Connecticut

Early Settlement

Thomas Hooker, an English clergyman who fled to Holland in 1630 to escape punishment for his Puritan sermons, emigrated to the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1633. In 1636 Hooker led a migration from New Towne (now Cambridge), Massachusetts, to Hartford, Connecticut, and became the leader of the settlement. Connecticut Historical Society

The Dutch were the first Europeans to settle in Connecticut. In 1614 the Dutch mariner Adriaen Block explored the southern shore of Long Island Sound and sailed up the Connecticut River, possibly as far as the Enfield rapids, north of present-day Hartford. Later the Dutch acquired land at the mouth of the Connecticut River and carried on a prosperous trade in furs with the native inhabitants.

The Pequot War
Captain John Underhill, a colonial military leader, took part in the near-complete annihilation of the Pequot tribe in Connecticut in the Pequot War of 1637. In the following account , Underhill reported that in one attack on a Pequot village, only about five of some 400 Pequots escaped death. Underhill cited the Bible to justify the carnage: "[S]ometimes the Scripture declareth women and children must perish with their parents.… We had sufficient light from the word of God for our proceedings.…" Seventeenth-century conventions of spelling and grammar in this account have not been modified.

Early in the 1630s, the fertile river valley began to attract the attention of English settlers from the Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay colonies in Massachusetts. In 1633 colonists from Plymouth built a trading post and stockade near the site of present-day Windsor. That same year the Dutch, anxious to protect their claim to the region, erected their first and only fort in Connecticut, at Hartford.

In 1634 and 1635 colonists from Massachusetts Bay founded the towns that formed the core of the Connecticut colony. English trader John Oldham brought a large party from Watertown to settle at Wethersfield. John Winthrop the younger, son of the Massachusetts governor, established Saybrook at the mouth of the Connecticut River. Named after Lord Saye and Sele and Lord Brooke, two of the colony's founders, it is part of the present-day towns of Deep River and Old Saybrook. Roger Ludlow led colonists from Dorchester, Massachusetts, to establish their own settlement at Windsor. The largest migration occurred in 1636, when a well-known minister, Thomas Hooker, led about 100 colonists from Newtown (now Cambridge, Massachusetts) to settle at Hartford. Within a few years the English-speaking colonists in Windsor, Wethersfield, Saybrook, and Hartford greatly outnumbered the Dutch.

Most of the Native Americans were generally friendly to the colonists. Some native groups invited the English to settle nearby, hoping for trade and for allies against the aggressive Pequots, who dominated the area. Settlers purchased land from the native people, and though whites often encroached on native territory, disputes were usually settled without violence.

The exception to these friendly relations was friction between the Pequots and settlers, which soon escalated into New England's first major war, the Pequot War of 1637. The causes of the war are unclear, but it involved a series of killings, raids and reprisals on both sides. In May 1637 Connecticut declared war on the Pequots. With the help of both the Mohegan and the

Narragansett to the east, the colonists launched a surprise attack on a Pequot village at Mystic River. They set the village on fire and killed Pequot inhabitants as they fled the flames. Hundreds of native villagers died, including many women and children, and most of the remaining Pequots were killed or captured. The few who survived were scattered throughout New England or sold into slavery, and the Pequot all but disappeared.

John Davenport After helping to obtain the charter establishing the Massachusetts Bay Colony in America, English clergyman John Davenport immigrated from England to the colony in 1637. He later cofounded the New Haven settlement in what is now Connecticut.

In 1638 and 1639, representatives of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield, the three principal settlements in the Connecticut River valley, met at Hartford to discuss plans to unite the settlements into a single colony. On January 14, 1639, the colony of Connecticut was formed, and the colonists formally adopted a basic set of laws known as the Fundamental Orders. That document, said to be the first written constitution in history, was a milestone in early American constitutional history. Framed by Hooker, Ludlow, John Haynes, and others, the laws provided for a self-governing colony whose inhabitants were to owe their allegiance to the colony rather than to England. Two general assemblies, one legislative and the other judicial, were set up, and representatives were chosen from each town. Haynes, former governor of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, was chosen as the first governor of the Connecticut colony.

Meanwhile, in 1638, merchant Theophilus Eaton and Puritan minister John Davenport established a trading colony on the former Pequot lands near the site of present-day New Haven. First called Quinnipiac, it was renamed New Haven in 1640. Later settlements at Milford, Stamford, Guilford, Branford, and Southold (on Long Island) joined New Haven to form the New Haven colony. The laws adopted by the New Haven colony were less liberal than the Fundamental Orders of the Connecticut colony. Only members of the Puritan church could vote, and strict laws regulated the religious and moral life of the colonists.

The two colonies remained separate except for a brief period in 1643, when New Haven and Connecticut joined with the Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth colonies in a mutual defense pact called the New England Confederation. Both colonies in Connecticut acquired additional settlements, and in 1644 the Connecticut colony purchased the Saybrook colony.
The colonies were never self-sufficient economic units, and engaged in trade from the beginning. The colonists raised grain, especially corn, vegetables, and other crops for their own use, and also kept a few animals. The land in the Connecticut River valley was especially productive and soon provided the colonists with surplus crops and livestock to trade with other settlements on the eastern seaboard. The forests provided wood for fuel and construction, as well as furs, trapped and traded by the Native Americans.

Colonial Period

Until 1662 the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven were not recognized in England as legally established colonies. A deed, known as the Warwick Patent, had been given to the founders of Saybrook by the earl of Warwick in 1632, and it was presumably transferred to Connecticut when that colony purchased Saybrook. However, the legality of the grant was questionable. John Winthrop the younger, who had been elected governor of the Connecticut colony in 1657, sailed to England in 1661, and the following year he secured a royal charter from King Charles II. As set forth in the charter, the boundaries of the Connecticut colony extended from Massachusetts south to Long Island Sound and from Narragansett Bay west to the Pacific

Ocean. The charter thus ignored the separate existence of New Haven. The New Haven colonists protested their incorporation into Connecticut. However, they agreed to the merger in 1664 in response to the possibility that New Haven, a Puritan colony, might be included in the area granted to the Duke of York; the Church of England was the official religion in that area. Early in 1665 the two Puritan colonies of New Haven and Connecticut were formally merged.

Under the royal charter of 1662, Connecticut retained much of its previous autonomy. The charter incorporated the essential features of the Fundamental Orders, and local government was conducted as before with little interference from the English crown or from Parliament. However, after Charles II died, his successor, James II, attempted to consolidate New England under the administration of Sir Edmund Andros. When Andros arrived in Hartford in 1687 to demand the surrender of Connecticut's charter, the document mysteriously disappeared. According to tradition it was hidden by the colonists in the hollow of a large oak tree that came to be known as the Charter Oak. Although Andros failed to secure the charter, he ruled Connecticut as a part of New England until 1688, when James II was overthrown. In 1689 Andros was arrested, and colonial self-government was reinstated.

As in the rest of New England, religious matters played a major role in the Puritan society of colonial Connecticut. Although membership in the Congregational Church was not a requirement to vote, all residents were taxed to support the church. By the end of the 17th century, religious disputes among Puritans over church government and congregational autonomy threatened the unity of the colony. To settle the dispute, the legislature summoned delegates to a religious convention at Saybrook in 1708. A compromise solution known as the Saybrook Platform was adopted. It established a single confession of faith, or set of beliefs, as the official religion of the colony, but gave individual congregations substantial autonomy in other matters.

Connecticut suffered little damage in King Philip's War (1675-1676), the last major resistance by Native Americans to white settlement of southern New England. Most of Connecticut's tribes remained neutral or aided the colonists when the Wampanoag chief Philip led an alliance of native peoples against the Massachusetts colonies in retaliation for encroachments on native lands. Connecticut troops joined in attacks on the Narragansett in neighboring Rhode Island, killing hundreds when the neutral Narragansett refused to give up Wampanoag refugees.

From the late 1680s until 1763, as Great Britain and France fought for control of North America, Connecticut supplied troops and money but faced little direct threat from the French and their Native American allies.

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Delaware

The 17th Century

Dutch Exploration and Settlement

The first European explorations in the area were by agents of The Netherlands, whose people are called the Dutch, and England. Henry Hudson, a navigator from England who was employed by the Dutch East India Company to find the fabled Northwest Passage through North America to the Pacific Ocean, is credited with discovering Delaware Bay in 1609. However, he did not explore it. The following year, Captain Samuel Argall, an English explorer, gave the name Cape De la Warr to a point of land on the western shore in honor of Thomas West, 3rd Baron De la Warr, the governor of the English colony of Virginia.

Between 1614 and 1620 several Dutch ships explored the Delaware River. In 1624 another company, the Dutch West India Company, set up the colony of Nieuw Nederland (New Netherland), which claimed the Delaware Valley, the Hudson River Valley, and the land between them. The company encouraged business people to buy land from the Native American inhabitants, which they could then rule as patroons, or manorial lords, provided they brought in settlers. A group of merchants bought the land between Bombay Hook and Cape Henlopen and in 1631 built Swanendael, the first European settlement in Delaware, on the site of present-day Lewes. Within a year the settlement was destroyed, and the settlers were killed by Native Americans. This was the only such attack ever made on white settlers in Delaware, and it is uncertain which Native American people was responsible.

New Sweden

Founding New Sweden Peter Minuit, most famous for purchasing Manhattan for trinkets valued at $24, led the first permanent European settlers to Delaware. Minuit founded New Sweden at the mouth of the Delaware River in 1638.Amer. Swed. Hist. Mus., Philadelphia

The Dutch West India Company was more interested in trade than in colonization. However, several of its members offered their services to the kingdom of Sweden as colonizers. One of them, Peter Minuit, the former director-general of New Netherland, led the Swedish expedition that established the first permanent settlement in Delaware. In March 1638 the expedition built a fortified trading post on the site of present-day Wilmington. It was named Fort Christina in honor of the queen of Sweden. Minuit secured a deed from the Native Americans for the land extending north from Bombay Hook to the Schuylkill River, which flows into the Delaware River at what is now Philadelphia. The territory was named New Sweden. Over the next 17 years more than a dozen expeditions arrived in New Sweden, bringing Swedish, Finnish, and Dutch settlers, as well as livestock, grain, and tools. Additional land was bought on both sides of the Delaware River. During the administration of Governor Johan Björnsson Printz (1643-1653), new forts, houses, mills, and wharves were built, tobacco was planted, and trade with the Native Americans was encouraged.

The Dutch West India Company still claimed the Delaware area and in 1651 attempted to gain control of it. Under the leadership of Peter Stuyvesant, governor of New Netherland, the Dutch built Fort Casimir on the site of present-day New Castle. The Swedes captured the fort in 1654, but the following year, Stuyvesant returned to New Sweden in greater force and seized the entire

territory. Although many Swedes remained in Delaware, Swedish rule in North America was at an end.

In 1656 the Dutch West India Company, in financial difficulties, sold Fort Casimir and the land between the Christina River and Bombay Hook to the city of Amsterdam in The Netherlands. A settlement named New Amstel grew up at Fort Casimir and was made the capital of the area. By 1663 Amsterdam had acquired all the land from Delaware Bay to the Schuylkill River.

English Rule

The English, who competed with the Dutch for trade and colonies in North America, fought a series of three wars with them between 1652 and 1674. In 1664 the English captured all of New Netherland and the Dutch possessions in the Delaware Valley. This began the Second Anglo-Dutch War, which concluded in 1667 with the English in possession. Delaware was annexed by the English duke of York and for 18 years was governed as part of his colony of New York (which had been New Netherland). The Dutch, Swedish, and Finnish settlers who pledged allegiance to the English king were allowed to keep their lands and property. Settlers from England and from the English colonies of Virginia, Maryland, New Jersey, and New York settled in Delaware, and the colony grew rapidly.

The Dutch recaptured their former territory in 1673, during the Third Anglo-Dutch War. However, under the terms of the peace treaty they were forced to return it to England.

