Overview

What does the term *American* mean? Can you develop a genuine appreciation of the United States without a clear understanding of how the country began? This course, “U.S. History: Discovery to Jacksonian Era,” invites you to learn about the early history of the United States. In other words, it will transport you back in time and examine the early years of the land and its people. By exploring the nation’s founding from its discovery through the Jacksonian era, you will be able to identify the forces that shaped the current United States of America.

The information needed to achieve this goal is presented in the textbook *A History of the United States*. The original textbook has been repurposed for this course; that is, it has been redesigned to meet your learning needs as a distance education student. For instance, the repurposed textbook integrates directions and other course components directly with the text. It introduces the material presented in the textbook, and it identifies the learning objectives for each lesson. For your convenience, it includes glossary terms at the beginning of each lesson. You will find
these glossary terms in the section titled “Terms to Know.” The repurposed textbook also includes the review questions and assignments that enable you and your instructor to evaluate your progress throughout the course. In addition, it describes some of the material presented visually in the original textbook.

The textbook is extremely long. Therefore, it has been divided into the following courses:
U.S. History: Discovery to Jacksonian Era
U.S. History: The Nineteenth Century
U.S. History: World Wars
U.S. History: Post–World War Years

Each course is divided into modules. The three modules in this course are based on Units 1–3 of the textbook. These modules are further divided into lessons, which are based on the textbook chapters.

As previously stated, the goal of this course is to review the nation’s founding from its discovery through the Jacksonian era. Module 1 describes how Europeans started reaching out to faraway places. It examines the founding colonies, then explores the new American ways that were gradually emerging.
Module 2 follows the road that led to the American Revolution. It examines the tenuous state of the fledgling nation. Finally, it describes the efforts of the individuals who first governed the nation.

Module 3 covers the years 1800–1840. It examines the role of President Thomas Jefferson. It explores some of the struggles that marked the growth of this young nation. Finally, it focuses on the presidency of Andrew Jackson.

No prerequisites are necessary before starting any course in the series. Although you’re advised to take the courses in sequence, it may not be necessary to complete them all. For instance, if you are interested in the discovery of America, this course is a logical place to start. If, however, you would like to learn more about the world wars, the third course is more appropriate. You decide which courses can best meet your needs.

To complete the course, you will need the materials that The Hadley School for the Blind has provided and writing materials in the medium of your choice. If you are taking the audiocassette version of this course, you will also need your own tape recorder.
The review questions that follow each section are for your personal development only. Do not mail your answers to your Hadley instructor. Rather, check your comprehension by comparing your answers with those provided. Note that answers to some review questions provide more information than you will find in the textbook.

You are required to submit the assignment that concludes each lesson. Remember to wait for your instructor’s feedback before submitting your next assignment. If you mail your assignments, send them as Free Matter for the Blind provided they are in large print (14 point or larger) or braille, or on cassette or computer disk. Mailing labels are enclosed for your convenience. The enclosed contact information card indicates your instructor’s fax number and email address if you prefer to send your assignments electronically.

Now, if you’re ready to go back in time and explore the beginning of the nation, begin Module 1: The Making of Americans.
During these early colonial years, American ways of life began to appear. They emerged from how Americans defended themselves in war and governed themselves in peace. Challenged by a New World, they developed their own ideas about government, law, and politics. Still, the British colonists in America considered themselves loyal Britons. In 1763, at the end of the French and Indian War, few people anywhere would have predicted the break that was to come. The next twenty years were a time of surprising change. Before the colonists could realize it, they had made themselves into a new, self-governing nation.

How did that happen? To understand how this New World novelty was created, we must look at the relations of Americans to each other, to England, and to the wars that France and England exported to America. Familiarizing yourself with the emerging character of the New World will enable you to identify the forces that shaped the current United States of America.
Objectives

After completing this lesson, you will be able to
1. discuss why people came to North America and what early colonial life was like
2. trace the steps that led to colonial self-government
3. describe the events of the French and Indian War

Terms to Know

The following terms appear in this lesson. Familiarize yourself with their meanings so you can use them in your course work.

*admiralty*: law or courts dealing with cases involving shipping and navigation

*emigrant*: a person who leaves one place—usually one country—to settle in another

*immigration*: the movement of people from other countries into a country

*Parliament*: Great Britain’s legislature

*plantation*: an early settlement or colony; a large agricultural estate in the South, especially before the Civil War
representative government: a government in which the people are represented by delegates chosen in free elections

salutary neglect: the manner in which England governed the American colonies during much of the late 1600s and early 1700s; especially the policy of weak enforcement of the laws regulating colonial trade

treaty: a formal agreement concluded between two or more countries

📚 Reading Directions

Now read Section 1. After reading this passage, answer the section review questions and compare your answers with those provided.

1. Many Kinds of Americans

During the seventeenth century the English settlements in America grew slowly. One hundred years after the landing at Jamestown the colonies still held only 250,000 people. Then the 1700s saw immigration and a high birthrate create the first American population explosion. The number of people more than doubled every 25 years. By 1765 they counted two and a
quarter million. These were no longer just European emigrants, but a new breed of people, shaped by a New World.

A land of many peoples
The people who lived in the thirteen colonies at the end of the French and Indian War came from many lands. But the population was more English than it would ever be again. Since about 60 percent of all the white settlers had come from England, it is not surprising that the English language, English customs, English law, and English ways of government dominated the land. Pennsylvania had the most mixed population of all, but even there the English stock made up at least half of the population.

What transformed Britons into Americans was that here they had the challenges of living with Africans, Scots, Scotch-Irish, Irish, Portuguese Jews, Swedes, Finns, Swiss, and even a few Austrians and Italians. This made life here much more interesting than life back home. Of course it made some new problems, but it created new opportunities.
These many peoples had come for many different reasons. Most came because they wanted to, some because they were forced. Some, like the Swedes, learned English and became Americans quickly.

Others, like the Germans, tried to hold on to their own language and their own customs, even in this New World. Still others, like the indentured servants and many of the blacks from Africa, might have wanted to become full-fledged Americans but were not yet allowed that chance.

Black Americans had been brought here against their will. Most were slaves, but at an early date there were a few who were free. In 1765 the colonies held 400,000 blacks scattered from Massachusetts Bay to Georgia. Over half worked on the tobacco plantations in Virginia and Maryland. Only 40,000 were found farther north.

Besides colonists of English or of African descent, the largest group consisted of the Scots, the Irish, and the Scotch-Irish (the Scots who had tried to settle in Ireland). These hard-bitten, intelligent people took naturally to the frontier. They could usually be found in the “back country.” This was a new American
expression for the unsettled lands that stretched from Pennsylvania down through the mountains into the Carolinas.

A smaller number were the Germans, industrious and thrifty, who settled mainly in Pennsylvania. So many came in the mid-eighteenth century that the English settlers there feared that the whole colony would become German.

