

DOMAIN I

UNITED STATES HISTORY

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PERSONALIZED STUDY PLAN



SKILL	
1.1: Physical geography of North America	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.2: Native American peoples	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.3: European exploration and colonization	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.4: American Revolution	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.5: Establishing a new nation	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.6: Early years of the new nation	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.7: Continued national development	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.8: Civil War era	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.9: Emergence of the modern United States	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.10: Progressive era and the First World War through the New Deal	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.11: Second World War	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.12: Post-Second World War period	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.13: Recent developments	<input type="checkbox"/>

SKILL Physical geography of North America 1.1

See Skills 1.2, 1.3, and 1.7

SKILL Native American peoples 1.2

Tribes of North America

Native American tribes that lived throughout North America had a variety of diverse customs, different avenues of agriculture and food gathering, and variations in weapons. Their cultures were established long before European explorers arrived.

Northeastern tribes

One of the first tribes to interact with newly arrived English settlers in Plymouth, Massachusetts, was the **Wampanoag**. They were one of the Algonquian-speaking people who lived in the area from Virginia north to Hudson Bay and west to the Rocky Mountains. Their language, known as Anishinaabe or Ojibwe, became the language used for trade around the Great Lakes. The French were heavily involved in the fur trade with them.

The **Algonquians**, in what is now Canada in the Upper St. Lawrence Valley, lived in wigwams and wore clothing made from animal skins. They were proficient hunters, gatherers, and trappers. They mostly lived too far north for agriculture, although those who lived south developed corn and other crops. Conflicts with the **Iroquois** had driven them out of the Adirondack Mountains and the upper Hudson Valley.

Squanto, a Wampanoag who had been taken captive and sent to England, returned and shared his knowledge of agriculture with the English settlers; this included how to plant and cultivate corn, pumpkins, and squash.

Other famous Algonquians included **Pocahontas** and her father, **Powhatan**, both of whom are immortalized in English literature, and **Tecumseh** and **Black Hawk**, known foremost for their fierce fighting ability. The French, Dutch, and British supplied the Algonquians with firearms.

Algonquians contributed wampum (made into belts to keep records) to the Native American culture, and they celebrated the first harvest with the Pilgrims, creating the first Thanksgiving.

Powhatan



Detail from *A Map of Virginia* by Captain John Smith, 1612.

THREE SISTERS: the collective name for corn, squash, and beans, three important crops for Native Americans

Another group of tribes who lived in the Northeast were the **Iroquois**, who were fierce fighters and forward thinkers. They lived in longhouses and wore clothes made of buckskin. They, too, were expert farmers, growing the “**THREE SISTERS**” (corn, squash, and beans). Five of the Iroquois tribes formed a confederacy that was a shared form of government. The **False Face Society** was composed of a group of medicine men who shared their medical knowledge with others but kept their identities secret while doing so. Their wooden masks are an enduring symbol of the Native American era.

Southeastern tribes

Living in the Southeast were the **Seminoles** and **Creeks**, a huge collection of people who lived in chickees (open, thatch-covered houses) and wore clothes made from plant fibers. They were expert planters and hunters and were proficient at paddling dugout canoes, which they made. Their bead necklaces are considered by some to be the most beautiful on the continent. They are best known, however, for their struggle against Spanish and English settlers, especially led by the great **Osceola**.

The **Cherokee** also lived in the Southeast. One of the most advanced tribes, they lived in domed houses and wore deerskin and rabbit fur. Accomplished hunters, farmers, and fishermen, the Cherokee were known for their intricate and beautiful basketry and clay pottery. They also played a game called lacrosse, which survives to this day in countries around the world.