Delaware and William Penn

Penn's Letter to the Indians
In 1681 William Penn, an English Quaker, was granted territory in North America by King Charles II. This land was named Pennsylvania. Penn planned a city on this territory and named it Philadelphia, which in Greek means “brotherly love.” Perhaps the name was fitting, for soon after receiving the land Penn wrote a letter to the Native American chiefs in the area asking for their friendship. He tells them that he is sensitive to the “unkindness and injustice that hath been too much exercised towards you” by other settlers. In contrast, Penn says he wants to live “peaceably … with you.” Indeed, Penn’s short tenure in the colony was noted for democratic government and for peace with the native peoples.

In 1682 William Penn, the founder of the adjoining Pennsylvania colony, petitioned for a direct outlet to the ocean. The duke of York deeded to Penn all the land within a radius of 19 km (12 mi) of New Castle and south to Cape Henlopen. The area included most of what is now Delaware. The transfer was bitterly contested by Charles Calvert, Lord Baltimore, who also claimed the land along the Delaware River for his Maryland colony. An English court denied Lord Baltimore’s claim, but the dispute over the Maryland-Delaware boundary was not finally settled until 1769.

In December 1682 the three Delaware counties, which Penn called the Lower Counties, were formally united with Pennsylvania. They were governed by a general assembly. Delaware and Pennsylvania each had the same number of representatives to the assembly.

Penn concluded a peace treaty that year with the Delaware nation. There were no further clashes between the Delaware and the whites until the French and Indian War (1754-1763), when some

of the Delaware sided with France, some sided with Great Britain (a union of three countries headed by England), and some stayed neutral. By that time, however, the Delaware were moving west ahead of white settlement, and most of them lived in Ohio. Today they live in widely scattered groups in Oklahoma and Ontario, Canada. A small remnant of the Nanticoke still lives in Warwick, Sussex County, where they maintain a community center.

Separation from Pennsylvania

The people of Delaware resented being controlled by the Society of Friends, or Quakers, the religious body that dominated Philadelphia, and they feared the rapid economic growth of Pennsylvania. They also resented Penn's failure to provide sufficient protection against raids by Lord Baltimore's agents and by pirates who terrorized the settlements along the shore. Finally, quarrels over representation of the lower counties led to the establishment of a separate assembly for Delaware. It held its first meeting in New Castle in 1704. From that time the Delaware assembly made the laws for the three counties, which became in effect a separate colony under the governor of Pennsylvania. Through their own assembly the people of Delaware provided for the development of their colony.

The 18th Century

Economic Growth

The three counties prospered during the 18th century. Farming was the main occupation, but many people also engaged in fishing and in small manufacturing enterprises such as the making of barrels and household goods. Flour mills, leather tanneries, and other small plants were established in northern Delaware along streams that provided abundant waterpower. Shipbuilding flourished at Wilmington and in many other towns. Grain, lumber, dairy products, and other foodstuffs were exported to the Southern colonies, the West Indies, and Europe.

American Revolution

In 1774 the Delaware assembly sent its members George Read, Caesar Rodney, and Thomas McKean, three of the colony's most prominent citizens, as delegates to the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia. This was a conference of 12 of the British North American colonies to discuss means of resisting the so-called Intolerable Acts, a set of punitive measures applied against the colonies by Great Britain. The same delegates were sent to the Second Continental Congress in 1775, which 13 colonies attended. McKean and Read were present at the Continental Congress in July 1776, when that body was asked to vote on the Declaration of Independence, severing the 13 colonies' relation with Great Britain. Read opposed the declaration, believing there was not yet enough popular support for independence. Both McKean and Rodney supported it, but Rodney was in Delaware at the time. Summoned by a messenger from McKean, Rodney rode all night on horseback, 129 km (80 mi) through lightning and rain, from Dover to Philadelphia to break the tie between Read and McKean and cast Delaware's vote in favor of independence. Eventually Read came to agree, and all three Delaware delegates signed the declaration.

In the same year delegates from the three Delaware counties convened at New Castle to organize a state government. Delaware, which had been an unofficial name along with Lower Counties or The Three Counties, was made official. A constitution was adopted, and John McKinly was elected Delaware's first president, as the governor was then called. He took office in 1777.

Between 1777 and 1793, when Joshua Clayton became the state's first governor under a new constitution, Delaware had ten presidents.

Many from Delaware enlisted for military service against the British in the American Revolution (1775-1783), and the Delaware regiment had an excellent reputation. Only one skirmish of that war was fought on Delaware soil; it occurred in September 1777 at Cooch's Bridge, near the village of Newark. A detachment of soldiers from the Continental Army of General George Washington, which was camped near Wilmington, clashed with advance units of a British force advancing northeast from Maryland to Philadelphia. The British later defeated Washington's troops on September 11 at the Battle of the Brandywine, at Brandywine Creek in Pennsylvania, just a few miles from the Delaware border. British forces then crossed into Delaware and made a surprise raid on Wilmington, where they captured President McKinly.

The British left Wilmington after a month, but a fleet of British warships controlled the coast until June 1778, keeping the river open to British shipping. During this time the capital was moved from New Castle to Dover because it was thought safer to be out of range of the British naval cannon. In McKinly's absence, McKean and then Read served as acting presidents, and then Rodney was elected to succeed McKinly in 1778. Even after the British fleet left in 1778, one warship remained on guard at Cape Henlopen and British sympathizers, protected by it, raided Delaware farms.

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Georgia

European Discovery and Exploration

The Spanish were the first Europeans in Georgia. Explorer Hernando de Soto landed in Florida in 1539, and in 1540 his expedition crossed the Savannah and Ocmulgee rivers. In 1566 Pedro Menéndez de Avilés founded a mission and fort on Saint Catherines Island. Over the next 100 years the Spanish built forts and missions along the coast of Georgia, which they called Guale.

Franciscan friars, members of a Roman Catholic religious order, were the central agents of Spanish civilization. In the mid-1590s a dozen priests and lay brothers, supported by a few Spanish soldiers, established missions to convert the Native Americans along the Atlantic Coast from Florida to South Carolina. About half were located in the principal villages of Guale. Their efforts were rewarded with many converts, but also the first major conflict with Native Americans in Georgia. In 1597 a young Guale man named Juanillo, angry that a priest had blocked his selection as mico (chief), killed the meddling cleric. He then launched a war that left most of the Franciscans dead. The war continued about ten months and ended only after a Spanish army arrived from Florida. Afterward the Franciscans returned, and in the first half of the 17th century they were highly successful. At one time they had 25,000 converts in 38 missions. This was the golden age of Spanish influence in the South.

Spain claimed the right to govern Guale, but its claim was contested. England asserted a claim in 1629, when King Charles I included the area in a land grant of "Carolana" to Sir Robert Heath. However, because Heath failed to establish a settlement there, King Charles II regranted Carolana—changing its name slightly to Carolina—to eight lords proprietors in 1663. After founding a colony at Charleston (now in South Carolina) in 1670, the Carolinians pushed southward along the Atlantic coast. In 1680, with Native American allies, they attacked the Spanish missions and outposts and forced the Spanish to give up Saint Catherines Island. By 1686 the Spanish abandoned Guale, but for more than 70 years they continued to fight for possession from their bases in Florida.

The 18th Century

Founding of the Colony

General James Oglethorpe James Oglethorpe (dressed in black at center) and the trustees of the Georgia colony met with members of the Creek people in 1734. The Creek befriended Oglethorpe and helped the colonists settle in present-day Savannah, Georgia.Henry Francis du Pont Winterthur Museum

As England's power grew, the countries of Scotland and Wales were united under the English king in a nation called Great Britain, which continued the policy of granting proprietary colonies in America. In 1732 Great Britain's king, George II, granted to James E. Oglethorpe, John Perceval, and others a charter for a colony to be called Georgia. Georgia was to include all the land between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, extending west to the Pacific Ocean. Oglethorpe and his associates, who were called the "trustees" of Georgia, planned to found a refuge for the poor, especially those in debtors' prisons, and the victims of religious persecution

in Europe. In addition, the king wanted a buffer colony to protect the Carolinas from the Spanish in Florida and the French in Louisiana. It was also hoped that the colony would produce silk, wine, and other goods for the British market.

Early in 1733, Oglethorpe sailed up the Savannah River and landed at Yamacraw Bluff, 27 km (17 mi) upstream. There he met the Yamacraw people, a friendly Native American band of outlaw Creek, who ceded the site to him. On February 12, 1733, he returned with more than 100 colonists and laid out the town of Savannah, the first permanent European settlement in Georgia. In 1736 Oglethorpe founded Augusta at the Fall Line, the southern end of the Piedmont Plateau, 320 km (200 mi) up the Savannah River. Next Oglethorpe journeyed to the southern border, where he built Fort Frederica on Saint Simons Island to defend against the Spanish in Florida.

In 1739 the War of Jenkins's Ear broke out between Great Britain and Spain, and there was skirmishing on the southern frontier. In 1742 a Spanish force invaded Georgia. In the subsequent Battle of Bloody Marsh, near Fort Frederica, Oglethorpe and his troops defeated the invaders. This ended Spanish attempts to capture Georgia.

Over the next two decades the colonists were joined by German Lutherans and members of other persecuted religious groups from central Europe, as well as by Scots, Welsh, northern Italians, and Swiss. Oglethorpe hoped to create a model society, where none would be rich or poor. Those sent to Georgia at the trustees' expense received 20.2 hectares (50 acres) of land and supplies to get them started. Individuals paying their own way received up to 202 hectares (500 acres). But no family was allowed to sell, lease, or even will the land away. They were expected to support themselves off the land through their own labor. To ensure that everyone was a sober, hard worker, the trustees in 1735 prohibited strong drink and outlawed slavery. Georgia was the only British colony in North America to have such laws. Although many of Georgia's first settlers were poor or otherwise unfortunate, few of them came from debtors' prisons.

Change to a Royal Colony

Mansion in Georgia Georgia's government prohibited slavery during the colonial period. When it became obvious that large slave-worked plantations in neighboring colonies produced more crops with slave labor, Georgia lifted its slavery restriction. The rise in slave labor fostered the emergence of plantations and mansions in the state, many of which have been carefully preserved, such as this one.Georgia Department of Industry, Trade & Tourism

The objectives of the trustees were soon called into question. The settlers were less interested in the security the trustees provided than in the opportunity to grow rich. "Clamorous malcontents" maintained that the colony would never grow until people could buy and sell all the land they wanted and have slaves to work the fields. They asserted they could not compete successfully against other colonies because wage labor cost the farm owner much more than slave labor. The trustees countered that the presence of slavery would make free workers lazy and would make defense more difficult. A few who sided with Oglethorpe also raised the issue of human rights, declaring it "shocking to human Nature, that any Race of Mankind, and their Posterity, should be sentenced to perpetual Slavery."

In the end the malcontents won and the trustees had to abandon their plans. By 1750 slavery was legal, land could be transferred, liquor could be made and sold, and Georgia had lost the features that made it unique. In 1752 the trustees surrendered their charter to the king, and two years later

Georgia became a royal colony. The government now consisted of a governor and royal council, appointed by the king, and a legislature elected by the colonists.

The colony began to prosper. A profitable plantation economy developed, based on slavery. Rice, indigo, and wheat were cultivated, and cattle and hogs were raised. The fur trade with the Native Americans flourished, lumber was cut, and naval stores (pitch and tar) were produced. Georgia exported food and other goods to Great Britain in return for British manufactures and for slaves, sugar, rum, and molasses from the West Indies. The settler population, which was less than 5,000 in 1752, grew rapidly after the French and Indian War ended in 1763.

After that war, which ended French competition in North America and transferred Florida to British control, Georgia's western limit was set at the Mississippi River; its southern boundary with Florida was extended to the Saint Marys River. However, only the eastern part of the colony was settled. All the area west of the Appalachians was set aside by the king's proclamation as a Native American reservation. By 1776 Georgia's settler population was about 40,000, half of them black slaves.

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Maryland

European Exploration and Settlement

Spanish explorers sailed along the Maryland coast in the 16th century. In the early 17th century, fur traders from Virginia colony traded with Native Americans in the area. Under a commercial license issued by Virginia, William Claiborne built the first white settlement in the area in 1631. It was a fur trading post on Kent Island, east of modern-day Annapolis.