The Germans worked large farms on the rich limestone soil. Some of their descendants are still working the same lands today. They are often mistakenly referred to as Pennsylvania Dutch (from *Deutsch*, meaning German). They were ingenious and willing to try new ways. For hunting they replaced the old-fashioned musket with the accurate long rifle of frontier fame. For travel they built the sturdy Conestoga wagon, which took many pioneers west. And to warm their houses in the winters, which were much colder than those in Europe, they developed and improved the iron stove.

The French Protestants, a small group, had an influence all out of proportion to their numbers. These Huguenots came to America after 1685 when the French government deprived them of their religious freedom
and their right to take part in government. An older French law, the Edict of Nantes, which had once given them religious liberty, was repealed. Now they joined the stream of refugees who, over the centuries, came here to escape persecution. It was against the law for them to leave France, but they came anyway. Their intelligence and their skills enriched the colonies.

One famous descendant of the French Huguenots was Paul Revere, who made the celebrated ride in 1775 to tell the people that British troops were on their way to Concord and Lexington. Revere made his living as a silversmith, and his elegant work can be seen in many museums today.

**Empty land creates opportunity**

Most colonists found here a greater dignity and a better life than they had had before. At long last they could buy their own tract of land and run their own farm. The vote in all colonies was restricted to male landowners, but most adult white males did own land and thus could vote.

Even poor people could eventually own land in America. Many immigrants, either before or after they
arrived in the colonies, hired themselves out as indentured servants—sometimes for as long as seven years—to someone already here. In a few cases indentured servants were treated no better than slaves. Some of them ran away. But if they worked out their full term, they usually received clothes and tools, and sometimes a little cash or even a piece of land to give them a new start in life. In America the shortage of labor and the abundance of land spelled opportunity—the chance to become a landowner.

Empty land creates slavery
To grow tobacco economically a planter needed a large estate and a sizable work force. It was easy to find the land, but hard to find the workers. Many indentured servants, once free, would go off and start their own farms. Why should they work for someone else?

Since the planters could not fill their labor needs with Europeans, they turned to slaves from Africa or the West Indies. The institution of slavery was ancient and familiar in western Europe and throughout Africa. People defeated in war, instead of being killed, were often enslaved. In Europe, with the passing centuries, slavery became reserved for people who were not
Christians. They were called pagans. To justify the institution, slaveholders argued that they were helping pagans by making them into slaves so in time they could become Christians. When Jamestown was settled, slavery hardly existed in England. But English ships plied the slave trade between Africa and the Spanish colonies. And when the planters in the English colonies needed workers, they were supplied with African slaves.

Africans were not the only people who were brought to America by force. In England kidnappers seized unsuspecting poor people—children and adults—and then made a profit by selling them as indentured servants in the colonies. Political radicals, religious nonconformists—along with thieves and murderers—were “transported” to America as a punishment or simply to get them out of the way. When the term of their indenture was over, they were freed. But blacks, and sometimes Indians, were kept in slavery for life. Since Indians knew how to survive in the American wilderness, they could more easily run away. So southern planters turned more and more to using black slaves as their workers.
How the ocean tied some to England

The southern colonies, stretching from Maryland and Virginia down the seacoast to Georgia, were covered with plantations. In Maryland and Virginia the planters grew tobacco, and in the Carolinas and Georgia they grew rice and indigo (a blue dye used by English textile manufacturers). In all these colonies there were some small farmers growing whatever they could.

The great plantations set the tone for these southern colonies. To understand the plantation South, we must understand Virginia.

Virginia was a land of riverways. Viewed from Chesapeake Bay, Virginia had no solid seacoast but was a half-dozen outreaching fingers of land separated by inreaching fingers of water. These were the rich lowlands of “tidewater” Virginia, so called because the ocean tides reach there. The land and the sea seemed perfectly married. Deep navigable rivers—the Potomac, the Rappahannock, the York, and the James—divided Virginia into strips stretching southeastward. Each of these strips was nearly an island. Each in turn was veined by smaller rivers, many large enough to carry traffic to the ocean.
These riverways brought the whole world to the door of every great plantation. From the ocean came ships carrying slaves from Africa and the West Indies, and carrying muskets, hoes, clothing, furniture, and books from London. Down to the ocean went ships carrying large barrels (called hogsheads) of tobacco from the broad plantations of the Lees, the Carters, and the Byrds.

Every large plantation had its own dock. Goods arrived there direct from London. Virginians felt little need to have their own cities, for London was their shopping center.

Planters with riverways running direct to London from their door felt close to Old England. In those days before railroads, it was slow and expensive to carry anything across the land. It was easier at that time for a Virginia family to get all the way from London the products it needed than it was for someone living five miles outside of London. The ships that carried the large barrels of tobacco back to England were happy to have a cargo to carry to America. For very little cost they would bring furniture and carriages from London to the wealthy families of Virginia.
Planters could order from England almost everything they needed. Most purchases were made through an agent in London, generally the same man who helped sell the planter’s tobacco there. The London agent ran a kind of mail-order shopping service. He supplied all sorts of things—a set of law books, a fancy bonnet, a case of wine, shoes for slaves. He arranged the English education of a planter’s son or daughter. He reported this season’s London styles and sent the latest market news. The London agent advised which recent books were worth reading, and he recounted court scandal or the latest trends in English politics. Sometimes he even helped a lonely bachelor-planter find a wife.

Virginia planters thought of themselves not so much as Americans, but as English country gentlemen who happened to live in America. They still relied on England for almost everything. The easiest way for them to send goods to Boston was to send the goods to London first, where they would be shipped out to Boston on an English vessel. Virginia Englishmen—including leaders of the American Revolution like George Washington and Thomas Jefferson—owed most of the furniture of their houses and of their minds to England.
The ocean that tied them to the English homeland helped them keep the habits and ideas of English gentry. With few exceptions they were moderate, sensible men and women. They would make no trouble and would stay loyal so long as they could prosper.

The colonies south of Chesapeake Bay also lived a tidewater life. This was true even though the Carolina and Georgia coast had shallow waterways which were harder to reach by ocean-going boat than the rivers in Virginia and Maryland. South Carolina’s crops of rice and indigo were shipped to London from the deep harbor of the city of Charleston. Here many planters and their families would come to spend the summers away from the heat and malaria of their plantations. Charleston, one of the largest cities in America, had an active business life and more rich people for its size than any other city in the colonies. It was well known for its bustling, bubbling ways. It was a town full of people trying to rise, people trying to grow rich or richer. Most of Charleston’s active trade was with England, so here too the ocean tied the people to the homeland.
How the ocean led others out to the world

The same ocean that tied southern plantation owners to Mother England led the New Englanders elsewhere. The rough and rocky coast of New England offered few gateways to the interior. There were sheltered bays and deep harbors—Salem, Boston, Plymouth, and many others. But New England rivers, with few exceptions, ran steeply downhill. Although they were good for turning a millwheel, most of them were one-way streets tumbling to the ocean. In New England you could not take an ocean vessel very far inland.