The Plains tribes

Between the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, on the Great Plains, lived the Plains tribes, including the **Sioux**, **Cheyenne**, **Blackfeet**, **Comanche**, and **Pawnee**. When traveling, they lived in east-facing teepees made of buffalo hides, but in their villages near the streams, their homes were earth lodges. Their clothing was made from buffalo skins and deerskin. They hunted for elk, deer, and especially the buffalo. They were well known for many ceremonies, including the Sun Dance, and for war pipes and peace pipes. Some notable Plains people include **Crazy Horse** and **Sitting Bull**, authors of Gen. George Armstrong Custer’s defeat at Little Bighorn, and **Sacagawea**, guide for the Lewis and Clark expedition.

Southwestern tribes

The Pueblo

Dotting the deserts of the Southwest was (and still is) a handful of tribes, including the **Acoma**, **Hopi**, **Zuni**, and **Taos**, all of whom are **Pueblo**. Their homes were made of stone or adobe. Clothing was woven from wool and cotton. Their

agriculture included growing beans and domesticating turkeys; over time, they came to raise other livestock as well. One interesting cultural practice still around today are **KACHINA DOLLS**, which are given to children; the Kachina are spirits that bring rain and social good.

KACHINA DOLLS: dolls representing spirits that bring rain and social good

In 1680, a Pueblo revolt drove the Spanish out of their territories, but the Spanish reconquered them several years later. Mexican domination lasted until the close of the Mexican War, when the United States took over—and then created reservations. Pueblos are perhaps best known for the challenging vista-based villages constructed from the sheer faces of cliffs and rocks and for their adobes, mud-brick buildings that housed (and continue to house) living and meeting quarters.

Other Southwestern tribes

Another well-known southwestern tribe was the **Apache**, with their famous leader **Geronimo**. The Apache lived in homes called wickiups, which were made of bark, grass, and branches. The Apache wore cotton clothing and were excellent hunters and gatherers. Adept at basketry, the Apache believed that everything in nature had special powers and that they were honored just to be part of it all.

The **Navajo**, also residents of the Southwest, lived (and continue to live) in hogans (round homes built with forked sticks) and wore clothes of deer and rabbit skins. Their major contribution to the overall culture of the continent was in sand painting, weapon making, silversmithing, and weaving. The Navajo are known for crafting beautiful hand-woven rugs.

Northwestern Tribes

The **Northwest Coastal** tribes lived in what is now Alaska, down the coast of the Pacific Ocean to Northern California. They lived in rectangular houses constructed of cedar planks, which would be home to thirty or more people. Clothing included rain capes made from cedar. Totem poles were a mode of communication. **Chief Joseph**, the famous Nez Perce leader, tried to lead his people to Canada when they had been ordered to a reservation, and he is famous for his moving speech of surrender when the still-living among his people were trapped by the U.S. Army.

Alaska and Arctic Canada continue to be populated by the **Inuit**. Often, their homes were igloos or tents made from animal skins. Their clothes were made of animal skins, usually seal or caribou. They were excellent fishermen and hunters, crafted efficient kayaks and umiaks to take them through waterways, and made harpoons with which to hunt animals. Inuit art includes carvings from stone, whalebone, and walrus tusk, a craft extended from the creation of tools, weapons, and utensils.

SKILL 1.3 European exploration and colonization

See also Skill 2.5

AGE OF EXPLORATION:

also known as the Age of Discovery, this period is marked by European world exploration and is defined as beginning in the early fifteenth century and continuing into the seventeenth century

FIRST CRUSADE:

the first war waged by Christians to regain control of Jerusalem and other areas in the region; it began in 1095 CE

The **AGE OF EXPLORATION** had its beginnings centuries before exploration actually took place. However, it is defined as beginning in the early fifteenth century and continuing into the seventeenth century. It is also known as the **Age of Discovery**, and it refers to European world exploration, derived from technologies for navigation, mapmaking, and advanced shipbuilding.

European Background to the Age of Exploration

The Crusades

Prior to the period of European expansion, the rise and spread of Islam in the seventh century and its subsequent control over Jerusalem led to Pope Urban II deciding to embark on the **FIRST CRUSADE** in 1095 CE. The First Crusade resulted in Christian control of Jerusalem and other areas in the region for about two hundred years—the first western control of the region since the fall of the Roman Empire. The First Crusade marks the first organized violence against Jews. The Crusaders believed that Jews and Muslims ideally would be converted to Christianity. The Crusades, as they continued, were a political extension of Christendom.