In 1632, George Calvert, 1st Baron Baltimore, induced King Charles I of England to grant him the land north of the Potomac River, which had been part of the grant to Virginia colony. Calvert, a former high adviser to the king and recent convert to Roman Catholicism, wanted to establish a community where fellow Catholics, who were persecuted in England, could worship freely. In addition, he anticipated a financial profit from his colonial enterprise. Calvert died before Charles completed the charter, and the grant went to his son Cecilius Calvert, 2nd Baron Baltimore. It included the land from the south bank of the Potomac north to the 40th parallel, as well as all but the tip of the Delmarva Peninsula. Maryland's western boundary ran from the "fountain" (source) of the Potomac northward until it met the 40th parallel. Cecilius Calvert proceeded to organize an expedition of about 200 settlers under the leadership of his younger brother Leonard Calvert, who was to serve as provincial governor. The settlers reached the province in March 1634, first setting foot on Maryland soil at Saint Clements Island. They established Saint Marys (later Saint Marys City) on the site of a former Native American village—which they bought from its inhabitants—near the mouth of the Saint George's River (now Saint Marys River).

The settlers cultivated the land previously cleared by the Native Americans, planting corn and tobacco. Their first harvests were good, and they remained at peace with the Native Americans. But they had difficulties of other sorts. Claiborne refused to recognize Lord Baltimore's jurisdiction over Kent Island, which he claimed was part of Virginia. As a result, petty warfare broke out in 1635 between Claiborne's and Baltimore's forces. In 1638 the English Commissioners for Foreign Plantations ruled that Kent Island came under the jurisdiction of Maryland.

Another early conflict occurred between Lord Baltimore and the provincial legislature. Under the terms of the charter, the legislature was restricted to approving legislation proposed by Baltimore. The legislature soon demanded the power to initiate legislation. After resisting its demand, Baltimore yielded on this important point in 1638, when he agreed that laws enacted by the legislature and approved by the governor should be temporarily valid pending his own approval.

Civil Strife

During the 1640s, Maryland was shaken by a succession of conflicts related to the civil strife occurring in England. At that time the king was engaged in a struggle for power with Parliament, the English legislature. Lord Baltimore supported the king, while many Maryland colonists were sympathetic to Parliament, which was controlled by conservative Protestants known as Puritans. Even though complete religious freedom prevailed in the province, Baltimore's adherence to

Catholicism was a cause of unrest among the settlers, a majority of whom were Protestants. The differences between proprietor and settlers tended to make the proprietary authority unstable, and in 1644 Claiborne seized power and drove Governor Calvert into exile in Virginia. In 1646 Calvert reasserted proprietary authority with troops supplied by the governor of Virginia, Sir William Berkeley.

Governor Calvert died in June 1647. The struggle between the king and Parliament had become a civil war in England, and it was by that time apparent that the Parliamentarians would prevail. To gain favor with the strongly anti-Catholic Parliamentarians, as well as to placate the Protestant majority in Maryland, Lord Baltimore appointed a Protestant, William Stone, as governor and named other Protestants to important positions in the government. At the same time he sought to ensure that the religious freedom of the Catholic minority would not be compromised by the Protestant majority. Largely as a result of his prodding, the legislature passed the Act Concerning Religion in 1649, assuring freedom of worship to all who believed in the Christian doctrine of the Trinity. Although limited to Christians and repealed in 1692, this was one of the earliest statutes of religious liberty.

Lord Baltimore’s adroit political maneuvers were of no avail. Parliament appointed commissioners for Maryland, one of whom was his old enemy Claiborne. In 1654 the commission reorganized the provincial government, eliminating the proprietor’s political authority and removing Governor Stone. Subsequently, the Puritan-controlled legislature passed anti-Catholic legislation. Baltimore refused to accept the loss of his authority and doggedly worked in England for its restoration. In March 1655, Stone led a force of 130 soldiers to try to recapture the government, but was thoroughly beaten and most of his force captured. The Puritans executed four of Stone’s lieutenants. Baltimore meanwhile secured the assurance of Lord Protector Oliver Cromwell, who ruled England in the name of Parliament, that he was still the proprietor of Maryland. Finally, in November 1657, he reached an agreement with the Puritan commissioners to restore his former authority over the colony.

During the 1660s and 1670s, proprietary authority was largely unchallenged. However, the Protestant farmers scattered along the shores of Chesapeake Bay resented the province’s Catholic leadership in Saint Marys City. In 1688 English King James II, a Catholic, was succeeded by the Protestant monarchs William and Mary. By an accident of fate the provincial governor delayed in proclaiming the new monarchs, giving new life to the suspicion, long held among Maryland Protestants, that insidious anti-Protestant plots were afoot in the province. The suspicion renewed old grievances. In 1689 Protestant rebels, led by John Coode, overthrew the proprietary government and asked King William to place the colony under royal control. This was accomplished with the arrival of the first royal governor in 1692. In the same year the Church of England was made the official church of the province. The change in regimes also resulted in the shifting of the provincial capital in 1694 from Catholic-dominated Saint Marys City to Protestant-dominated Anne Arundel Town (now Annapolis).

Expanding Economy

By the late 17th century, settlers had spread over much of Maryland, primarily along the rivers and creeks that supplied oceanborne shipping. Tobacco prices encouraged further planting in both Maryland and Virginia. Some of the settlers had large plantations, but most worked smaller tobacco farms averaging 100 hectares (250 acres) in size, sometimes with the help of white indentured servants or black slaves from Africa or the Caribbean. In the 1690s, when slave prices

fell and the supply of white servants shrank, planters began using slaves almost exclusively. Maryland and Virginia law at the same time defined black slavery as a lifetime condition.

The 18th Century

Maryland remained a royal province until 1715. In that year it became a proprietary province again because Charles Calvert, 5th Baron Baltimore, had converted to Protestantism.

Expanding Population

Throughout the 17th century newcomers to the Chesapeake area typically underwent a period of months or years during which they fell prey to malaria and other strange diseases. The death rate was extremely high and kept the population down. By the early 18th century, however, more and more Marylanders were native born and had resistance that allowed them to live longer and have larger families. Population grew accordingly, rising from about 25,000 in 1700 to about 130,000 in 1750. By the time of the American Revolution (1775-1783) the population was about 225,000.

Settlement continued to concentrate on the Atlantic Coastal Plain. However, beginning about 1700, English settlers moved west into the Piedmont. By the 1730s, Germans began to move south from Pennsylvania into Frederick County, which until the revolution embraced all of western Maryland. Farmers shipped their crops to Baltimore for sale, and Baltimore, which had been established in 1729, became the main outlet for Maryland's farm produce.

In 1769 a long-term boundary dispute between Maryland and Pennsylvania was finally resolved when Great Britain (a union of three countries headed by England) officially recognized latitude 39°43' north, named the Mason-Dixon Line after its British surveyors, as the boundary. Colonies north of the Mason-Dixon Line eventually came to be called the North, and those south of it were the South. Over the next 90 years the regional differences between the North and the South were to grow until they erupted into civil war.

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Massachusetts

European Exploration

Norsemen may have visited Massachusetts about the year 1000. However, the first recorded exploration took place nearly 500 years later, when Italian navigator and explorer John Cabot sailed along the Massachusetts coast in 1498 while searching for a route to Asia. Italian explorer Giovanni da Verrazzano, sailing under the French flag in 1524, also traced the Massachusetts coast. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, an English captain, named Cape Cod for the schools of codfish he found there. Later explorers included Martin Pring in 1603, George Waymouth in 1605, Samuel de Champlain in 1605 and 1606, Henry Hudson in 1609, and Adriaen Block and John Smith in 1614. Smith, one of the founders of Jamestown, Virginia, the first English settlement in America, mapped Massachusetts Bay and gave the area many of its names.

Plymouth Colony

First Sermon at Plymouth: The Pilgrims set sail for America from England to escape religious persecution, landing at Plymouth, Massachusetts, in December 1620. Here, the first sermon on shore took place. Plymouth became the first permanent European settlement in New England. The town has preserved its historical beginnings with a scale recreation of the original Pilgrim settlement.

In 1606 the territory of present-day Massachusetts was included in the vast North American coastal tract granted by the English king to the Plymouth Company, which was reorganized in 1620 as the Council for New England. The company had trade and colonization rights but was unable to promote settlement within its domain. This task fell by chance to a group of religious dissenters, known as Pilgrims, who had faced persecution in England after breaking from the Church of England, the official church there. With the hope of starting a new life, the Pilgrims turned to North America in 1620, sailing on the ship Mayflower, destined for Virginia. They were blown off course, landed instead at Provincetown Bay in November, and finally settled at Plymouth in mid-December. Because they were outside the jurisdiction of Virginia and had no grant to settle in the region controlled by the Plymouth Company, the Pilgrims drew up the Mayflower Compact. Under this informal agreement or covenant, government was based on consent of the governed, an important precedent for the development of American democracy. John Carver was elected governor of the settlement, the Plymouth Colony.

The Mayflower Compact
The Mayflower Compact was the first governmental agreement written by colonists in the New World. Signed on board the Mayflower on November 11, 1620, by the ship's 41 adult, male passengers, the Compact established rule by the majority and mandated that all members of the Plymouth Colony obey the ordinances therein. Following is the complete, unedited version of the document. Seventeenth century conventions of spelling and grammar have not been modified.

The Pilgrims' first winter was difficult, and almost half the colonists perished. In the spring some friendly Native Americans taught the settlers about their new land, showing them how to raise corn and catch fish. The Wampanoag leader Massasoit and the colonists signed a peace treaty, each promising to live in peace and to support the other if attacked by an aggressor. In the fall of 1621 the bountiful harvest of corn and beans, along with fish and game, was shared between the

settlers and Native Americans in the first American Thanksgiving celebration. From then the Plymouth Colony prospered on its own until it merged with the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1691.

History of Plymouth Plantation

In December 1620 the Pilgrims, a group of religious Separatists and other settlers, arrived in Cape Cod, Massachusetts, on the ship the Mayflower. Several years earlier, the Separatists had left England and settled in Holland in order to escape religious persecution, but they were not content to stay there. In New England, in 1621, the Pilgrims elected William Bradford as their leader.

Massachusetts Bay Colony

In 1623 the Council for New England issued a patent to the Dorchester Company, a group of English businessmen interested in trade. The company founded a settlement at Cape Ann, but it failed in 1625, and the survivors, under Roger Conant, founded Naumkeag (later Salem) in 1626. Also in the mid-1620s English business interests set up other colonies in Massachusetts, including those at Mount Wollaston (now Quincy), Wessagusset (now Weymouth), and Nantasket.

In 1628 a major colonization effort began. A group of men led by John Endecott received a patent from the Council for New England that entitled them to a territory from just north of the Merrimack River to just south of the Charles River and extending from sea to sea. This group, interested in establishing a trading business in North America, soon became dominated by Puritans, who were also dissenters from the Church of England. These businessmen hoped to establish a religious colony as a refuge from persecution. The company sent Endecott to take over the settlement at Salem and pressed for a royal charter. In 1629 the king granted the charter of the Massachusetts Bay Company.

John Winthrop: "A City Upon a Hill"
In 1629 English attorney and Puritan John Winthrop was chosen by the Massachusetts Bay Company, an English trading firm, to govern its colony in New England. Winthrop and 700 Puritan settlers set sail from Yarmouth, England, in March 1630 and landed at what is now Salem, Massachusetts, on June 12.

Under this charter the company was self-governing. Its stockholders, called freemen, met as an assembly called the General Court. The assembly then chose a governor, a deputy governor, and 18 assistants to administer the colony. The first government was established in England. In 1629 the company decided to move the government to Massachusetts, and chose John Winthrop as governor of the colony. Winthrop arrived the following year, bringing more than 700 settlers and the royal charter with him. Several hundred more colonists arrived soon after.
The government of the trading company then became that of the colony. Absolute control was exercised by Winthrop, clergyman John Cotton, and other Puritan leaders, reflecting the religious purpose for which the colony was founded. Religious leaders soon solidified their power by ruling that only members of the Puritan church could be freemen and have a vote in the colony’s government.

