to England along with her husband, John Rolfe. She was an impressive advertisement for the London Company of Virginia. Dressed in rich fabric and lace, the Indian princess became a social sensation in London and even met King James I.

In 1617, she died and was buried in England. She was about twenty-one years old. Her infant son, Thomas Rolfe, received his education in England but then returned to Virginia, where he gained prominence.



Slavery in the New World

Shortly after arriving in the Americas, the Spanish began enslaving thousands of Indians. Unfortunately, many Native American tribes practiced some form of slavery long before the arrival of Europeans. In fact, it was not unusual for a conquering tribe to enslave war captives. As disease reduced the number of native peoples in the Americas, European settlers turned elsewhere for slaves.

Africans were soon transported in large numbers to North and South America. The truth about how these innocent people were forced to work as slaves is a shameful and tragic story. Their trip typically began with a forced march, often led by traders who were also Africans, to the West African coast. As they boarded ships, they were crammed as closely as the captains thought possible without causing them to smother. For weeks they were chained together, enduring dirty, stifling, and wretched con-

ditions. They were given little food and drink. Sometimes contagious diseases, such as smallpox, spread throughout the ship. The death toll was often enormous, and those who died or became ill were thrown overboard.

Historians estimate that between ten and twelve million Africans were enslaved and sent to the Americas in the centuries after Columbus arrived. On the way, roughly

two million died at sea. The Africans' journey to the New World was later called the **Middle Passage** because it was the middle part of the trade route taken by many of the ships.

Of the eight to ten million who reached the two American continents, more than three million went to Portuguese Brazil, while about 1.5 million went to the Spanish colonies. The British, French, and Dutch colonies in the Caribbean imported

over three million to work on their plantations. Approximately 500,000 Africans were transported to the thirteen British colonies.



African captives in the hold of a slave ship

Middle Passage

Olaudah Equiano survived the horrors of the Middle Passage. Years later, after obtaining his freedom, he wrote an autobiography. The following is an excerpt from that book.

At last, when the ship we were in had got in all her cargo, they made ready with many fearful noises, and we were all put under deck. . . . The stench of the hold while we were on the coast was so intolerably loathsome, that it was dangerous to remain there for any time, and some of us had been permitted to stay on the deck for the fresh air; but now that the whole ship's cargo were confined together. . . . 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.

when she died from disease (possibly smallpox, pneumonia, or tuberculosis) on the eve of her return voyage to Virginia.

Not long afterwards, Pocahontas's father died. His brother became the new chief. On Good Friday morning, March 22, 1622, Indian warriors attacked and killed more than three hundred colonists. The battered Virginians gathered their forces and exacted heavy revenge. Later, another Indian attack on white settlers resulted in a treaty that restricted the area where the English could settle. The English soon violated that treaty, and the atmosphere of animosity continued between the two groups. Because of the Indian uprisings and the bickering among the Virginia Company's leadership, Charles I had the company dismantled, and Virginia became a royal colony in 1624.

There were three types or categories of English colonial administration: charter, proprietary, and royal. A **charter colony** was one governed by a trade company (such as the Virginia Company) that received its authorization from the king. Charter colonies usually enjoyed the most independence in their government. Under the **proprietary** arrangement, the king appointed a proprietor or proprietors (ultimately responsible to him) to govern a colony. A **royal colony** was controlled directly by the king, which meant that the monarch and his advisers appointed the governor directly. As the seventeenth century progressed, a number of charter and proprietary colonies became royal colonies as the king assumed increasing control over colonial affairs.

Section Review

1. Which Englishman tried to establish a colony on Roanoke Island?
2. What was the first permanent English settlement in the New World?
3. Who ensured the survival of that settlement by enforcing a biblical principle, and what was that principle?
- 4–6. Name and define the three categories of colonial government.
 - ★ After rereading “Precious Stink” in the margin of this section, assess the importance of tobacco to Virginia.
 - ★ How did the trials and successes of Jamestown manifest the core values of freedom, individualism, equality, and growth? What contradictions to these values began to develop?

III. The New England Colonies

The differences and similarities of the English colonies can best be studied by arranging and examining them geographically. The four northernmost colonies were known as New England. The four colonies immediately to the south of New England were known as the middle colonies. The remaining five were called the southern colonies.

Massachusetts

In 1614, Captain John Smith, who had been commissioned by the Virginia Company to explore the coast far north of Jamestown, found a region rich with furs and fish. Smith’s account of that land, which he called **New England**, stimulated interest in the region.