The Rise of Italian states

As the **Byzantium Empire** declined, and Italy's city-states of **Florence**, **Genoa**, and **Venice** became wealthy from trade with Asia—spices, salt, and other luxury items. Merchant-bankers became a new rising social group who encouraged learning. A result of the decline of the Byzantium Empire was the immigration of merchants, scholars, and priests to Western Europe—along with many of the Byzantium artistic and literary treasures. One consequence was intellectual stimulation that led to the Renaissance—which began in Italy about 1300 CE.

During the ninth to twelfth centuries CE, Venice was the naval and commercial power of Europe. By the late 1200s, Venice was the most prosperous city in Europe, and it held the most valuable trade with the Muslim world. The Venetian **Marco Polo** wrote about his travels and experiences in the East. Survivors of the Crusades had made their way home from the Middle East bringing with them fascinating information about exotic lands, people, and customs, and desired foods and goods such as spices and silks.

Between sea voyages on the Indian Ocean and Mediterranean Sea and the camel caravans in central Asia and the Arabian Desert, the Italian merchants in Genoa and Venice controlled trade. Notably, the trade routes between Europe and Asia were slow, difficult, dangerous, and very expensive.

The black plague and the Renaissance

In the mid-1300s, two-thirds of the nomad Mongol population along the western trade routes came down with the **BLACK PLAGUE**. In the East, it killed two-thirds of the Chinese population. Merchants from Genoa travelled in 1346 to the Black Sea ports, caught the plague, and brought it home to Europe in 1347. Sixty percent of the population of Venice died. Approximately twenty-five million Europeans from a population of forty million died. By 1349, one-third of the people of the Islamic world were also dead from the black plague.

The Mongol deaths contributed to the fall of the **Mongol Empire**. The Ottoman Turks, meanwhile, were not as affected by the plague, and so the **Ottoman Empire** began to grow, while in Europe, government, trade, and commerce virtually ground to a halt.

While Jews became scapegoats for the plague, the Roman Catholic Church was also tested when people prayed in their churches and made donations, yet still lost their families to the plague. Thousands of priests and monks also died, and many people believed that God was punishing the Church.

Literate survivors in Italy began to look backward to Classical (and pagan) Rome and Greece. This inspired a renewed interest in Classical Greek culture, including:

- Art
- Architecture
- Literature
- Science
- Astronomy
- Medicine

The chaos that resulted from the plague contributed to the beginning of the **RENAISSANCE**.

Printing and navigation

Johannes Gutenberg invented the printing press in 1440 CE, and, by 1499, fifteen million books with 30,000 different titles had been published. Among those books was Ptolemy's *Geography*, which Ptolemy had first published in Egypt in 2 CE. With the advent of the printing press, numerous new maps were included in the book when it was reprinted in 1477. Maps, thus, began to reach the populace.

BLACK PLAGUE: a deadly disease that was spread through trade routes in the 14th century and killed a huge number of people worldwide

RENAISSANCE: this period, named after the French word for "rebirth," is marked by a re-emergence of culture after the Dark Ages and the devastation of the black plague

Just as Ptolemy had been influenced by **Hipparchus** of Greece (120–190 BCE)—who had catalogued the positions of the stars—geographers, astronomers and mapmakers of the Renaissance studied and applied the works of **Hipparchus and Ptolemy**. Notable figures in this field included the astronomer **Tycho Brahe** of Denmark and the Venetian mapmaker **Fra Mauro**.

For many centuries, maps and charts had stimulated curiosity in the West. At the same time, the Chinese were using the magnetic compass in their ships; Pacific islanders were going from island to island covering thousands of miles in open canoes navigating by sun and stars; and Arab traders were sailing all over the Indian Ocean in their **dhow**s.