Religious Purity

The purpose of the Puritans in Massachusetts Bay was to establish a “Godly” society as a model for all Christians, based on a church purified in membership, worship, and structure from what they considered corruption in the Church of England. Free of the church hierarchy in England, they built their colony around independent church congregations, and their religion became known as Congregationalism.

Life in the colony was demanding. The necessities of life as well as the Puritans’ belief in hard work required everyone to labor from sunrise to sunset. Attendance at Sunday religious services was compulsory, and there was little leisure time. Amusements and dancing were frowned upon, and there was no theater. There were laws against stylish dress, but fashions changed as the colony became more prosperous. Wedding celebrations and such events as house-raisings, town meetings, and militia training sessions provided occasions for gathering with friends and enjoying refreshments. Punishments for crimes were very harsh. When the Society of Friends, or Quakers, attempted to preach against this way of life in the mid-1650s, the General Court persecuted them unmercifully. Quakers were banished from the colony and threatened with death if they returned. One Quaker who did so, Mary Dyer, was hanged in 1660.

This strict control of life and religious beliefs led some people to leave the colony. In 1635 clergyman Thomas Hooker and his congregation migrated for economic reasons to found Hartford and other towns of what later became Connecticut. Others, such as Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson, questioned the religious purity of the colony. Williams preached the separation of church and government and questioned the colony’s right to take Native American lands without compensation. In 1636 Williams was exiled from the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and, after taking refuge among the Wampanoag, established Providence, the first permanent white settlement in what would become Rhode Island. Two years later Hutchinson was banished for her religious dissent, and she and some followers also went south to found Portsmouth, Rhode Island. Her brother-in-law John Wheelwright fled Massachusetts to found Exeter, New Hampshire. While these and other people emigrated from the colony to escape the restrictions of church government, immigration to Massachusetts Bay brought rapid growth.

Town Meeting

The Puritan belief that communities were formed by covenants produced America’s first democratic institution, the town meeting. At the town meeting every church member had the right to speak, and decisions were made by majority rule. In some towns, property-holding men who were not church members also had voting rights. At first the meetings dealt only with local problems, but in 1634 representatives of the towns forced the Puritan leaders to allow each town to send two deputies to the General Court. These deputies were chosen at the town meeting and represented its interests. In 1644 the General Court was divided into a bicameral assembly, with the governor and the assistants sitting in one chamber and the deputies in the other. The democratic atmosphere of the town meeting influenced the deputies, who over the ensuing decades sought to influence the assistants to lessen restrictions on religious and personal freedoms in the colony.

Struggle Against English Control

From 1629 to 1660, Massachusetts Bay was virtually independent of control from England, which was caught up in a struggle between Parliament and the king that culminated in the English Revolution (1640-1660). During the 1630s, most of the Puritans who fled from religious persecution in England settled in the Massachusetts Bay Colony. The colony’s elders used its

large population and financial strength to influence adjacent settlements, attempting to extend control over areas claimed by the Plymouth Colony and Connecticut in the early 1640s. Massachusetts also began to claim southern New Hampshire, whose towns joined the colony after failing to establish a strong central government of their own. In 1643 the colony joined Connecticut, New Haven, and Plymouth to form a military alliance called the New England Confederation, to help meet threatened attacks by Native Americans and Dutch settlers. During the 40 years of the confederation, the Massachusetts Bay Colony dominated its proceedings. In the early 1650s, Massachusetts incorrectly interpreted its charter as granting it the existing settlements in Maine, and by 1658 the entire Maine region had been annexed.

After the English monarchy was restored in 1660, King Charles II tried to reestablish royal control over the American colonies, especially Massachusetts Bay, which claimed it had sovereign powers and was not responsible to the king. In 1664 and 1665 the king's agents attempted to separate Maine and New Hampshire from Massachusetts, but within three years these regions were again dominated by the colony. For 15 years the General Court steadfastly resisted any royal attempts to subjugate the colony.

As the colonies expanded, whites came to outnumber the Native Americans and encroach further onto native lands. Cultural differences and land disputes created conflicts that resulted in King Philip's War, an uprising led by the Wampanoag chief Philip. The son of Massasoit, who had befriended the Pilgrims at Plymouth, Philip formed an alliance of native groups to drive out the settlers in 1675. Many settlements in central Massachusetts and the Connecticut River valley were destroyed. In retaliation for attacks by Philip's forces, Massachusetts and its partners in the New England Confederation also declared war on the neutral Narragansett people, killing hundreds of Narragansett in an attack on their main village in Rhode Island. The Narragansett then joined Philip, but the Native Americans were defeated in 1676. Philip was killed, many of his followers were executed or sold into slavery, and their lands were taken over by the colonies. The defeat ended the resistance of southern New England native peoples to white settlement there.

Revocation of Charter

After 1674 England began new attempts to subdue the rebellious Massachusetts Bay Colony. The principal charges leveled against the colony were continuing violations of the trade restrictions of the Navigation Acts; severe religious intolerance, specifically against Anglicans, which led to English citizens being persecuted and even killed; and the colony's assumption of virtual independence. In 1677 the Puritan leaders sent agents to England to answer these charges, but they did little to satisfy the royal government, and added to past offenses by purchasing the grant governing Maine from the heirs of the original owner, Ferdinando Gorges. In the face of this defiance England separated New Hampshire from the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1677, and in 1684 England revoked the latter's charter.

Dominion of New England

After taking the English throne in 1685, James II decided to consolidate the New England colonies as the Dominion of New England. In December 1686 Sir Edmund Andros arrived in Boston as royal governor of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. By 1688 the dominion included all of New England, New York, New Jersey, and Nova Scotia.

The dominion government made Andros a virtual dictator. Under his harsh rule the colonists were not allowed to have a representative assembly, town meetings were permitted only once a year, and taxation was imposed by the provincial governments without the consent of the colonists. The governor also supported the Church of England against the interests of the Puritans. All these moves greatly angered the people of Massachusetts. In 1689, when it was learned that James II had been overthrown and fled England, Andros was seized in Boston and the dominion collapsed. For the next two years the colony was governed under a temporary government of Puritan leaders with a popular assembly.

Royal Colony

The Salem Witchcraft Trials

In February 1692 doctors were baffled by mysterious "fits" experienced by some adolescent girls in the Puritan town of Salem, Massachusetts. Pressured to identify the "witches" who had afflicted them, the girls began naming names. By fall 20 innocent people were executed at the hands of a special witchcraft court. The court relied largely on forced confessions and intangible evidence, and the controversial trials divided the community. Finally, Salem merchant Thomas Brattle wrote a letter to Governor William Phips complaining about the proceedings. Real evidence was thin or nonexistent, and "some remarkably good and pious people" had been accused, he wrote. Brattle's letter convinced the governor, who disbanded the special court a few weeks later. No more "witches" were ever executed in Salem.

In 1691 a new royal charter was granted for the colony of Massachusetts, which incorporated the Massachusetts Bay Colony, Plymouth, Martha's Vineyard, Nantucket Island, Maine, and Nova Scotia. Under the charter a popular assembly was established to aid the royal governor, and the right to elect representatives to the assembly was based on property qualifications, rather than on church membership. The royal charter ended control of Massachusetts government by Puritan religious leaders. Their influence was further weakened after an outbreak of hysteria in 1692 in Salem, in which hundreds of people were accused of witchcraft. The accusations, mostly made by young girls, came at a time of religious, political, and social divisions. After a series of trials, 19 people were executed as witches, and one man who refused to enter a plea to the charge was also put to death, before leading ministers helped end the scare. Although Puritan influence declined, the Congregational Church retained a privileged position in Massachusetts until the 19th century.

The relationship between the colonists and the royal governor was strained from the outset, simply because the governor represented the king and had veto power over the General Court. However, the court was able to exercise some control over the governor because it paid his salary.

During this period, Massachusetts was extensively involved in Britain's wars with France over domination of North America and Europe (see King George's War, King William's War, Queen Anne's War, French and Indian War). The fighting in North America took place intermittently between 1689 and 1760, with each side using Native American allies and attacking each other's settlements. In Massachusetts many towns were destroyed, such as Deerfield, where 40 people were killed and many more taken captive in 1704. Many merchant ships were captured or sunk by the French, and Massachusetts raised taxes and mustered thousands of soldiers to support the war effort. French forces were finally defeated in 1760, and a treaty in 1763 left Britain in control of North America.

Colonial Economy

The early Puritan economy was primarily agricultural, although some manufacturing was done by the farmers, who produced most of the goods and tools they needed. In the second half of the 17th century a class of merchants gradually developed, supported by the steady growth of Massachusetts shipping. Good harbors and the long coastline, together with abundant timber and fish, fostered the shipbuilding industry.

During the wars with France, Massachusetts enjoyed a period of general prosperity. Great Britain, preoccupied with the French, was again unable to exercise its authority. Massachusetts merchants engaged in a highly profitable but illegal trade with the French West Indies and with other foreign ports. A triangular trade developed, in which Massachusetts merchants brought in sugar and molasses from the West Indies, converted it into rum, sent the rum to Africa in exchange for slaves, and sold the slaves to West Indian sugar plantations.

In addition to the prosperity from sea commerce, the colony developed manufacturing industries, such as ironworks, brickyards, stone quarries, leather tanneries, and distilleries. Town life spread into central and western Massachusetts. Boston grew steadily and by the 1770s was one of America's few large cities.

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New Hampshire

Exploration and Settlement

The first white people to visit New Hampshire may have been Norse seafarers in the 11th century, or Europeans who fished in North American waters in the 15th century. However, the first recorded visit to New Hampshire was made in 1603, when an English sea captain, Martin Pring, explored the shoreline and ventured a short way into the interior. He wrote enthusiastically of the abundance of wildlife in the area around present-day Portsmouth. Pring was followed in 1605 by the French explorer Samuel de Champlain, who mapped the New England coastline. In 1614 Captain John Smith repeated the process for the English.

The first settlements in New Hampshire were made in 1623. David Thomson, a Scotsman, arrived in the spring at Odiorne's Point, in the present town of Rye, with a few settlers. Farms were established, and Thomson began fishing operations and set up a trading post. A few years later, Edward Hilton arrived from London and made a settlement at Dover. In 1626 Thomson left for what is now Boston, Massachusetts, and any settlers who remained at Odiorne's Point were probably drawn to Strawbery Banke (later Portsmouth), settled in about 1630. In 1638 Exeter and Hampton were settled. Dover, Portsmouth, Exeter, and Hampton were the only permanent settlements in New Hampshire until 1673, when Dunstable, Massachusetts, was founded. Part of Dunstable became Nashua, New Hampshire, when the boundary between the two provinces was drawn in 1741, dividing several towns.

Early Land Grants

Land titles in early New Hampshire were confused because several conflicting grants were made. In 1622 two Englishmen, Captain John Mason and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, received a grant from the Council for New England (formerly the Plymouth Company) for the land between the Merrimack and Kennebec rivers. Smaller grants were also made, including one to David Thomson for his settlement at Odiorne's Point. Edward Hilton, who established the settlement at Dover, did not receive a grant at this time, but was given legal standing in 1631. In 1629 Gorges and Mason divided their joint holding at the Piscataqua River. Gorges called his part, to the east of the Piscataqua, the province of Maine; Mason named his New Hampshire after the English county of Hampshire that had been his home. After Mason died in 1635, his heirs in England neglected his holdings, allowing others to occupy land that was part of his grant. When Mason's grandson finally pressed his claim to the territory in 1660, a dispute erupted over land titles that dominated the political life of the province for decades. The so-called Masonian controversy was not finally resolved until 1746.

Early Government

After Mason's death, the four New Hampshire towns faced a period of political uncertainty. Massachusetts began to claim southern New Hampshire in about 1638. The English Revolution (1640-1660), which overthrew the monarchy and created years of turmoil in England, left the colony without a definite central authority. From the early 1640s until 1679, the New Hampshire towns placed themselves under the protection of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. During this time

few new settlements were created, and only one important exploration was undertaken, which led to the discovery of the White Mountains.