New England bays became havens for big ships that traveled the oceans of the world. On the rocky New England soil, covered by snowy winters far colder than those of Old England, there grew no single staple crop. There was little tobacco, no sugar or indigo or rice. New England found its wealth in the sea.

“The abundance of sea-fish are almost beyond believing,” Francis Higginson wrote in 1630, “and sure I would scarce have believed it with mine own eyes.” There was seafood for every taste: mackerel, bass, salmon, lobster, herring, turbot, sturgeon, haddock, mullets, eels, crabs, mussels, clams, and oysters. A
small quantity the New Englanders themselves ate. Most they dried, salted, and carried to far parts of the world. Some they sold to the Catholics of Europe, who ate much fish on Fridays. The scraps and leavings went to the Caribbean plantation owners as cheap food for their slaves.

Fishing became the main industry of Massachusetts Bay. In 1784 the Massachusetts House of Representatives voted “to hang up a representation of a codfish in the room where the House sit, as a memorial of the importance of the codfishery to the welfare of the Commonwealth.” The codfish became the totem of the state. It hung over the Speaker’s desk until the middle of the twentieth century.

The New England fisheries actually helped bring on the Revolution. Deep-sea fishermen need ships, and the New Englanders began building their own fishing ships in large numbers. This worried the English. They wanted to be sure the trade of the New Englanders benefited the mother country. And this was one of the reasons why the English clamped the Navigation Acts on the colonies, telling them where they could sail their ships and limiting where they could carry some of the
produce of the colonies. Over the years the English went on to tighten their senseless and unenforceable restrictions against colonial trading. Faneuil Hall (which still stands in Boston), the meeting place of the Massachusetts rebels, was given to the city by Peter Faneuil, son of a French Huguenot immigrant and one of the many merchants who had become rich by shipping New England codfish to forbidden distant markets.

Why should bold and adventurous New England sailors obey boundaries marked off by a few English politicians? Even before the new United States was launched as a nation, New England sailors were showing their independence. They were shipping whatever they could find or make—and to wherever they were attracted by whim or profit.

New England ships roamed the world. Their sailors went to Portugal, Spain, France, Syria, the West Indies, Brazil, Guinea, and Madagascar. They carried fish to trade for salt from Cadiz, wine from the Azores and Madeira, iron from Bilbao, grapes from Málaga, and oranges from Valencia to ports in England and the colonies. To get oil to burn in their lamps for light,
whaling expeditions went out on long voyages from New Bedford and Nantucket south to the coast of Brazil and north to the Arctic Ocean. They took rum from New England ports to the west coast of Africa, where they traded it for slaves whom they then took to the Caribbean and sold for sugar, which was then taken north to be made into more rum. This was called “the triangular trade.” They were willing to “trye all ports,” as they said, with all kinds of freight. Nothing was too small or too big for their commerce or their imaginations.

In the days before independence when English laws still hemmed them in, enterprising New Englanders had to be smugglers. For them, American independence would be a great relief. It would make them honest, law-abiding traders. But long before the American Revolution, the minds and hearts and pocketbooks of bold New Englanders were attached to the whole world.

The Dutch, Germans, Swedes, and Finns who had settled in the Middle Colonies (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware) had no special ties with
England. Their relatives were in their own homelands. For them the ocean was a highway to everywhere.

These Middle Colonies had the best-balanced economies of any of the English colonies. A wide variety of products came from the rich soil of their farms. Unlike the southern planters they did not depend on a single staple crop sold in England. They sold their produce to merchants in the thriving cities of Philadelphia and New York. The city merchants in turn sent the produce overseas wherever they could find the best market—no matter what the Navigation Acts said.

**Family life**

Life in colonial America put heavy demands on the family. On the farm, where most Americans lived, labor was in short supply. Every member of the farm family had work to do. Women took care of the cows, hogs, and chickens, and made the butter and cheese. In the fields they were expected to sow, hoe, and reap the corn. They also sewed the clothes, cooked the food, and kept the simple houses clean and neat. A woman had to be a combination farmer, chef, and tailor!
In addition to all this the women bore many children. Families with 10 or 11 children were common, and 22 or more were not unheard of. From poor nutrition and lack of medical care the mortality rate was high. Many of the children died young. For the children who survived, in the back country where there were no schools the mother was their only teacher.

What doctors prescribed was more likely to kill than to cure the patient. A sensible person would try to stay out of the hands of a doctor. George Washington died in 1799 after he was bled of two quarts of blood by leeches and then “dosed to nausea and blistered to rawness.” Even Washington’s sturdy constitution could not survive that sort of treatment.

There were few things women were not expected to do in America. Most women married, and usually they helped their husbands on the farm or in the shop. After their husbands died, the women kept the farms and plantations running. Women also showed their versatile talents as shopkeepers, shoemakers, printers, newspaper publishers, teachers, lawyers, and even as blacksmiths, gunsmiths, and shipwrights. Although
women could not hold office and usually could not vote, they took an active interest in politics.

One of the most remarkable colonial women was Margaret Brent. A large landholder in Maryland, she ran her own plantation and actually led a force of men to put down a rebellion against the governor in 1646. And when the governor died, she was made executor of his will. She ran his estates and collected his rents. She was also attorney for the proprietor, Lord Baltimore, to take care of his affairs in Maryland. Naturally, she thought all this ought to give her the right to vote in the colonial assembly. When the new governor refused to let her have her rightful place in the colonial government, she moved to Virginia, where she made a new home and ran great estates until her death in 1671.

Few women were rich enough and willful enough to be as successful as Margaret Brent was in a man’s world. The English common law which governed the colonies gave few legal rights to women. Husbands controlled the family property.

In those days, unlike ours, children were not allowed to make up their own minds. Parents decided whether a
boy would be apprenticed to a shoemaker or a blacksmith, or be educated to become a minister or a lawyer. If not bound out as an indentured servant, the child worked for his parents, on the farm or in the shop.

Usually parents arranged marriages for their children. But in the New World things began to change. In New England more young people were beginning to be allowed to select their own mates.

The colonial family, of course, had no cars, no electric lights, no radios or television sets, no running water, no heat in winter except from the fireplace or, after around 1740, the iron stove. They had to take care of themselves and one another. They looked to other family members not only for love and advice, for food, shelter, and clothing, but they also needed them for their education and entertainment.

Education in the colonies

Compared to Europeans in their time, the American colonists were a well-educated people. Most were Protestants who believed that all Christians should be able to read the Bible. Massachusetts Bay Colony
passed a law requiring every town of 50 families or more to maintain a school to teach the boys reading, writing, and arithmetic. Every town of 100 families or more was to have a “grammar school” where boys could prepare for college. Girls had little formal education. Instead they were expected to learn the household arts of sewing, cooking, housekeeping, and childrearing. Books were not for them.