The Pilgrims

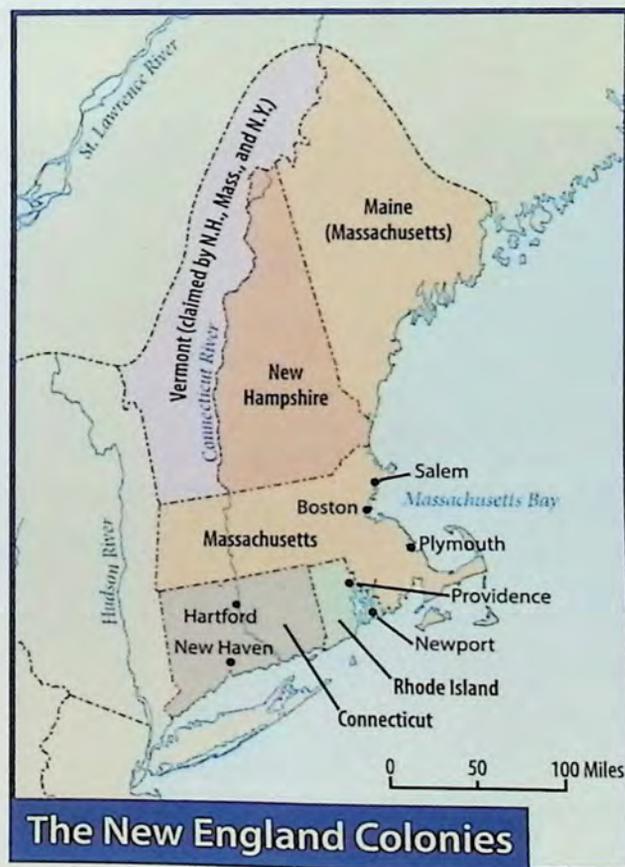
The first English settlers to New England arrived in November 1620. The *Mayflower*, swept off its course to Virginia by a fierce storm, anchored off Cape Cod, Massachusetts. On board the ship were a number of Christians known as **Pilgrims**. They had left their houses and lands and crossed an ocean to worship God freely. They showed extraordinary faith in the midst of the hardships they faced and the sacrifices they made.

To study the settling of Massachusetts by the Pilgrims and a decade later by the Puritans, one must understand the religious situation in England at that time. As mentioned earlier, the official church was a Protestant one, the Church of England. However, England’s official break with Roman Catholicism resulted largely from political rather than spiritual concerns. This is not to say that the Reformation failed to have a spiritual impact on England. For example, William Tyndale translated the Scriptures into English. The psalmist wrote that “the entrance of thy words giveth light” (Ps. 119:130), and so it was in England. Thousands of copies of Tyndale’s translation were distributed, and as the gospel was preached throughout the country, many came to trust Christ as their Savior.

However, many traces of Roman Catholicism remained in the rituals of the Anglican Church and in the conduct of its ministers. Two groups, the Puritans and the Separatists, emerged in opposition to those problems. The **Puritans** were a group of Anglicans who wanted to purify the state church from within by pushing for

Guiding Questions

1. How did the Pilgrims differ from the Puritans?
2. How were each of the New England colonies founded?



reforms that would rid England of Roman Catholic influences and bring greater spiritual vitality to the nation.

The **Separatists**, though agreeing with many of the spiritual goals of the Puritans, believed that Christians needed to separate from the official church. They thought each congregation should be independent of all other churches, free to worship and serve God without interference. Because the Separatists refused to attend Anglican churches and recognize the authority of the state church, they were harassed, and many were jailed.

In 1607, one congregation of Separatists from England migrated to the Netherlands (also called Holland) because religious tolerance there allowed them to preach and practice their faith freely. After a decade in Holland, however, they noticed that the Dutch language and customs threatened the preservation of their own language and culture among their children. In addition, the worldly atmosphere in Holland threatened the spiritual well-being of their children and their congregation. Because of these concerns and their desire to spread the gospel, they obtained a land grant from the Virginia Company to settle in the New World. Under the terms of the agreement, they would receive land and, most importantly to them, the right to worship freely.

The Pilgrims prayed for God's help as they set out for the New World.



A replica of the *Mayflower*



In September 1620, the *Mayflower* left Plymouth, England, bound for America. Aboard were 102 passengers, about half of whom were Separatists. Because of their travels, this particular group of Separatists became known as the Pilgrims. The Pilgrims referred to the other travelers as “strangers.”

The ocean passage was stormy, and the little *Mayflower* was blown far north of the Virginia colony to Cape Cod, Massachusetts. From there, a second attempt to reach Virginia was also beaten back by a tempest. By then, it was November and scant provisions remained. Consequently, the Pilgrims decided to settle in Massachusetts. A scouting party went ashore and chose a site that Captain John Smith had named “Plymouth” during his New England trip six years earlier.