After the restoration of the English monarchy in 1660, Robert T. Mason sought the return of the lands he had inherited from his grandfather, John. As a result, New Hampshire was detached from Massachusetts and was made a royal province. The new charter, effective on January 1, 1680, provided for a president and a council, selected by the king, and for an assembly chosen by voters of the province. But political instability continued in the province, and New Hampshire was again under Massachusetts protection from 1689 to 1692. At that time it once again became separate, but the two colonies shared the same royal governor until 1741.

During this period there was bitter rivalry between the two colonies over jurisdiction in disputed lands. Massachusetts continued to make grants of lands in parts of what was later judged to be New Hampshire, and these grants often conflicted with those made by New Hampshire. New Hampshire petitioned the king for a final settlement of its boundaries to the east and south with Massachusetts. In 1741 New Hampshire won a favorable decision, gaining more territory and its own royal governor, independent of Massachusetts.

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New Jersey

Exploration and Settlement

Italian explorer John Cabot saw the New Jersey coast in 1498, but the Italian navigator Giovanni da Verrazzano was the first European to explore and chart it, in 1524. The first Europeans to set foot in New Jersey were sailors from the Dutch-owned ship Half Moon, commanded by English explorer Henry Hudson, in 1609. Dutch adventurers, fur trappers, and traders followed, and about 1620 a trading post was established at Bergen, now part of Jersey City. Other Dutch settlers established Fort Nassau on the Delaware River in 1623 and Jersey City at the mouth of the Hudson River in the early 1630s. Small Swedish settlements were planted in southern New Jersey, beginning with Fort Elfsborg in 1638. The Dutch West India Company claimed the areas of New Jersey and New York as the colony of New Netherland, and in 1655 the colonial governor, Peter Stuyvesant, expelled the Swedish.

The English had never recognized either Dutch or Swedish claims to New Jersey. England based its claim to New Jersey on Cabot's voyage and on the power of its navy. In 1664 the Dutch surrendered New Netherland to the English, who renamed the area west of the Hudson River New Jersey, for the island of Jersey in the English Channel.

Proprietary Government

King Charles II of England granted all of the captured Dutch colony to his brother, James, Duke of York. James in turn granted a proprietorship over New Jersey to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Unaware of this transaction, the royal governor of New York parceled out tracts of land in Monmouth County and at Elizabethtown (now Elizabeth) to Puritans from New England and Long Island.

Almost immediately, conflict arose between the proprietors and the Puritans over land claims and the right to establish a government. Political and religious differences intensified the friction; the proprietors were Anglicans and loyal to the king, while the Puritans were dissenting Protestants. Sporadic riots broke out over the demands of the proprietors that landholders pay them rent. However, the colony continued to grow. By 1670 English settlers, mostly Puritans from Connecticut and Long Island, had founded settlements at Newark, Woodbridge, Piscataway, Middletown, and Shrewsbury. Immigration of non-English colonists later swelled the population and magnified the religious differences.

The Dutch briefly regained possession of New Jersey, but lost it again to the English in 1674. Meanwhile, Berkeley sold his share of the colony to two Quakers. When one of them, Edward Billinge, went bankrupt in 1676, his creditors took control of his share under a deed that divided New Jersey in half from Little Egg Harbor to a point north of the Delaware Water Gap. Carteret retained control of the eastern half, while the creditors, including prominent Quaker William Penn, controlled the western half. This touched off a long-lasting boundary dispute and enduring political, economic, and social differences between the two Jerseys. The Quakers gravitated toward Philadelphia, while those in the eastern half turned toward New York City.

In attempting to establish a colony, the Quakers in West Jersey soon went bankrupt, so they formed a joint stock company and sold shares to finance their efforts. The company shareholders became the board of proprietors, who acted as landlords and government of the colony. In East

Jersey, Carteret's heirs also formed a stock company in 1682, and its shareholders became that area's board of proprietors.

Under the original two proprietors, the charter for the government of New Jersey was the Concessions and Agreements of the Lords Proprietors, which provided for religious freedom, trial by jury, and a representative assembly. In 1677 Penn wrote a second charter for West Jersey called the Concessions and Agreements, which guaranteed freedom of religion and personal liberty, and provided for the annual election by secret ballot of a representative assembly with limited powers of taxation. By the time New Jersey was united as a royal colony in 1702, a tradition of self-government had been established.

Settlements were sparse and scattered. In the 1680s and 1690s West Jersey was settled by English, Irish, Welsh, and Scottish Quakers. The Burlington Quaker Meeting, which dictated terms of settlement—and nearly everything else—among the local Society of Friends, allowed settlers to spread across the countryside in farms of more than 240 hectares (600 acres). In East Jersey, Essex County and what later became Morris County were largely owned by the Scottish partners of the proprietors, who tried to transplant their ways to New Jersey. They set up huge estates, imported several hundred indentured servants, and refused to sell land to independent farmers. The Dutch brought the first African slaves into Bergen County. By the 1680s English landowners from the West Indies settled in and purchased larger numbers from the slave markets of New York City. In 1702 the population of East and West Jersey was about 14,000.

Royal Government

In 1702 the boards of proprietors in both sections of New Jersey turned their governing authority over to Queen Anne, who united the two into a single royal colony. However, the two proprietary organizations continued to act as landlords, holding title to all unclaimed land in New Jersey.

Under royal government, local self-rule was curtailed and the colony was bound more closely to England. Despite political unification, each section insisted on maintaining its own capital. The assembly, which shared colonial rule with the royal governor, was forced to hold its sessions in Perth Amboy and Burlington in alternating years. Differences between the two sections remained, but they united to present a common front against the royal governor. In trying to restore harmony and obedience to royal authority, the governors were forced until 1738 to divide their attention between New Jersey and New York, and many of the crown's representatives were incompetent. This enabled the colonists to exercise a greater amount of self-government than the monarchy desired. Especially important was the assembly's power to collect taxes for the governor's salary. Governors who remained responsible to the king and opposed the interests of the colonists often went unpaid.

The Great Awakening, a religious movement that swept through the colonies in the 1740s, further undermined royal authority, as well as that of the Anglican Church. Led by Presbyterian ministers William Tennent and his son, Gilbert Tennent, preachers crossed Bergen, Essex, and Hunterdon counties. Their fiery sermons made Protestants repent their sins and seek salvation. The awakening left churches in turmoil, as the newly saved attacked more conservative ministers, who refused to accept their conversion experiences as genuine. Within a decade, in Sussex and other wilderness counties, orderly denominations became a chaos of jealous, competing sects. Religious fervor also sharpened farmers' anger when proprietors questioned their land titles during the so-called "land riots" of the late 1740s. Hundreds of farmers squatted

on their land, defying efforts by sheriffs and militia units to evict them. When several were arrested, their friends stormed jails in Somerset, Newark, and Perth Amboy to free them.

From 14,000 in 1700, the number of inhabitants doubled to more than 30,000 in 1726. It continued to grow rapidly, reaching about 120,000 by 1775. Immigrants poured into the colony from New York and Philadelphia, giving it a diverse and multilingual character. Dutch continued to trek into Bergen County, dotting the valley of the Hackensack River with Dutch Reformed congregations. The small Swedish group in Salem was swamped by an influx of Irish Quakers and Scots from Ulster, who made up a quarter of Salem's population by the time of the American Revolution in 1775. Large numbers of peasants from Germany settled in Hunterdon and Sussex counties. As a result, the English province of New Jersey was probably only half English in ethnic origin on the eve of the revolution, and counties like Hunterdon, Middlesex, and Salem were less than 40 percent English. Bergen and Somerset counties were, respectively, half and two-thirds Dutch by the 1760s. The growing number of Scots-Irish, Welsh, Dutch, German, Swedish, Belgian, French, and black settlers in New Jersey made British rule that much less popular.

Of the royal governors, only Robert Hunter and Lewis Morris received cooperation from the assembly. Even Morris, who before becoming governor was a strong defender of the assembly's prerogatives, went without salary for two years. In 1763 William Franklin, the son of statesman Benjamin Franklin, was appointed governor. He could muster little support for the British in the French and Indian War (1754-1763) that was raging along the American frontier, as Great Britain and France fought for control of North America. The presence of a large number of Quakers and other pacifist sects partly accounted for this lack of concern. The basic reason, however, was that New Jersey was too preoccupied with its own problems and development to come to the aid of the king.

Opposition to royal authority continued to mount as Britain attempted to enforce laws restricting trade and imposing taxes on the colonies. See also Navigation Acts; Sugar and Molasses Act; Stamp Act; Townshend Acts. Following the lead of Massachusetts and Virginia, a provincial congress met in New Brunswick on July 21, 1774, and elected delegates to the First Continental Congress. Four months later a group of New Jersey patriots, again following the lead of rebellious colonists in Boston, burned a cargo of tea in Greenwich. As unrest spread, many royal officials yielded to the provincial congress. In June 1776 William Franklin, who remained loyal to Britain, was arrested, and the reign of royal governors ended in New Jersey.

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New York

Dutch Colony

New Amsterdam Dutch settlements such as New Amsterdam (later known as New York City) grew as trade with indigenous peoples increased. By the time England assumed control of the Dutch colony of New Netherland in 1664, it had a European population of 6,000.Culver Pictures

The first settlements in New York were made in 1624, when the Dutch West India Company sent out a boatload of colonists. Most of the settlers established themselves in the northern Hudson Valley, near the future site of Albany, at Fort Orange. Soon more colonists arrived and made their home on the lower tip of Manhattan, at a site that came to be known as New Amsterdam. In 1626 the governor of the colony, Peter Minuit, purchased Manhattan from the local Native Americans for trinkets valued at about $24. The Dutch colony, called New Netherland, grew slowly at first, because the Dutch West India Company neglected the northern outposts in favor of its holdings in the rich West Indies. A handful of traders supplied the Native Americans who brought in furs, the region’s prime resource. In 1629, however, the company offered its members large estates, called patroonships, if they would send settlers to New Netherland. Most of these ventures did not succeed, because few Dutch wanted to leave their homeland.

In 1637 the company appointed Willem Kieft director-general of New Netherland. A dictatorial leader, Kieft drove the colony into war in 1641 with the Algonquian tribes of the area. After a series of disputes arose between settlers and natives over land ownership, Kieft tried to impose a tax on the Native Americans to help pay for fortification of the settlements. When the tribes refused, Kieft caused the massacre of more than 100 native inhabitants. Four years of raids and reprisals by both sides followed, in which more than 1,000 Native Americans and settlers were killed.

Kieft was replaced in 1647 by Peter Stuyvesant. Although honest and efficient, Stuyvesant also used dictatorial methods in governing the colonists, who opposed high taxes on imports and demanded a voice in the government. Meanwhile, English colonists had expelled Dutch settlers from the Connecticut Valley and founded settlements on present-day Long Island. In 1650 Stuyvesant was forced to cede all of Long Island east of Oyster Bay to Connecticut, an English colony.

English Colony

In 1664 King Charles II of England decided to take over the entire region, basing his claim on the explorations made for England by explorer John Cabot in 1497 and 1498. Charles granted to his brother James, Duke of York and Albany, all the land between the Connecticut and Delaware rivers. To enforce the English claim, Colonel Richard Nicolls sailed into New York Harbor with four ships and 400 soldiers. Stuyvesant wanted to fight, but the citizens of New Amsterdam were unwilling to resist. New Netherland and New Amsterdam were renamed New York. Beverwyck, the settlement that grew up around Fort Orange, became known as Albany.

In 1665 Nicolls, the first English governor of the colony, called a meeting of the representatives of settlers living on Long Island and in what is now Westchester County. He refused their request for an assembly, but he gave them some degree of local self-government. A document,

called the Duke's Laws, provided for the election of town boards and constables and guaranteed freedom of worship. Later these rights were granted to the rest of the province.