In 1636, only six years after the first settlers of Massachusetts Bay arrived in the New England wilderness, the people founded Harvard College. In the Old World, colleges and universities were ancient and honored institutions. Would it be possible to establish such an institution in the wilderness? The colonists said they needed Harvard College “to advance Learning and perpetuate it to Posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate Ministry to the Churches.” Many farmers’ sons went to Harvard to learn to serve as ministers or lawyers, judges or governors—or simply to be well educated.

Outside New England the colonies were not so quick to establish schools. Teachers lived with families while they taught the boys living nearby to read and write. Women opened “dame schools” to teach reading to
young boys and sometimes even to girls. Where there were no schools, parents had to teach their children at home. On large southern plantations, private teachers were hired to live on the estate and instruct the children. Then the boys sometimes went back to England to attend college at Oxford or Cambridge. A few went to London or Edinburgh to study law or medicine.

By the time Yale was founded in Connecticut in 1701, there were only two other colleges: Harvard (1636) and William and Mary (1693) in Virginia. But William and Mary remained little more than a grammar school for its first 35 years. Not until the 1740s were more colleges founded. Before that the colonies were too poor and the hardships and dangers of transportation too great. As the colonies flourished, new colleges appeared. Between 1746 and 1769, we see the founding of the College of New Jersey (Princeton), the University of Pennsylvania, King’s College (Columbia) in New York, Rhode Island University (Brown), Queen’s College (Rutgers) in New Jersey, and Dartmouth in New Hampshire. In 1784 Yale College, with its 270 students, had the largest student body. By the time of the American Revolution the colonies actually had a
surprising number of institutions of higher learning. Of course they were not as well equipped—with libraries or scientific instruments—as their English counterparts. But for the remote New World colonies these colleges were a wondrous beginning.

**Journalism and the arts and sciences**

Outside the cities, life in the colonies was simple. “Some few towns excepted,” wrote John Dickinson on the eve of the Revolution, “we are all tillers of the soil from Nova Scotia to West Florida.” The settlers, busy creating a new life in a New World, did not have much time for the arts or sciences.

The first successful newspaper did not appear until 1704, and as late as 1754 three of the colonies still had no newspaper. Despite their small numbers, American journalists pioneered in freedom. In 1733 a bold printer, John Peter Zenger, was arrested and tried for libel for printing articles critical of the governor of New York. But he went to court and won the right to print unpleasant political facts in his newspaper. This was a momentous step in establishing the freedom of the press in America. Gouverneur Morris later called the
Zenger case “the morning star of that liberty which subsequently revolutionized America.”

Colonial America, far from the Old World treasures of learning, produced a surprising number of original thinkers. Jonathan Edwards, though his writings are hard to understand, was a profound theologian who still has much to teach us. Benjamin Franklin won worldwide fame for his researches in electricity (he first suggested the lightning rod!) and his many practical inventions (he invented the Franklin stove). There were some others, too—other scientists, political philosophers, theologians, and historians.

Some colonists made their living as cabinetmakers and silversmiths. The desks designed by John Goddard of Newport, Rhode Island, were equal to the best made in Europe. Handsome silver bowls, beakers, and candlesticks by Paul Revere in Boston, Myer Myers in New York, and others in Newport, Philadelphia, and Charleston, adorned colonial tables and churches.

In those days before the camera, colonial painters traveled the countryside. They painted lifelike portraits for the family living room and for town halls. John Smibert, the Englishman who designed Faneuil Hall in
Boston, preserved the faces of sturdy New England families. John Greenwood went to Suriname, where he portrayed the lonely sea captains away from home.

Most colonists, of course, could not afford fine furniture and silver or the price of a family portrait. At home they made what they needed. Their quilting, weaving, and needlework had a special simple charm. German gunsmiths in Pennsylvania turned out long rifles, which also were works of art.

American art reflected American lives. These were a practical people in search of a better life.

**Section 1 Review**

1. Suppose Margaret Brent wanted to employ the following people: Paul Revere, John Smibert, John Peter Zenger, John Goddard, and Myer Myers. What products or services would each provide?

   Paul Revere was a silversmith, John Smibert was a painter, John Peter Zenger was a printer and journalist, John Goddard was a furniture maker, and Myer Myers was a silversmith.
2. If you were to visit Salem and Charleston in colonial times, what kinds of products would you expect to see on the ships that sailed from these two ports?

On ships sailing from Salem, you could find seafood, salt, wine, oranges, grapes, rum, whale oil, and even iron. From Charleston, the main exports would include tobacco, rice, and indigo.

3. How did the large amounts of open land affect those who came to America?

Unlike Europeans, all Americans could hope to own property. In fact, so much land was available that there were not enough people to work it, so slaves were imported from Africa.

4. How did the ocean tie some colonies to England and others to the rest of the world?

In the South, the rivers provided direct links between the interior plantations and the ocean. Since travel on land between the colonies was extremely difficult, it was easier for southerners to trade with England than with the other colonies. In New England, the coast was not tied to the interior
by navigable waterways, so New Englanders became fishermen, built ships, and developed worldwide commerce. In the middle colonies, too, merchants sold their goods not just to England but also to the best markets they could find.

5. Critical Thinking: Predicting Consequences. How would your life be different if you were a colonial man, woman, or child?

Colonial men monopolized economic, social, and political power. Colonial women were not expected to acquire a formal education, and they usually could not vote. Colonial children had very little independence. Often their parents chose their children's careers and arranged their marriages.

If you are satisfied with your answers, proceed to the next section. If you found the previous questions difficult, however, review this material before moving on.

📖 Reading Directions

Now read Section 2. After reading this passage, answer the section review questions and compare your answers with those provided.
2. The Colonists Govern Themselves

For 150 years after the founding of the first English colony, new colonies were settled, and the English empire grew, with little attention from England. In the seventeenth century the English people had problems enough at home. They were moving from the medieval world of monarchy into a modern world of representative government. In England Parliament was demanding the power to govern the nation.

England from civil war to Glorious Revolution

In the 1640s the English suffered through wars between the king and Parliament. After King Charles I was beheaded in January 1649, for a decade England was ruled by the obstinate and courageous Oliver Cromwell, who had led Parliament’s army against the king. When Oliver Cromwell died, his son tried to rule, but failed dismally. Parliament called Charles II to the throne. Then Charles’s brother, the foolish James II, who inherited the throne in 1685, soon alienated everyone.

The next explosion came with the “Glorious Revolution” in 1688. Then the king’s opponents summoned William and Mary (daughter of James II)
from Holland to take the throne as joint monarchs and preserve the power of Parliament. James II fled to France. When William and Mary came to the throne in 1689, they opened a new era of representative government. Parliament had shown that it was supreme. The monarch owed power to the people’s representatives in the House of Commons. Never again would there be an absolute ruler in England.