Because they were outside the area claimed by the Virginia Company, the leaders devised a contract of government to guide them. The agreement, known as the **Mayflower Compact**, bound the settlers to submit to the colony's laws and duly elected leadership. It was the first document of self-government in America.



William Bradford, who became governor of Plymouth in 1621, later wrote the history of the colony. In *Of Plymouth Plantation*, completed around 1650, he recorded the spirit, courage, and faith of those stalwart Christian families:

Being thus arrived in a good harbor, and brought safe to land, they fell upon their knees and blessed the God of Heaven who had brought them over the vast and furious ocean, and delivered them from all the perils and miseries thereof, again to set their feet on the firm and stable earth, their proper element.

As the Pilgrims stood in the winter's chill at the edge of a hostile wilderness, Bradford recorded their plight as well as their quiet confidence in God.

This poor people's present condition. . . no friends to welcome them nor inns to entertain or refresh their weatherbeaten bodies; no houses . . . to repair to. . . which way soever they turned their eyes (save upward to the heavens) they could have little solace. . . summer being done, all things stand upon them . . . and the whole country, full of woods and thickets, represented a wild and savage hue. If they looked behind them, there was the mighty ocean. . . What could now sustain them but the Spirit of God and His grace?

The first months at Plymouth were devastating ones. Half of the little group died before spring, including their first governor. Following that first winter, however, the colony began to prosper. Friendly Indians helped the colony raise native crops of maize (corn), pumpkins, squash, and tomatoes. Under the wise and godly leadership of their new governor, William Bradford, Plymouth gained a firm foothold.

Plymouth Colony grew steadily, though after 1630 it was surpassed in size and influence by the Puritans' Boston settlement. In 1691, Plymouth merged with the rest of Massachusetts, which by then had become a royal colony. The Plymouth Colony, however, had an influence that extended far beyond the bounds of seventeenth-century Massachusetts. As Bradford put it, "As one small candle may light a thousand, so the light here kindled hath shone unto many, yea in some sort to our whole nation." The enduring legacy of the

Signing
of the
Mayflower
Compact

William
Bradford



WILLIAM BRADFORD
GOVERNOR AND HISTORIAN
OF THE
PLYMOUTH COLONY

BORN IN AUSTERFIELD, ENGLAND-1590
DIED IN PLYMOUTH, NEW ENGLAND-1657

Squanto and Samoset

In mid-March 1621 the settlers in Plymouth received a surprise visit from an Indian named Samoset. They were probably stunned when he greeted them in broken English he had learned from contact with English fishermen. A few days later, Samoset returned to Plymouth with another Indian named **Squanto**. Squanto had been in contact with the English since 1605 and had lived in England for a few years. In 1619 he had returned to his homeland and discovered that his tribe and neighboring tribes had been wiped out by a plague.

Squanto provided the settlers with life-saving information about crop fertilization in order to increase food production. He also led them to areas where they could catch fish and eels to supplement their diet.

In addition, Squanto worked to establish peace between the settlers and the neighboring Wampanoag tribe. His efforts led to a peace that endured for nearly fifty years.

The Pilgrims and Thanksgiving Day

Faith in God sustained the members of the Plymouth Colony through their tribulations. When God delivered them from such trials, they were quick to follow Paul's command to give "thanks always for all things unto God and the Father in the name of our Lord Jesus Christ" (Eph. 5:20). After the bitter winter of 1620–21, the harvest of 1621 was a welcome relief to the colonists. In gratitude to God for His mercy, Governor William Bradford proclaimed a time of thanksgiving in the colony, celebrated in October 1621. For three days, the colony celebrated reverently but joyfully. They feasted on the bounty that God had provided for them—vegetables (such as cabbages, carrots, turnips, onions, and beets) and wild game (perhaps including turkeys, but this is not certain). Around ninety friendly Indians

joined the Pilgrims, providing fresh venison as their contribution to the feast.

A day of special thanksgiving to God by His people was by no means unusual. The Israelites' Feast of Pentecost and Feast of Tabernacles, for example, were both celebrations of thanksgiving for the blessings of harvest. Moses wrote, "And thou shalt rejoice in thy feast. . . . because the Lord thy God shall bless thee in all thine increase, and in all the works of thine hands" (Deut. 16:14–15). Christians throughout history have set aside special days of prayer, thanksgiving, and feasting to commemorate the blessings of God. However, the Plymouth feast—popularly regarded as "the first Thanksgiving" in America despite earlier such celebrations in Virginia—has become a part of the nation's heri-

tage, an almost legendary event as famous as Washington's crossing the Delaware.