In 1682 Thomas Dongan was made governor. He called a representative assembly, which in 1683 adopted the Charter of Liberties and Privileges. This charter called for an elected legislature to levy taxes and make laws, and it guaranteed trial by jury and freedom of worship. Dongan gave New York and Albany charters providing for limited home rule and trading rights. He also cultivated the goodwill of the Iroquois, who were a buffer between New York and the French colony in Canada.

The guarantees of the charter never went into effect. In 1685 the Duke of York and Albany became king as James II, and he included New York within the Dominion of New England, a colony that incorporated most of New England under the close control of a royal governor. New Yorkers were infuriated when James dismissed Dongan and placed them under Sir Edmund Andros, the dominion's governor, who ruled from Boston.

Land Grants

The English governors of New York gave huge tracts of land to their friends, which resulted in only a small number of landowners. Many of these landlords were more interested in land speculation than in settlement, so the colony's population grew slowly outside the major towns. Of special importance in New York's history were the manors, large land holdings whose owners had almost unlimited power over them. Six such manors covered more than half of present-day Westchester County. The only successful Dutch patroonship, Rensselaerswyck, became a manor under the English. Located near Albany, it consisted of more than 280,000 hectares (700,000 acres). The Manor of Saint George, on Long Island, was more than 80 km (50 miles) long and covered the central part of the island from shore to shore.

The landholding aristocracy and the wealthy merchants of New York City controlled colonial affairs. Among the most prominent and influential families were the Livingstons, Schuylers, De Lanceys, and Van Cortlandts. Most of New York's small farmers were located on Long Island and along the Hudson River in what is now Ulster County.

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North Carolina

The 17th Century

Although Raleigh failed to plant a permanent colony, he gave impetus to ventures that succeeded elsewhere, some of them on land that had been part of his grant. In 1606 King James I of England granted patents to two commercial companies, the Plymouth Company of Virginia and the London Company of Virginia, to colonize Virginia. The London Company dispatched three ships, the Susan Constant, the Goodspeed, and the Discovery, under the command of Captain Christopher Newport. In May 1607 the voyagers landed on a swampy peninsula and erected James Fort, the nucleus of Jamestown, Virginia, the first permanent English settlement in America.

In 1629 James's son, King Charles I, split off the part of Virginia south of Albemarle Sound, which was still unsettled, to make a new proprietary colony called, after himself, Carolana. Charles granted Carolana to his attorney general, Sir Robert Heath. The grant was from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean between latitudes 31° north and 36° north.

The Lords Proprietors

Heath was never able to undertake the settlement of Carolana. So in 1663 King Charles II, the son of Charles I, changed the name slightly to Carolina and regranted the land to eight lords who had helped him regain the English throne. In 1665 these men, known as the lords proprietors, obtained a new charter that greatly extended the boundaries to the north and the south to include all the land between latitudes 36°30' north and 29° north.

The lords proprietors planned three counties in Carolina, each named for one of them: Albemarle, Clarendon, and Craven. Albemarle County already had some settlers who had come from Virginia in the 1650s and was the only one of the three counties to play an important role in North Carolina history.

Until 1689 Albemarle County had the only proprietary government in Carolina. During that period 12 officials served by appointment, under varying titles and for irregular terms, as governor of the county. The governor was assisted by a council, which he appointed. The council advised the governor in executive and legislative matters, sat with the elected assembly as part of the legislature, and served with the governor as the general court for legal disputes. In most matters the legislature was subordinate to the governor. It could not convene unless he called it, and he could veto its decisions. However, the legislature controlled the governor's salary and used this power to strengthen its authority.

In 1689 the proprietors, in an effort to improve administration, began appointing governors over that part of Carolina lying north and east of Cape Fear. This was a first step toward creation of a distinct identity for North Carolina, although the governor was a deputy under the governor of Carolina. North Carolina and South Carolina became popular terms.

The 18th Century

The Emergence of North Carolina

Finally, in 1712, the proprietors began to appoint governors for North Carolina who were independent of the Carolina governor. From 1711 to 1713 the colony was involved in a war with the Tuscarora people, and it relied on assistance from South Carolina to defeat them. Pirates posed another problem for North Carolina. The colony's unusual coast, with its sandbars and shallows, provided a haven for pirate ships. Furthermore, the colonists frequently benefited from purchasing the pirates' goods. It was not altogether accidental that the two most notorious pirates, Blackbeard and Stede Bonnet, were captured by expeditions sent out by the governors of Virginia and South Carolina, respectively, although they operated from North Carolina. Some of North Carolina's governors are believed to have collaborated with the pirates.

Settlers came from Virginia and South Carolina and directly from France, Germany, and Switzerland. By 1729 the estimated settler population was 35,000. As settlement spread, dispute over the Virginia-North Carolina boundary intensified. Finally, in 1728, commissioners representing both colonies chose a point on the coast and surveyed a line west. The line proved to be north of the land already claimed by North Carolina and also north of latitude 36°30' north, but Virginia accepted it.

Royal Colony

In 1729 King George II of Great Britain (a union of England, Scotland, and Wales) bought out seven of the eight shares in the Carolina grant. One owner, John Carteret, refused to sell. A strip of land just south of the Virginia border was assigned to him and became known as Granville District. He continued making grants to settlers out of that tract. During the American Revolution (1775-1783), North Carolina abolished the district and confiscated its lands that had not yet been regranted.

Under the king, the quality of administration improved. In general, the royal governors demonstrated significant ability compared to the proprietary governors. The legislature became two-house, or bicameral: The council sat as the upper house, and the assembly as the lower house. The judicial system was enlarged by the creation of new courts but continued to be subordinate to the governor.

Through the Vestry Act of 1701 and subsequent acts, the legislature had established the Anglican Church as the official church of the colony. However, the church's influence gradually weakened because of the rapid growth of Presbyterian, Quaker, Baptist, Lutheran, German Reformed, Moravian, and Methodist congregations.

The colony's politics was marked by sectional controversies. There was an early north-versus-south sectional division of the Coastal Plain, but this faded in importance as these two eastern sections united in competition with the growing west. The east dominated the colony. New Bern, in the east, was chosen as the permanent capital. Tryon's Palace, the nickname for an expensive residence and statehouse erected for Governor William Tryon (1765-1771), was built in New Bern over the objections of the west. To the east's advantage, local government was in the hands of the justices of the peace, who were appointed by the governor. The whole structure was conducive to abuses of power.

In 1768 westerners organized the Regulator movement to resist arbitrary taxes and fees and to demand honest local officials. In vain the Regulators sought redress of grievances through the courts and the legislature. Rioting erupted in several counties. In Rowan and Orange counties the

Regulators declared that they would pay no more taxes and would tolerate no more courts. On May 16, 1771, Governor Tryon led the militia against a force of about 2,000 Regulators at Alamance Creek and defeated them. The movement was broken. Many Regulators left North Carolina, more than 6,000 were pardoned, and six were hanged for treason.

Conflicts with the governor were, in essence, conflicts with Britain. This became obvious after 1763, when the governor was required to enforce a new policy designed to strengthen the colonies but also to restrict them to colonial status. The colonists were aggrieved by two colonial tax laws, the Stamp Act of 1765 and the Townshend Acts of 1767, which were enacted without the colonies' consent or vote in the British legislature, or Parliament. Armed members of the Sons of Liberty, a secret patriotic resistance organization, compelled all of the important North Carolina officials except the governor to agree not to enforce the Stamp Act. Nonimportation associations were formed to boycott British goods in protest against the Townshend Acts. In December 1773 the assembly created a committee to correspond with the other colonies and coordinate resistance. When Massachusetts was punished for resisting the Tea Act of 1773, North Carolina sent supplies of corn, flour, and pork.

A proposal by Massachusetts for a continental congress was opposed by North Carolina Governor Josiah Martin, who refused to call a meeting of the legislature to elect delegates. As a consequence, delegates were elected locally in counties and towns to the colony's first provincial congress, which met in New Bern in August 1774. It declared any tax by Parliament on the colonies to be unconstitutional and chose delegates to the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on September 5, 1774. The second provincial congress met in New Bern early in April 1775

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South Carolina

European Exploration and Early Settlement

Two Spanish ships from Santo Domingo, sent by magistrate Lucas Vásquez de Ayllón, explored the South Carolina coast in 1520 and returned with about 70 Native American captives. In 1526 Ayllón came himself with 500 settlers whom he landed in South Carolina or perhaps in Georgia. One of the earlier captives, Francisco Chicora, was brought along as interpreter. The settlers were beset by a host of problems, however, and the colony was abandoned within a few months. In another early colonization effort, a group of French Huguenots (members of the Protestant religion) started a short-lived settlement on Parris Island in 1562. In 1566 the Spanish returned and built a town, Santa Elena, on Parris Island. They left the state for good, however, after 1586.

In 1629 King Charles I of England granted to his attorney general, Sir Robert Heath, all the land between Virginia and Spanish Florida from ocean to ocean. Heath's plans for Carolana, as the land was called, never materialized. So in 1663 King Charles II granted the same territory, then called Carolina, to eight noblemen, who became the lords proprietors of the province. Two years later Carolina was enlarged to include all the land between latitudes 29° north and 36°30' north. In 1670 one proprietor, Lord Anthony Ashley Cooper, organized an expedition that resulted in the founding of Charles Town (now Charleston), the first English settlement in the South Carolina region. On the west bank of the Ashley River, Charles Town was populated by settlers from England and the island of Barbados. Ten years later, Charles Town moved across the river to Oyster Point, a location better adapted for defense and trade. Settlement in Charles Town and the surrounding country was fairly brisk, and by 1700 about 5,000 settlers were living in the area. In addition to the English, most of whom were members of the Church of England, the settlers included French Huguenots, religious dissenters from New England, and a large number of black African slaves.

Overthrow of the Proprietary Government

Beginning in the 1680s, South Carolina colonists became increasingly upset with the policies of the proprietors. By that time most of the original proprietors had died. One source of discontent was their successors' unwillingness to provide defense against the Spanish in Florida as well as against Native American uprisings and pirate raids. Colonial resentment became particularly intense during the Yamasee War, when hundreds of settlers were killed. In addition to their bitterness over the defense question, the colonists nurtured long-standing grievances over the proprietors' economic and political control. Finally, in 1719, the settlers drove the provincial governor from Charles Town and sent an agent to Great Britain (a union of three countries headed by England) to request that Carolina be made a royal province, administered by the king's functionaries. In 1721 a provisional royal government was established in Charles Town, and South Carolina officially became a royal province in 1729. North Carolina, where the proprietary authority had remained in force, became a separate royal province. In 1732 a considerable portion of South Carolina became the separate province of Georgia.

Economic Growth and Expanding Settlement

Cultural Conflict On the Frontier

The Catawba Indians, living along the border between North and South Carolina, generally got along better with British colonists than with other Native Americans, according to historians. But despite this strong relationship, the pressure of colonization made life difficult. By the mid-18th century the Catawbas had been drastically reduced by smallpox, and their lands were surrounded by white settlements. In this record of a 1754 meeting between the Catawba chief Nopkehe, known to the whites as King Hagler, and colonial officials, the increased tension is tempered with familiarity and cordiality. Concerns range from warriors harassing colonists and stealing food to whites selling liquor to the Catawba and stealing their horses.

By 1730 the settler population of South Carolina had risen to about 30,000. The greatest concentration of settlers continued to be in the vicinity of Charles Town, but settlers had also fanned out to other areas of the coastal plain. In particular, the settlers sought out the numerous tidal swamps at the margins of rivers, where conditions were ideal for growing rice. The cultivation of rice began in South Carolina in the 1680s and, in the decades after 1700, became the colony's richest economic activity. Charles Town was one of the busiest ports of North America as rice and other products were exported to Great Britain and the West Indies. For the most part, rice was grown on large plantations by slave labor; by 1708 blacks outnumbered whites in South Carolina. Slave labor was also essential to the cultivation of a second major staple crop, indigo, a source of dye, which began to be grown commercially in the 1740s.