William of Orange, who came to the throne with Mary, was also the leader of the Dutch. They had been fighting against France for their independence. The French under Louis XIV had replaced Spain as the dominant power on the continent. So in 1689, William brought England into the battle against France. From then until 1763, England fought four wars against the French on battlefields that stretched across the world—from Europe to India to Egypt to the West Indies to Canada. Meanwhile—when the government in London was too busy to notice—the American colonies were prospering. In 1763 England made peace with France. Then the government of England could turn its attention again to its colonies.
During these years of salutary (or helpful) neglect, the colonies developed their own institutions. These would make it difficult for England ever again to rule them. But now that peace had come, England intended to enforce the policy of mercantilism. This was the same policy that Spain had so long followed in its colonies. Colonies were only servants of the mother country. It was the prosperity back home in England that was important. Colonists were not to be allowed to manufacture anything that competed with products at home. They must be encouraged to grow what England needed. They must not buy from anybody but the English; they must not ship their products to any country but England. To help the English shipbuilders, the colonists must use only English ships built in England or the colonies.

This was the theory. In fact, the policy was not enforced until after Cromwell took over. The Dutch had begun to trade with the colonists while England was embroiled in civil war. In this way the Dutch reaped profits that England wanted for itself. To bar the Dutch traders from America, Parliament passed a series of Navigation Acts. These laws, from the 1650s down to the 1770s, gave bounties to the colonists for growing
certain crops and dictated what goods they could manufacture, in what ships they could transport their goods, where they could buy and sell.

Earlier laws listed only a few items that had to be bought directly from England. This list gradually grew longer. At first goods could be carried in any ships, provided these were owned by Englishmen, but by 1696, all trade between the colonies and England had to be carried in English-built (which included colonial-built) ships. All European goods for the colonies had to come from or through England. The principal colonial products could be exported only to England or to another British colony. Trade with the English or not at all!

It is not surprising that energetic people, who had crossed the ocean and were just beginning to explore the resources of a vast new world, would not let themselves be fenced in. They wanted to ship everywhere and buy everywhere.
Smugglers and pirates

But the Navigation Acts were not regularly enforced. In fact they couldn’t be. The British navy, busy fighting France, had no time left for trying to catch smugglers.

Smuggling then became a wonderfully profitable business in the colonial period. Many famous old New England and New York families like the Cabots, the Hancocks, and the Livingstons built their fortunes on colonial smuggling. It was descendants of these same families who looked down their noses at later immigrants in the nineteenth century. They said that these new arrivals might not have enough respect for law and order.

A “privateer” was a legally licensed pirate. After the first Navigation Acts, the word came into use about 1664 to describe someone who had a “private” ship that he used for government purposes. The owner of a private vessel in time of war could get a license from his government (called a “letter of marque,” after the old French word meaning to seize) allowing him to seize enemy ships. Since he helped the war effort by crippling the enemy, he was allowed by his own king to keep a share of the loot. But when a privateer with a
letter of marque happened to find any ship carrying a rich cargo, he was tempted not to take too much trouble to find out its exact nationality.

Once a privateer (or “pirate,” to use the less respectable name) had loaded his ship with treasure, he would hurry to an American port, such as New York. In port, he simply showed his letter of marque and explained that he had seized his rich cargo as a patriotic duty to help the war effort. New York merchants, who themselves found this trade profitable, did not want to know whether the goods were from enemy ships or whether they were actually stolen goods. They were only too glad to have the privateers deliver merchandise to them that they could not buy from England, and which they were forbidden to buy elsewhere.

The pirates found New York especially to their taste. His Majesty’s governor and officers were pleased to have them around. The pirates paid handsome “protection money” to the governor. He issued their letters of marque, and he protected them while they sold their booty. There were few other places in the world where the market for pirates’ booty was so
good. Prosperous New Yorkers were ready to pay high prices for all the glittering items—heavily carved and inlaid tables and chairs, filigreed daggers, feathered fans, ornate porcelain, and gold-embroidered cloth—that the pirates had captured from “enemy” ships trading with the Orient. In this way the unenforceable laws and the continuous wars of the British Empire transformed reckless pirates into respectable merchants.

The problems of governing

Even if the American colonists had not already been independent minded and determined to govern themselves, the vast ocean would have made them so. In the days before the steamship or the transatlantic cable, the colonial office in London could not govern across three thousand miles of water. The ocean was the father of self-government.

When Charles II finally created the Lords of Trade in London in 1675 to manage colonial affairs, they had to do their business by mail. But in those days there was no regular mail service. Letters from London to Boston went by ships that depended on wind and weather and often took many weeks. If the mail-ship was captured
by the French or Spanish, the letters were delivered to the bottom of the ocean.

Although each colony had its own representative assembly, the person who had the greatest power and the highest social prestige was the governor. In most colonies he came from England, but wherever he came from he received his orders from London. The Lords of Trade depended on him for information about his colony. But it was hard for him to get his messages across the ocean. If no ship was sailing, no message could go. The governor of North Carolina, for example, normally received his communications by way of Virginia. In June 1745 the Board of Trade in London (successor to the Lords of Trade) wrote Governor Johnson of North Carolina complaining that it had had no letter from him in the past three years. A full year later he replied from North Carolina that their letter had only just reached him.

During the long New England winter when Boston Harbor was frozen or impassable, the whole colony received no word from the outside world. A letter that the governor of Massachusetts Bay wrote in late November was not likely to reach London before the
following April or May. By that time the information it carried would be ancient history. Even if the mail actually reached an English port, there were more delays. It might take weeks or months for mail arriving at Bristol or Falmouth to be carried overland to London. Papers addressed to the Board of Trade were sometimes lost in the customshouse, or they might lie there for a year before anyone bothered to deliver them.

Still, the king did try, from time to time, to control the situation so he might rule his distant subjects. Of all his domains, New England was one of the most troublesome. With its rocky soil, it could grow few crops that England needed, and so it did not fit well into the mercantile system. Its adventurous seamen were always daring to trade in prohibited areas.

The people of Massachusetts Bay, the richest and most populous of the New England colonies, found countless ways to irritate their king and express their rebellious spirit. Determined to “obey God rather than man,” they went their own way. They coined their own money. They left the king’s name off their legal forms. They ignored the Navigation Acts. They banned the Anglican
church. They gave the vote only to their own church members. They even hanged Mary Dyer and three other Quakers on Boston Common.

Charles II had no love for these Puritan relatives of the fanatics who had beheaded his father. When Charles II sent commissioners to find out what was going on in the colony, they were insulted and ignored. Finally, in 1684, the king accused his unruly subjects of disobeying English laws. He managed to have his judges nullify the Massachusetts Bay Colony charter. The colony then became, like Virginia, a royal colony with a governor and council appointed by the king.