Though the annual celebration of Thanksgiving Day in America owes its inspiration to the Pilgrims, the official holiday is much more recent. President George Washington proclaimed the first day of national thanksgiving on November 26, 1789. Thanksgiving became a regular annual holiday in 1863 when President Abraham Lincoln made the last Thursday in November Thanksgiving Day. This remained the standard date until 1939 when President Franklin Roosevelt moved it back one week to lengthen the Christmas shopping season. Finally, in 1941 Congress officially set the fourth Thursday in November as America's Thanksgiving Day.



John Winthrop

Pilgrims lies in their godly testimony, their pioneering spirit, and the way in which they defined America—as a refuge, a land of liberty for the worship of God and the preaching of His Word.

The Puritans

In 1629, the Massachusetts Bay Company received a royal charter to settle on land in the New World. In 1630, a fleet of about a dozen ships, carrying a thousand Puritans, arrived in America to establish the Massachusetts Bay Colony. This began a new phase of the colonization of North America. Over the next decade, some fifty thousand settlers sailed from England to various colonies in America and the West Indies. With the flood of new arrivals, a number of towns quickly emerged in Massachusetts: Salem, Dorchester, Charlestown, and Boston, the colony's seat of government.

The driving force behind the Puritan colony was its governor, **John Winthrop**. The well-educated leader dreamed of establishing a Puritan commonwealth where the Scriptures would direct the affairs of both church and state.

Winthrop's vision for Massachusetts was set forth in a sermon he preached aboard ship before going ashore. In his message, titled "A Model of Christian Charity," the governor underscored the purpose of the colony: it was to be a Christian community in the most thorough sense of both of those words—*Christian* and *community*. Every member of the community—pastor and parishioner alike—would contribute to the success of the whole. It was God's purpose that "they might be all knit more nearly together in the bonds of brotherly affection." Winthrop further declared that the colony had been given an extraordinary opportunity and responsibility to represent God: "We shall be as a city upon a hill. The eyes of all people

are upon us. So that if we shall deal falsely with our God in this work we have undertaken, and so cause him to withdraw his present help from us, we shall be made a story and a by-word through the world” [from the Winthrop Society].

At the heart of this goal of establishing a community of believers was the Puritans’ belief in the **covenant**. They believed they were in a covenant (legally binding relationship) with God. They were bound to obey this covenant if they were to receive His blessings. As a result they committed to build a holy commonwealth.

The Puritans set out to apply biblical principles to every aspect of their society, including their government and educational systems. In 1636, **Harvard College** was established near Boston to train young men for the ministry. One book about New England, written in 1643, included a section explaining the reason America’s first college was founded:

After God had carried us safe to New England, and we had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God’s worship, and settled the civil government: One of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches, when our present ministers shall lie in the dust.

The Puritans emphasized the scriptural principles of working hard and not being lazy (Prov. 12:24; 13:11; 21:25; 1 Thess. 4:11; 2 Thess. 3:10, 12). They viewed economic prosperity as God’s blessing and reward for their diligence. Some even concluded that this success implied they were God’s chosen people. Sadly, many in the second and third generations did not establish a personal relationship with Christ and maintain the spiritual covenant of their fathers. Material prosperity replaced spiritual inquiry and dependence upon God. Just as Israel had done in the past, the Puritans failed to heed God’s warning in Deuteronomy 6:10–15 about prosperity and the tendency to forget the Lord.

If the Bay Colony was, in Winthrop’s words, “a city upon a hill,” then it was a city that resembled those of England, an ocean away. Many Puritan officials in England immigrated to Massachusetts with their family and friends. These officials received town land grants from the Massachusetts Bay Company, which included authority to lay out the town and make property allotments. As a result, the settling of Massachusetts was more organized than that of other colonies.

Settlers continued to come to the Puritan commonwealth. As many as twenty thousand arrived in Massachusetts in the 1630s, and Boston soon became the largest city on the continent. Those colonists did not all stay in Massachusetts, however. Two factors—expansion and disagreement—led to the settlement of other colonies throughout New England.

Connecticut

Not everyone wanted to live in Boston. The boundless expanse of forest laced with rivers drew settlers farther west.

One of the most significant migrations took place in 1636, when the Puritan minister Thomas Hooker moved three congregations under his leadership into the Connecticut River Valley. Eventually, the settlements there united politically under the provisions of the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut (1639). This document,



One of the present buildings on the Harvard University campus