In the 1730s pioneers began to settle in the so-called middle country of South Carolina, the hilly region between the low country and the Fall Line. In the 1750s settlement began in the Piedmont region between the Fall Line and the mountains. Various European groups were represented in the middle country and upcountry, including Germans, Welsh, Swiss, and Scots-Irish. Some of these settlers came directly from Europe and others from American colonies such as Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina. By 1775 these backcountry settlers constituted about half of the province's white population.

Life in the South Carolina backcountry in the 18th century was in sharp contrast to life in the low country. The smaller farm, rather than the plantation, was typical in the backcountry. Few farmers had slaves, and a large part of a farmer's produce was likely to be consumed by himself and his family. The wealth and European culture that characterized Charles Town in the 18th century found little comparison in the settlements of the backcountry. Presbyterians, not the Anglican Church, dominated the area.

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Pennsylvania

Early Explorations and Settlements

Much of present-day Pennsylvania was originally included in the land grant for the Virginia colony given in 1606 to the London Company. About 1615 and 1616 French and Dutch explorers traveled parts of Pennsylvania. Étienne Brûlé of France claimed to have explored the Susquehanna River from the north, while Dutch Captain Cornelius Hendricksen sailed up the Delaware River to its junction with the Schuylkill River. The Dutch, with headquarters on Manhattan Island, established a trading post on the Schuylkill in 1633.

Swedes established the first permanent settlement in Pennsylvania. They had already founded a colony, New Sweden, on the western shore of Delaware Bay, and in 1643 they moved the colony's capital to Tinicum Island near present-day Philadelphia. The Dutch captured New Sweden in 1655 in a contest over control of Delaware Bay and annexed it to their colony of New Netherland. In 1664 the British captured New Netherland, renaming the entire region New York. From this area the colonies of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware were later formed.

Colonial Period

Penn's Letter to the Indians

In 1681 William Penn, an English Quaker, was granted territory in North America by King Charles II. This land was named Pennsylvania. Penn planned a city on this territory and named it Philadelphia, which in Greek means "brotherly love." Perhaps the name was fitting, for soon after receiving the land Penn wrote a letter to the Native American chiefs in the area asking for their friendship. He tells them that he is sensitive to the "unkindness and injustice that hath been too much exercised towards you" by other settlers. In contrast, Penn says he wants to live "peaceably … with you." Indeed, Penn's short tenure in the colony was noted for democratic government and for peace with the native peoples.

Founding of Pennsylvania

William Penn William Penn, an English Quaker who had been imprisoned for his beliefs, founded the colony of Pennsylvania in 1682 with a grant of territory he received from King Charles II of England. The constitution he drew up gave colonists freedom of worship and a voice in the colony's government.Culver Pictures

The founder of Pennsylvania was William Penn, the son of the wealthy English Admiral Sir William Penn. The younger Penn was a rebellious youth who became a free thinker and joined the Society of Friends, or Quakers. When his father died in 1670, Penn inherited a sizable fortune, which he soon began to use to help his fellow Quakers escape religious persecution in England.

Penn helped create a Quaker colony in New Jersey, which encouraged him to seek a colony of his own. As payment of a debt the king owed to Penn's father, Penn asked King Charles II for a portion of the New York colony. The king, happy to be rid of both the debt and the Quakers, consented. On March 4, 1681, the king signed a charter that made Penn proprietor of

Pennsylvania, a name chosen to honor the elder Penn. The grant included much of present-day Pennsylvania. Penn later asked for and received the Lower Counties, now Delaware.

Calling his settlement the Holy Experiment, Penn promised religious toleration and participation in lawmaking to anyone who wished to settle there. In response to Penn's advertisements, English, Welsh, and Dutch Quakers migrated to the colony. They settled much of the area within 40 km (25 mi) of Philadelphia, which was laid out in 1682 at Penn's request by Thomas Holme, the colony's surveyor general. Early in the 1700s a large influx of Germans arrived, many of them members of such persecuted religious groups as the Amish, Mennonites, and Schwenkfeldians, followers of Kaspar Schwenkfeld von Ossig, a dissident 16th-century theologian. They settled the rich farmland between Philadelphia and the Blue Mountains, a region that later became known as Pennsylvania Dutch country (Dutch was a corruption of the word Deutsch, meaning "German").

Beginning about 1718, large numbers of Scots-Irish arrived, and by the 1740s they had settled the mountain valleys beyond the German belt. Many people from Virginia, Maryland, and Connecticut also settled land that, after boundary adjustments, became part of Pennsylvania. The colony grew rapidly, from about 20,000 inhabitants in 1700 to 300,000 in 1776. Many different nationalities and religions were represented, but the major groups remained geographically separate, with the English in the east, Germans in the middle, and Scots-Irish in the west.

Colonial Government

Penn first visited his colony in 1682. The capital had been established at Upland, which Penn renamed Chester. He later named Philadelphia, which was then under construction, as his capital.

By the terms of the king's charter, the only limit on Penn's authority in the colony was the right of a popular assembly to veto his laws. However, Penn was determined to bring the settlers into the government. His liberal Frame of Government, a written contract between himself as proprietor and the Pennsylvania colonists, was approved by the assembly in 1683, then revised that same year to give the settlers even more voice in the government. Under the new constitution, Penn shared the power to make laws with an elected council, which formed the upper house of the legislature. The assembly, or lower house, had the power to veto or approve laws proposed by the council. The Frame of Government guaranteed freedom of worship, protection of property, and trial by jury, and granted a role in government to Christian men over the age of 21 who possessed some property or paid a personal tax.

From 1692 until 1694, Penn's right to govern the colony was revoked by the English monarchs, William III and Queen Mary, who doubted his loyalty. Penn had been a close friend of King James II, who had been overthrown and replaced on the throne by William and Mary. The royal governor of New York governed Pennsylvania as well until the monarchs were convinced of Penn's loyalty and restored his authority.

Quarrels between the two houses of the legislature prompted Penn to alter the government in 1696, giving the assembly full power to initiate legislation. Finally, in 1701, Penn prepared the Charter of Privileges, which remained in force until 1776. Under the charter, the council ceased to have a part in legislation, and the assembly expanded so that it became more representative of the people's interests. The assembly, independent of the governor, scheduled its sessions. The charter also allowed Delaware to form its own assembly, which it did in 1703.

After Penn's death in 1718, his second wife, Hannah Callowhill Penn, controlled the colony until her death in 1727. Control then passed to three of Penn's sons, John, Thomas, and Richard Penn. John Penn drifted away from Quakerism, and the other two sons joined the Anglican Church. In the 1730s the Quakers, who controlled the provincial assembly, began a political contest with the Penns that was to last for decades. They organized as the Antiproprietary Party and sought the support of the prosperous Germans. The Quakers refused to appropriate money for military defense, wished to tax the lands the Penns held as proprietors, and tried to convert Pennsylvania into a royal colony. The Penns, mobilizing their supporters into the Proprietary Party, demanded appropriations for colonial defense and formed an alliance with the Scots-Irish, who desired better representation in the assembly and protection from raids by Native Americans on the western frontier.

One of the major figures in Pennsylvania and early American history arrived in Philadelphia in 1723. Benjamin Franklin, a printer and newspaper editor from Boston, would soon become a powerful figure in the colony's politics, as well as a noted author, scientist, and philosopher.

Expansion and Land Conflicts

The powerful and highly organized Iroquois Confederacy, which acted as an overlord of other Native American groups in Pennsylvania, usually dealt with the colony's leaders on issues that affected the Shawnee and Delaware. The colonists welcomed the Iroquois's influence and saw them as an ally against the French in Canada during the 17th and 18th centuries.

In 1737 the Iroquois's agent in Pennsylvania, Chief John Shikellamy, helped the Pennsylvania government take over much of the Delaware and Shawnee land in the so-called Walking Purchase, which granted the colonists a strip of land defined by how far a man could walk in a day and a half. By Native American custom, this meant about 50 km (30 mi), but the colonists used trained athletes to claim 100 km (60 mi), covering nearly all of the Delaware homeland. When the Delaware protested, the Iroquois humiliated them and told them to leave the region. Filled with resentment over the fraudulent land deal, many of the Shawnee and Delaware migrated to western Pennsylvania and Ohio and became allies of the French, who promised them a chance for revenge against the British and colonists.

In 1754 the Pennsylvania colonists signed another treaty with the Iroquois to purchase a large tract of land west of the Susquehanna. The land was occupied by the Shawnee, Delaware, and Seneca, one of the Iroquois tribes, but their protests were ignored. The two deals set the stage for the dispossessed native groups to join the French and attack the colonies in the French and Indian War (1754-1763).

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Rhode Island

Exploration and Settlement

Roger Williams, an English religious nonconformist, founded the American colony of Rhode Island in the 1630s under the principles of religious freedom and the separation of church and state. Williams's example contributed to the adoption of a system of religious tolerance by the framers of the Constitution of the United States.

The first European known to have explored the Rhode Island area was the Italian navigator Giovanni da Verrazzano. He sailed into Narragansett Bay in 1524, exploring its coasts and islands and finding large Narragansett and Wampanoag settlements. The Dutch navigator Adriaen Block explored Block Island and the coastal areas of the mainland in 1614, and Dutch fur traders were active in the region. In the next few years, epidemics decimated the Native American people throughout New England; the Wampanoag suffered heavy losses.

In 1635 William Blackstone, an Anglican clergyman, left Boston to seek solitude and settled at the site of Valley Falls, in an area that was then part of the Massachusetts Bay colony. A year later, a Puritan minister, Roger Williams, became the first European to establish an independent, permanent settlement in the Rhode Island region.

Williams had lived in the Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth colonies, but came into conflict with the Puritan authorities there. An outspoken advocate of religious freedom, he challenged some of the civil and religious restrictions in the colonies. In January 1636 he was forced to flee Massachusetts to avoid deportation to England. He found refuge among the Wampanoag, whose chief, Massasoit, was his friend. Massasoit gave him a tract of land east of the Seekonk River, and Williams, together with friends from Salem, settled at the site of the present-day Rumford, in East Providence. However, the authorities of the Plymouth Colony had jurisdiction over the area and forced the dissenters to move across the river to land controlled by the Narragansett. The Narragansett sachems, Canonicus and Miantonomi, gave Williams a large grant of land, and he established Providence, Rhode Island's first permanent white settlement, in 1636.

Williams was highly respected by the Native Americans. Unlike many colonists, he viewed them as fellow human beings, not as savages. He learned their language and dealt fairly and honestly with them, insisting that settlers must compensate the native people rather than seize their lands. In turn, the native groups not only accepted the colonists but encouraged settlement. The Wampanoag and Narragansett were traditional rivals, and each tribe viewed the settlers as potential allies against the other. The settlers also created a buffer against the more aggressive colonies in Massachusetts. When war broke out in 1637 between the Pequot and colonists in Connecticut, the Narragansett aided the settlers, and the Pequot were nearly annihilated. In 1638 Williams and 12 other settlers formed the Proprietors' Company for Providence Plantations to share the land deeded by the Narragansett.

Also in 1638, a separate group of colonists, led by John Clarke, William Coddington, and Anne Hutchinson, arrived from Massachusetts. Like Williams, the group had been banished from Massachusetts because of political and religious disputes with the Puritan establishment. Hutchinson preached a doctrine of salvation that was considered an attack on the moral and legal

codes of the Massachusetts colony and led to her exile. Williams helped the group obtain land from the Narragansett at the northern end of Aquidneck Island, where they founded Pocasset, later renamed Portsmouth. Differences arose between factions headed by Hutchinson and Coddington, and in 1639 Coddington's supporters moved to the southern part of Aquidneck Island, where they established the settlement of Newport. The next year the two island communities united in a federation and chose Coddington as governor. Aquidneck was renamed Rhode Island in 1644.