The Dominion of New England

In 1685 James II succeeded his brother Charles II on the throne. James had been the proprietor of New York and New Jersey, so when he became king they automatically became royal provinces. From that start, on the advice of the Board of Trade, James decided to unite New York and New Jersey with all the New England colonies into one large Dominion of New England. It would be ruled by a single royal governor assisted by a council also appointed by the crown.
Representative assemblies would be abolished. At last the king himself would really rule.

All of these changes were bad enough for the independent colonists. James II made matters worse by appointing as governor Edmund Andros, a faithful servant and honest man, who happened also to be harsh, narrow, and unbending. He quickly antagonized everyone. At first non-Puritans and some wealthy merchants who were tired of the “rule of the Saints” in Massachusetts welcomed Andros. But he soon lost their support, too, when he tried to stop their smuggling along with the privateering and the piracy that made them rich.

The colonists were saved from Andros and the Dominion of New England by the Glorious Revolution of 1688. Without even waiting to hear if it was a success, the people of Boston seized Governor Andros and threw him in jail. Then the separate colonies went back to running their own affairs.

England would not again try to combine colonies. It was just as well, because communication was too slow for the effective government of large areas from a
single center. Anyway, each colony had become accustomed to governing itself.

**William and Mary revise the colonial governments**

At first, William and Mary had too many problems in England and Holland to worry about the colonies. But by 1696 the English merchants saw that they were losing large profits because the colonial merchants were flouting the mercantile laws. They complained to the king and demanded that he turn his attention to America. He then formed a new Board of Trade (its full title was “the Lords Commissioners of Trade and Plantations”) to oversee colonial affairs. For each colony he provided a regular customs service and special Admiralty Courts (which had no juries) to catch and punish New England smugglers.

He imposed “royal” government on one colony after another. This meant rule by governors appointed by the king. In 1682 there were only two royal provinces, Virginia and New Hampshire. By 1729 all the colonies except Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Georgia had governors either named by the crown or appointed by proprietors subject to the king’s approval.
(Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland). Georgia became a royal colony in 1752.

The colonists did not really suffer much from these new efforts to enforce the Navigation Acts. Customs officers were glad to be bribed. The Admiralty Courts became tangled in all sorts of legal technicalities. The royal governors found that they could not govern without the agreement of the colonial assemblies.

This “Old Colonial System,” as the years of salutary neglect were called, turned out to be a “system” for not enforcing the Navigation Acts. It seemed to work as long as everybody agreed to leave well enough alone. And so during the many years while England’s wars kept the government busy, the population of the colonies grew and their wealth accumulated. Between 1700 and 1760 the foreign trade of the thirteen mainland colonies increased fivefold.

**Section 2 Review**

1. Identify or explain: letter of marque, Charles I, Oliver Cromwell, Charles II, James II, William and Mary, Edmund Andros.
letter of marque: license from the government authorizing a privateer to seize an enemy’s ships

Charles I: English king who was beheaded in 1649

Oliver Cromwell: led the forces that deposed Charles I, then ruled England for a decade

Charles II: became king at Parliament’s request, replacing Cromwell’s son

James II: Charles II’s brother who came to power in 1685 and soon alienated everyone

William and Mary: invited to England to replace James II in 1689; this began a new era of representative government

Edmund Andros: first and last governor of the unsuccessful Dominion of New England

2. What was the Dominion of New England, and why was it important?

It represented an attempt by James II to rule the northeastern colonies as a single entity. When the colonists refused to accept the abolition of their representative assemblies, local governments were
preserved. This was a sign of things to come as the colonists realized they could defy England.

3. Summarize the provisions of the Navigation Acts. Why were they not strictly enforced?

The Navigation Acts eventually required that all colonial trade be carried on English-built ships and go through English ports. Bribes and legal technicalities helped the colonists avoid punishment for violating these acts. Due to its wars at home and with France, England was unable to enforce these acts.

4. Why was it difficult for Britain to govern America?

It was difficult for Britain to rule America because the colonies were far away, the colonists had become accustomed to self-government, and events in Europe distracted the English.

5. What was the Old Colonial System?

It was a system of salutary neglect in which England did not enforce its regulations, particularly the Navigation Acts. This allowed the colonies to prosper.
6. Critical Thinking: Drawing Conclusions. What impact did the Glorious Revolution have on British citizens living in the American colonies?

Though the Glorious Revolution brought more representative government to England, it also helped to embroil England in a war against France that would stretch across the globe. As a result, the English were preoccupied, and the colonists became accustomed to self-government.

If you are satisfied with your answers, proceed to the next section. If you found the previous questions difficult, however, review this material before moving on.

📖 Reading Directions

Now read Section 3. After reading this passage, answer the section review questions and compare your answers with those provided.

3. Britain Against France

The growth of the English colonies made a clash with France inevitable. From Louisbourg through Quebec, Montreal, Detroit, Sault Ste. Marie, Vincennes, and
Natchez to New Orleans and Mobile a string of French forts tied together an immense, thinly settled empire.

For some time the French and English stayed far enough apart so that they did not bother each other. But the English were ever pushing westward. And after the Glorious Revolution when the energetic Dutch leader William of Orange and his popular wife, Mary, came to the English throne, it was not long before the two leading colonial powers of North America were at war.

America was a battlefield for European rivalries. A series of conflicts began as attacks by French soldiers and by their Indian allies upon outlying English settlements. King William’s War (1689–1697), Queen Anne’s War (1702–1713), and King George’s War (1744–1748) climaxed in the French and Indian War proper (1754–1763). Life on the frontier became a nightmare. Unpredicted attacks by French regular troops and Indians were followed by massacres. Scalps were taken. Men, women, and children were kidnapped.
The Deerfield Massacre

One cold night in February 1704 the 300 inhabitants of the frontier village of Deerfield, Massachusetts, were sound asleep. Suddenly the silence was broken by French and Indian war cries. Within a few hours 50 settlers were dead and 17 of their houses burnt to the ground. One hundred and eleven settlers (including the town’s minister, John Williams, his wife, Eunice, and one of his children) were taken prisoner. Eunice Williams, weakened by recent childbirth, could not keep up with the group as they were hastened north through the winter snow. She and others who fell behind were tomahawked and left to die.

Most of the tough New England settlers were more lucky. All but 17 of the 111 captives lived through the march to Canada. Finally, 60 of the Deerfield villagers, including John Williams himself, returned to the English colonies. Of those who did not go home, some died, some married Canadians, some converted to Catholicism, and a few, including Williams’s own daughter, married Indians and made a new life with their captors.
The colonial reaction

English colonists reacted to these raids by attacking Quebec or some other stronghold in New France. Once, in 1745, they captured Louisbourg, France’s Gibraltar in the New World. When the English government returned Louisbourg in exchange for Madras in India, New Englanders were outraged. Their interests seemed to count for nothing when the government back home saw a chance to add a distant piece to the empire.