The Age of Exploration

These advancements in printing and navigation technologies combined with the restabilization of European culture caused the Age of Exploration to begin in earnest. By 1415, **Prince Henry of Portugal** (also called the “Navigator”) encouraged, supported, and financed the Portuguese seamen who led in the search for an all-water route to Asia. A shipyard was built along with a school for teaching navigation. New types of sailing ships were built that would carry seamen safely through the ocean waters. Experiments were conducted with newer maps, newer navigational methods, and newer instruments. These included the **astrolabe** and the **compass**, enabling sailors to determine direction, as well as **latitude** and **longitude** for exact location.

Reaching the East

Although Prince Henry died in 1460, the Portuguese kept on sailing and exploring Africa’s west coastline. In 1488, **Bartholomew Diaz** and his men sailed around Africa’s southern tip and headed toward Asia. Diaz wanted to push on but turned back because his men were discouraged and weary from the long months at sea. Extremely fearful of the unknown, they refused to travel any further. However, the Portuguese were finally successful 10 years later in 1498 when **Vasco da Gama** and his men, continuing the route of Diaz, rounded Africa’s Cape of Good Hope, sailing across the Indian Ocean, reaching India’s port of Calicut (Calcutta).

Just six years after **Christopher Columbus** had sailed on his first transatlantic voyage to try to prove his theory that Asia could be reached by sailing west, reaching the New World and an entire hemisphere instead, da Gama proved Asia could be reached from Europe by sea and began the 450 years of Portuguese colonization in India, Asia, and Africa.

Long after Spain had dispatched explorers and the famed conquistadors to gather the wealth for the Spanish monarchs and their coffers, the British were searching valiantly for the **NORTHWEST PASSAGE**, a land–sea route across North America and to the open sea that would lead to the wealth of Asia. It was not until after the Lewis and Clark Expedition that Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark proved conclusively that there simply was no Northwest Passage. It did not exist.

However, this did not deter exploration and settlement. Spain, France, and England, along with some participation by the Dutch, led the way in taking Western European civilization to the **NEW WORLD**. These three nations had strong monarchical governments and were struggling for dominance and power in Europe. Between its privateers and its defeat of Spain’s mighty *Armada* in 1588, England became the undisputed mistress of the seas. Spain lost its power and influence in Europe, and it was left to France and England to carry on their rivalry.

This search for passage to Asia led to eventual British control in Asia in what is now India, Pakistan, Kashmir, Sri Lanka, and Myanmar (formerly called Burma), the southern part of Yemen (formerly called Aden), the Malay Peninsula, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Kuwait.

European exploration of the New World

Columbus, a Genoan sailing for Spain, is credited with the discovery of America although he never set foot on its soil. *Magellan*, a Portuguese sailing for Spain, is credited with the first circumnavigation of the Earth. *Amerigo Vespucci*, from Florence and sailing for Spain and Portugal, recognized, unlike Columbus, that he was not in Asia when he came upon Brazil; the Americas were named after him. Other Spanish explorers made their marks in parts of what are now the United States, Mexico, and Central and South America. They included *Pizarro*, *Cortez*, *Ponce de Leon*, *Balboa*, *de Soto*, and *Coronado*.

For France, claims to various parts of North America were the result of the efforts of such men as *Champlain*, *Cartier*, *LaSalle*, *Father Marquette*, and *Joliet*. Dutch claims were based on the work of *Henry Hudson*. *John Cabot* gave England its stake in North America along with *John Hawkins*, *Sir Francis Drake*, and the half-brothers *Sir Walter Raleigh* and *Sir Humphrey Gilbert*.

Colonists from England, France, Holland, Sweden, and Spain all settled in North America, on lands populated by Native Americans. Spanish colonies were mainly in the south and west; French colonies were located in the extreme north and in the middle of the continent; and the rest of the European colonies were founded mainly in the northeast and along the Atlantic coast.