A fourth independent settlement, Shawomet, was founded in 1642 by Samuel Gorton, a man of radical religious views. Having quarreled with authorities at Boston and Plymouth, he came to the Rhode Island settlements, but also fell into disputes in Portsmouth, Newport, Providence, and the settlement adjoining Providence called Pawtuxet. Gorton and a group of supporters then bought a tract of land south of Providence, the Shawomet Purchase, from Narragansett chiefs. But Pawtuxet settlers and local Narragansett disputed the sale and appealed to Massachusetts authorities. In 1643 Massachusetts sent troops to seize Gorton and his followers, who were tried for blasphemy and other offenses. Narrowly escaping a death sentence, Gorton and several others were imprisoned for several months, then banished from Massachusetts. Gorton went to England to appeal for protection for his settlement, and obtained a guarantee of protection from a parliamentary commission headed by the earl of Warwick. The grateful Gorton returned in 1648 to the settlement, which he renamed Warwick.

The Settlements Unite

Massachusetts and Plymouth continued to threaten the Rhode Island settlements, partly because they served as a refuge for religious dissenters from those Puritan colonies. To prevent interference in the settlements' affairs, in 1644 Williams obtained a charter from Parliament that provided a legal basis for the settlements' existence. Under the terms of the charter, Providence, Newport, and Portsmouth were incorporated as Providence Plantations. Although Warwick was not included in the charter, freeholders from that settlement joined in the first recorded meeting of the colony's general assembly, at Portsmouth in May 1647.

In 1651 the affairs of the infant colony were disrupted when Coddington obtained a charter establishing the separate colony of Aquidneck, which included Aquidneck and Conanicut islands. Under the terms of the charter, the conservative and theocratic Coddington was to serve as governor of Aquidneck for life. Williams and John Clarke went immediately to England and succeeded in getting Coddington's charter revoked in 1652. In 1654 the colony was reunited.

Charter of 1663

In 1660 the British monarchy was restored after a long civil war, and Charles II took the throne. With a new regime in power, Rhode Islanders were eager to have their independence reaffirmed and petitioned the king for a royal charter. Issued in 1663 through Clarke, the colony's agent in England, the charter incorporated the mainland and island of Rhode Island as Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. A liberal document, the charter permitted the colonists a large measure of self-government; the governor and many other officials were to be elected by the colonists, not appointed by the king. The charter also guaranteed "full liberty in religious concernments" in the colony, continuing the policy of religious liberty that had prevailed from the outset in the Rhode Island settlements. Throughout the colonial period, members of religious sects, such as Jews and Quakers, who were persecuted in other colonies enjoyed complete freedom of worship in Rhode Island.

The charter of 1663 remained in effect almost continuously until 1843. It was suspended only from 1686 to 1689, when Rhode Island was absorbed into the short-lived Dominion of New England, a colony that incorporated most of New England under the control of royal governor Edmund Andros.

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Virginia

Explorers and Early Settlers

The first European to see Virginia may have been John Cabot, who reached the North American coast for England in 1497 and may have explored it the next year. The Italian Giovanni da Verrazzano explored the coast for France in 1524. In 1570 the Spanish started a religious mission on the Rappahannock River near the site of Fredericksburg, but Native Americans wiped it out.

In 1606 King James I of England granted to two commercial companies the right to colonize Virginia, a name the English used broadly to describe the Atlantic coast of North America. One company, the Virginia Company of London, dispatched a fleet of three ships, the Susan Constant, the Goodspeed, and the Discovery, under the command of Captain Christopher Newport. The ships headed toward the general location of an earlier, unsuccessful “Virginia” colony, the Second Roanoke Island colony of 1587. The site of that colony is now in the state of North Carolina.

After four months at sea, the voyagers explored the coast north of the old colonial site and found the vast, attractive inlet of Chesapeake Bay. Entering the bay, they sailed up a river they named the James. In May 1607 they landed on a swampy peninsula and erected Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in America.

Jamestown

The Earliest Days of Virginia

Settlers in the British colony of Jamestown in Virginia struggled for survival after the colony was established in May 1607. The council that led Jamestown was unable to deal effectively with the colony’s problems, partly because of rivalries among its members. After colonist Edward Maria Wingfield had served several months as president of the group, the council judged him incompetent and removed him from office. Wingfield wrote this first-hand account of the famine, disease, and fire that struck Jamestown in the months after the settlers arrived. According to Wingfield, Native Americans aided the settlers by giving them corn and meat when their provisions reached a low point. Seventeenth-century conventions of spelling, grammar, and usage in this account have not been modified.

The settlers could not adapt to frontier conditions and support themselves from the land. Starvation and illness took their toll. In addition, although most of the Powhatan had at first been friendly, they soon reacted to the settlers’ unprovoked attacks on them and began harassing the fort and ambushing foraging parties. The company, determined to profit from its investment, continually sent supplies and men to replace the dead and dying. Most of the newcomers—thousands of them—also perished, but the colony somehow survived.

Jamestown was first governed by a council of seven appointed by the company, one of whom served as president. These councilors failed to provide proper leadership, quarreling among themselves and plotting against one another. The election of Captain John Smith as president in September 1608 brought some firm guidance to the colony, but Smith was forced to return to England the next year for medical treatment of an injury.

Under a new charter, granted in 1609, the company replaced Jamestown's council with a strong governor, naming Thomas West, Baron De La Warr, to the post. Sir Thomas Gates was dispatched from England to serve as deputy governor until De La Warr, who was buying supplies and recruiting more settlers, could arrive. On the way to Virginia, Gates's ship was wrecked by a hurricane in Bermuda, where Gates and his shipmates spent the winter. Meanwhile, the 500 colonists in Jamestown underwent what they called the Starving Time, when most of them perished from hunger and illness. Gates built two new ships and finally reached Jamestown in May 1610. He found only about 60 settlers still alive.

Captain Smith Rescued by Pocahontas

In 1608 English explorer and colonizer John Smith became president of the Jamestown settlement, located in what is now Virginia. Smith organized trade with the Native Americans and began explorations to map the area. Smith said that on one trip, he was captured by the Powhatan people. In his historical narrative Generall Historie of Virginia (1624), Smith writes that the Powhatan were about to execute him when chief Powhatan's daughter Matoaka, nicknamed Pocahontas, saved him. However, Smith did not tell of this in his earlier reports, and many historians doubt this story.

Just as Jamestown was about to be abandoned, De La Warr arrived and reorganized the colony, imposing martial law. Starvation and disease persisted, but supplies and more colonists arrived and new settlements grew along the James River.

In 1614 Sir Thomas Dale, the acting governor, vitalized the colony by permitting men to farm for their own profit. Previously all property had been communally owned and agriculture was unsuccessful. Men turned enthusiastically to planting and, because colonist John Rolfe in 1612 had found a way to eliminate the strong, bitter taste of Virginia tobacco, the settlers finally had a source of wealth. Settlers began to grow tobacco everywhere, even in the streets of Jamestown. The marriage of Rolfe to Pocahontas, daughter of Powhatan, the chief of the Powhatan Confederacy, in 1614 assured peace with the Native Americans for a time.

Another new charter, in 1618, laid the foundation for self-government. Under its provisions a two-chambered legislature, the General Assembly, first met in 1619. One chamber was the Council of State, appointed by the London Company; the other was the House of Burgesses, the Western Hemisphere's first democratically elected body.

In 1622, Powhatan and Pocahontas having both died, Powhatan's successor Opechancanough led an assault on the colony. The attack came over a 225-km (140-mi) front, and about 350 colonists were killed, including six members of the council. John Rolfe was probably one of the murdered council members. This so-called Great Massacre ended a plan by the colonists to convert and educate the Native Americans. The colonists began a war of extermination against them.

The Royal Colony Period

In 1624 the company was dissolved and Virginia was made a royal colony, ruled by a governor appointed by the king of England. At that time Virginia claimed territory from present-day Pennsylvania to Florida and west to the Pacific Ocean. Very little of that claimed area was actually controlled or even explored. In 1629 the southern part was granted to another proprietor and named Carolana; in 1665 the grant was expanded to include—as Carolina—all the land south of Currituck Inlet. In 1632 Lord Baltimore received the area north of the Potomac River as

a proprietorship. The Virginians were incensed by the grant to Lord Baltimore and, for this and other provocations, rose against their tyrannical governor, Sir John Harvey. He was arrested and deported to England, but was reinstated in 1637.

Opechancanough and the Powhatan made another synchronized assault in 1644 and killed about 500 settlers. However, the English ultimately captured Opechancanough and brought him to Jamestown, where a vengeful soldier killed him with a shot in the back. His successor sued for peace and agreed to withdraw above the James and York rivers. As the English settlements grew, the Native Americans moved westward. Those who remained were put on reservations.

Virginia remained loyal to the king during the civil war in England, which began in 1642, and gave asylum to fugitive supporters of the monarchy, or Cavaliers, hundreds of whom settled in the colony. Virginia refused to recognize the new English Commonwealth government of Oliver Cromwell until coerced by an armed English fleet in 1652. When the Commonwealth collapsed in 1660 and King Charles II took the throne, he is said to have referred to Virginia as the Old Dominion in gratitude for its loyalty. That became Virginia's nickname.

Bacon's Rebellion

Bacon's Rebellion In 1676 settlers led by planter Nathaniel Bacon fought Virginia's colonial government for failing to protect them from raids by the Susquehannock people.. During the rebellion, settlers marched on Jamestown and burned the colonial capital. The rebellion faded later that year after Bacon died from disease.

Charles's colonial policy, however, soon generated grievances in Virginia. He strictly enforced the Navigation Acts, which restricted colonial trade exclusively to England. This severely limited the tobacco market, particularly affecting the small farmers in Virginia. In addition, Governor Sir William Berkeley failed to call elections from 1661 to 1676, thus keeping a small privileged group of older families in power without popular support.

In 1676 Berkeley refused to raise a militia in response to rumors that Native Americans were about to attack the frontier settlements again. The farmers organized their own militia under the leadership of Councilor Nathaniel Bacon. In June 1676 the farmers' long-seething discontent erupted in Bacon's Rebellion. Bacon and his followers deposed Berkeley, who was forced to flee, and burned Jamestown to the ground. The rebellion collapsed when Bacon died unexpectedly of fever. Berkeley returned to power and hanged many of Bacon's followers without trial. Berkeley was succeeded by a number of governors who staunchly supported royal policies.

The 18th Century

Prosperity and Expansion

In 1700 Virginia's capital was moved from Jamestown to Williamsburg. During the 18th century the tobacco industry flourished, based on the use of black slaves. By 1700 Virginia was the largest English colony, with a population of about 58,000.

Tobacco exhausts the soil after several crops, and the constant need for new land to replace exhausted soil encouraged a slow movement westward. This movement was quickened by the

arrival of new immigrants from Europe and by the exodus from the Tidewater region of small farmers, who could not compete with the large tobacco plantations and their slave labor.

Plantation Management

How were slaves in the Southern United States treated? Were they subjected at all times to the whip and harshness? Here, Richard Corbin, owner of several plantations in Virginia in the mid-1700s, tells his agent, James Semple, to make sure that the overseers “enforce obedience by the example of their own industry.” Better crops will be achieved this way than through “Hurry & Severity,” he says. Corbin discusses the management of the plantation’s tobacco crop, corn provisions, and cattle—as well as the treatment of the slaves—in this letter, written in 1759.

In 1716 Governor Alexander Spotswood led an expedition over the Blue Ridge Mountains into the Shenandoah Valley. Glowing reports of the valley spread, and settlers moved in, many of them from Pennsylvania. Tidewater planters formed the first Ohio Company in 1747 to promote Virginia’s expansion. Settlers moved farther west, over the Allegheny Mountains toward the Ohio River, where they came into conflict with the French. Virginians took an active part in the French and Indian War (1754-1763) between France and Great Britain, and George Washington rose to prominence as commander of the Virginia forces.

The Treaty of Paris in 1763 ended French influence in the area, but in that year Britain aimed at avoiding Native American trouble by barring white settlement beyond the Appalachian Mountains. The prohibition was generally ignored, even by Virginia’s governor, John Murray, earl of Dunmore. He started a retaliatory action, called Lord Dunmore’s War, against Native Americans who were raiding settlers in the prohibited area. The war ended October 10, 1774, with a victory over the Shawnee people at Point Pleasant (now in West Virginia). The battle assured peace along Virginia’s western frontier during most of the American Revolution.

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