By 1750, English colonists were beginning to make their way through the Allegheny barrier into the valleys that led down to the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers. The governors of the English colonies called for forts to protect them against the French. The French, at the same time, moved vigorously to bolster their defenses. In one of the backwoods clashes, at Great Meadows near the forks of the Ohio where Pittsburgh now stands, a Virginia militia force was commanded by 22-year-old George Washington. There he won his first skirmish, but was soon forced to retreat to Virginia.

The Albany Plan of Union

The war that began at Great Meadows in 1754 was to continue until 1763. During these years battles were
fought not only in America and in Europe, but even in India. This was truly a world war. Even before it had begun, American leaders had been calling for some union of the colonies. Now it seemed urgent against the bloody French and Indian menace.

In June 1754, just two weeks before Washington had to retreat from the French force, a colonial congress met at Albany, New York. Albany was then a small town on the Hudson River, sheltered from attack by a wooden stockade. The Iroquois in that area had long helped to protect the English from attacks down the Mohawk Valley because their traditional enemies, the Hurons, were allied with the French. The Albany meeting had been ordered by the British government to try to keep the Iroquois happy and firmly allied with the British.

The Albany Congress, attended by 150 Indians and representatives of seven colonies, renewed the alliance with the Iroquois. At the same time the colonial delegates voted to adopt a plan suggested by Benjamin Franklin for a new union of the colonies.

A Grand Council of 48 members (similar to that which the Iroquois used to govern their tribe) was to be
chosen by the colonial legislatures. Meeting annually, this council would regulate Indian affairs, control a colonial army, manage the public lands, pass laws for the general good, and levy taxes for the common defense. A president-general appointed by the king would name the other high officials and could veto laws passed by the council.

But even the threats of war on their borders could not unite the colonies in this sensible common plan. The colonial legislatures turned it down. Each colony feared it would lose its power to govern itself. The king also rejected the plan because he feared that the union might give all the colonies together too much self-government.

**The French and Indian War**

At first the war that opened with Washington’s skirmish at Great Meadows went badly for the English. To strengthen the defense of the colonies, in the summer of 1755 the British General Edward Braddock set out with 1400 British regular troops and 450 colonials to try to take Fort Duquesne. The French had built this fort at the point called “the forks of the
Ohio,” where the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers meet.

Braddock had been warned by Benjamin Franklin, who was shrewd also in military matters, to watch out for surprise attacks by the Indians. But Braddock did not listen. He expected the Indians to behave like troops in the orderly wars in Europe. Over there, battles were usually fought only in good weather, when small professional armies faced each other on open fields. But the French and Indians did not follow the etiquette of Old World warfare. They caught Braddock off guard when they attacked his army from behind rocks and trees. The general was killed, and 976 of his men were killed or wounded.

In 1757, when the brilliant and self-confident William Pitt came to power as prime minister of England, he declared, “I am sure that I can save the country, and that no one else can.” He put new life into the nation’s armies and its fleets spread over the globe. He was the architect of the first British Empire. He removed weak commanders, jumped young men over older ones into positions of command, and gave colonial officers their due rank. Pitt realized that the British troops in America
were fighting for a worldwide empire and not just defending American colonists. When he assured the colonies that England would pay the costs of raising and supporting their armies, the colonists offered the British their manpower and their cooperation.

In the campaigns of 1758, the British and Americans working together were victorious against the French all along the line. The cold and capable 41-year-old General Jeffrey Amherst and General James Wolfe, a bad-tempered upstart of 30, both of whom Pitt had promoted to command, recaptured the stronghold at Louisbourg. Another Pitt appointee, Lt. Col. John Bradstreet, led an expedition of 3000 men through miles of wilderness waterways to take Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario. Since this cut the French line of communication between Canada and Fort Duquesne, the French troops there soon had to be withdrawn. The English occupied the fort and renamed it Fort Pitt (later Pittsburgh) in honor of England’s great leader.

**The fall of Quebec**

Pitt was now ready to carry out his grand strategy for the invasion of Canada. One army under General Amherst would go by natural valley through the
mountains up the Hudson River—Lake George—Lake Champlain route to attack Montreal in the heart of French Canada. At the same time another force under General Wolfe would come by sea up the St. Lawrence to attack Quebec in the east. Wolfe’s expedition reached Quebec in June 1759. But from then until September, while the British fleet lay in the river before the great rock of Quebec, Wolfe vainly sought an undefended landing place.

After a summer during which he was painfully weakened and often forced to keep to his bed by a mysterious disease, it seemed that Wolfe had failed. But he did not give up. Instead he devised an ingenious surprise attack. He shifted his forces one way to fool the French and then under cover of darkness slipped his men ashore at a point upriver where they were not expected. When daylight came, the French commander, the Marquis de Montcalm, was astonished to see the English redcoats (who were so named because of the color of their uniforms) forming their lines of battle on the high Plains of Abraham west of the city.

In a battle in the classic European style the two sides drew up ranks and faced each other on an open field.
Since Wolfe had trained his men in marksmanship (which was unusual at a time when muskets could be aimed only crudely), the powerful volleys of the English soon broke the French and gave Britain the victory. Both opposing generals—Wolfe and Montcalm—were mortally wounded.

The French tried but failed to retake Quebec that winter. The next summer when British General Amherst marched into Montreal, the French and Indian War in America was brought to an end. Elsewhere, war continued for two more years. Spain made the mistake of joining the conflict and lost Havana in Cuba and Manila in the Philippines. The French and Spanish empires in North America had begun to dissolve. Britain’s navy now controlled the seas, and the British Empire reached from India west to the Mississippi River.

Reader’s note: The map in this section shows New France and Louisiana before the peace treaty of 1763 between Britain and France. On this map, at the point where Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, and Lake Huron meet, you can find Sault Sainte Marie as part of New France. Vincennes is approximately in the middle of the
French possessions of New France and Louisiana. Natchez, along the Mississippi River, is in the Louisiana territories. Great Meadows, another French possession, is near the fork of the Allegheny and Ohio Rivers where Pittsburgh is today. Pittsburgh was originally called Fort Duquesne by the French and later renamed Fort Pitt by the British. Lake Champlain is an unlabeled body of water south of Montreal. The Plains of Abraham, near Quebec, is where the British defeated the French. End of note.

The Peace of Paris

A peace treaty between Britain and France was signed in Paris in 1763. In the part of the treaty dealing with America, France ceded to England all of Canada and all French lands between the Mississippi and the Appalachian Mountains. France retained only two small islands south of Newfoundland—St. Pierre and Miquelon. These were not to be fortified and were only to be used for drying fish. England gave back to France the sugar islands—Guadeloupe and Martinique—it had seized in the West Indies. To its ally Spain, France ceded New Orleans and all its country west of the Mississippi, the land called Louisiana (after the French

Before they sat down at the peace table, the English leaders saw that if they really wanted France to stop fighting they could not keep all the French lands taken during the war. They had to choose. Canada was vast. But its cold climate resembled that of New England, and the land produced little that the homeland needed. At the same time, the tiny Caribbean tropical island of Guadeloupe was rich in sugar, which England desperately wanted. Some argued, too, that if the French menace was removed from the colonial frontiers, it would be harder to keep the American colonies in line. According to the mercantile theory, Guadeloupe was clearly more valuable than Canada. But William Pitt had a wider vision. He saw that Canada might be the bulwark of a grand new empire.

Benjamin Franklin, who was in London at the time as a colonial agent, wrote a persuasive pamphlet on the subject in his usual simple style. He predicted that Canada would become a populous and prosperous agricultural community. Then Canadians would buy English goods and enrich the merchants of the
homeland. American colonists who saw the English flag flying from the arctic seas to the Gulf of Mexico would be proud of their Englishness and doubly loyal to the homeland. The English, he said, need not fear that the colonists would ever unite against their own nation. If they had not been able to unite against the French and Indians, surely they would never combine against the land of their beloved ancestors.

Franklin won his point. England took Canada from France and gave back Guadeloupe. Thirteen years later the colonies declared their independence.

**Section 3 Review**

1. Identify: Edward Braddock, James Wolfe, Montcalm, William Pitt, Jeffrey Amherst.

   Edward Braddock: English general who was expected to fight in the European style, but was surprised and defeated by the French and Indians at Fort Duquesne

   James Wolfe: English general who captured Quebec from the French in 1759
Montcalm: French commander who was defeated at Quebec

William Pitt: powerful and effective prime minister of England who realized that British troops in America were fighting for worldwide empire

Jeffrey Amherst: British general who fought with Wolfe during the recapture of Louisbourg


Sault Ste. Marie: part of New France, found at the point where Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, and Lake Huron meet

Vincennes: approximately in the middle of the French possessions of New France and Louisiana

Natchez: on the Mississippi River, in the Louisiana Territories

Great Meadows: near the forks of the Ohio River, where Pittsburgh is now located
Fort Pitt: called Fort Duquesne by the French, location south of Lake Erie; it would later be called Pittsburgh

Lake Champlain: lake south of Montreal

Plains of Abraham: area where the British defeated the French in order to capture Quebec

Guadeloupe: tiny Caribbean island that England gave back to France in the Peace of Paris

3. Describe the Albany Plan of Union.

The Albany Plan of Union proposed a council of colonies that would meet annually, regulate Indian affairs, manage public lands and an army, pass laws, and levy taxes for the common defense. The king’s agent would have veto power over the council.

4. Summarize the terms of the Peace of Paris.

According to the Peace of Paris, England gained Canada and all French lands between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi. France regained Guadeloupe and Martinique from England and retained two tiny islands near Newfoundland.
Spain gained the Louisiana region from France and got Havana and Manila back from England, but it ceded Florida to England.

5. Critical Thinking: Identifying Central Issues. In what sense was America an “unwilling battlefield” for European rivalries?

As the English pushed farther west with their settlements, the French reacted by strengthening their own defenses. Prior to this time, the French and English had remained far enough apart to avoid conflict. Between 1689 and 1763, England and France were involved in a war for empire. As the colonies were part of the stakes in that war, the French and their Indian allies frequently attacked English settlements.

If you found the previous questions difficult, review this material before moving on. If you are satisfied with your answers, however, complete the assignment that follows.

Assignment 3

Once you have received feedback on your last submission, complete this assignment in the medium of
your choice. Begin by giving your full name, address, and phone number. Also indicate the course title, Assignment 3, your instructor’s name, and the date. Then provide your answers. Be sure to indicate the question number along with each answer. Note that this assignment is worth 100 points. Instructions for sending assignments can be found in the Overview to the course.

Indicate whether the following statements are true or false. If the statement is false, reword it to make it true. (3 points each)

1. French Protestants seeking religious freedom by coming to America after 1685 were called Baptists.

2. Virginia planters thought of themselves as English rather than as American.

3. During the colonial period, most settlers lived in cities.

4. Edward Braddock was the printer whose trial helped establish freedom of the press in the colonies.
5. Until the middle 1700s, Great Britain paid little attention to the colonies because the crown intended to give the colonies their independence.

6. Shippers who carried letters of marque and were considered legally licensed pirates were called privateers.

7. The Albany Plan of Union brought together 150 Native Americans and representatives from seven colonies.

8. English Prime Minister William Pitt reorganized the British army and gained the colonies’ support in defeating the French.

9. After capturing it from the French, the British renamed Fort Duquesne as Fort Pitt.

10. As a result of the French and Indian War, the British navy lost control of the world’s oceans.

Answer the following multiple-choice questions by choosing the correct answer. (3 points each)

11. Which of the following were often forced to immigrate to America?
   a. political radicals
b. thieves  
c. Africans  
d. all of the above

12. Women in the colonies were not expected to  
a. labor in the fields  
b. hold political office  
c. attend college  
d. both (b) and (c)

13. Colonial colleges were founded primarily to further the study of which discipline?  
a. science  
b. religion  
c. medicine  
d. business

14. Which of the following contributed to the colonies’ sense of independence?  
a. neglect of the colonies by England for over 100 years  
b. distance between England and the colonies  
c. the non-English majority in most colonies  
d. both (a) and (b)
15. Which of the following was a significant result of England’s Glorious Revolution of 1688?
   a. It drove the French out of North America.
   c. It established the supremacy of the English monarchy.
   d. It brought Oliver Cromwell to power.

16. Which statement about the Navigation Acts is most accurate?
   a. They represented an attempt to control the trade activities of the colonies.
   b. They were always well enforced.
   c. They provided free trade between the colonies and France.
   d. They were popular in the colonies.

17. Which of the following would characterize Myer Myers and Paul Revere?
   a. privateers
   b. craftsmen
   c. ministers
   d. educators
18. During the French and Indian War, American colonists
   a. supported a British victory
   b. supported a French victory
   c. remained neutral
   d. attacked all Indian tribes

19. How did the French and Indian War begin?
   a. with the fall of Quebec
   b. with attacks by French soldiers and Indians on American border settlements
   c. with an English victory
   d. as a result of the Treaty of Paris

20. Which Native American group had a role in the French and Indian War?
   a. the Incas
   b. the Aztecs
   c. the Pueblo
   d. the Iroquois

Answer the essay question that follows. Limit your answer to two print pages, five braille pages, or a 2-minute recording. (40 points total)

21. Discuss the emergence of the New World’s character by answering the following questions:
a. Give 10 examples of how people in settlements lived around 1763. (20 points)
b. What obstacles did England present as the colonists were trying to govern themselves? (12 points)
c. How did the conflict between France and England affect the emerging colonies? (8 points)

Once you have completed this assignment, mail, fax, or email it to your instructor. Then proceed to Module 2: Forming a New Nation, 1763–1800.