NORTHWEST PASSAGE:
a land–sea route across North America and to the open sea that would lead to the wealth of Asia

NEW WORLD: the term used by the Europeans to refer to the Americas during the Age of Exploration

British Colonies in the New World

The English colonies were divided generally into three regions: New England, Middle Atlantic, and Southern. The culture of each was distinct and affected attitudes, ideas toward politics, religion, and economic activities. The geography of each region also contributed to its unique characteristics.

New England

The **NEW ENGLAND** colonies consisted of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire. The vast majority of the settlers shared similar origins, coming from England and Scotland. Life in these colonies centered on the towns, because town boundaries would be drawn up as soon as some residents arranged to incorporate. The predominant form of government was the town meeting, where all adult males met to make the laws, and a board of selectmen had executive authority. The legislative body, the General Court, consisted of an upper and lower house.

The meadows where pilgrims first farmed in New England were actually the farms of Native Americans who died of smallpox and measles introduced by the colonists. In addition to using these meadows, the colonists cut down forest and cleared land for farming. Short summers made for short growing seasons. Additionally, the soil was generally not superior for farming. An average farm had twenty acres; corn was the leading crop. Fish was a dietary mainstay, and ground fishing became a New England industry. In addition, New Englanders exported furs and lumber, developed granite quarries, and ultimately developed a textile industry.

The Middle Atlantic colonies

The **MIDDLE** or **MIDDLE ATLANTIC COLONIES** included New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. New York and New Jersey were at one time the Dutch colony of New Netherland, and Delaware at one time was named New Sweden.

From their beginnings, these four colonies were made up of settlers from many different nations and backgrounds. The main economic activity was farming, and the settlers were scattered over the countryside cultivating their rather large farms. The Native Americans did not threaten the colonists here as much as in New England. The soil was very fertile, the land was gently rolling, and a milder climate provided a longer growing season. The farms produced a large surplus of food, which provided for the colonists themselves and was also used for export. This colonial region became known as the “breadbasket” of the New World, and the New York and Philadelphia seaports were constantly filled with ships being loaded with dried meat, wheat, flour, corn, beans, butter, and sheep and hogs bound for the West Indies in particular. At least half of all ships sailed to the

NEW ENGLAND: the colonies of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire

MIDDLE OR MIDDLE ATLANTIC COLONIES: the colonies of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware

Indies to feed the population whose only crop, in many cases, was sugar. The sugar was grown to make molasses, which was made into rum in the colonists' rum distilleries in Rhode Island and Massachusetts.

Other economic activities included shipbuilding, iron mining, and the production of items such as paper, glass, textiles, kettles, pots, pans, wrought iron, stove plates, nails, and wire so that these items did not need to be imported.

In the middle colonies, there was a standard government structure, including a royal governor, a governor's council, and a colonial legislature. The legislative body in Pennsylvania was unicameral, meaning it consisted of one house. In the other four colonies, the legislative body had two houses. Unlike in the New England colonies, church and government were separate.

Southern colonies

The **SOUTHERN COLONIES** were Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. Virginia was the first permanent successful English colony and Georgia was the last. The year 1619 was a very important year in the history of Virginia and the United States with three significant events:

1. Some sixty women were sent to Virginia to marry and establish families
2. About twenty Africans, the first of thousands, arrived to be slaves
3. Virginia colonists were granted the right to self-government, and they began electing their own representatives to the House of Burgesses, their own legislative body

SOUTHERN COLONIES: the colonies of Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia

SKILL American Revolution 1.4

European Struggle for Supremacy

After 1750 when England defeated its Armada, Spain was no longer the most powerful nation in Europe. The remaining rivalry was between Britain and France. They did not know how to coexist peacefully together; war was their solution. For nearly twenty-five years, between 1689 and 1748, these two powers had engaged in a series of armed conflicts. Those conflicts that were fought in North America are known as the **FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS**.

- The War of the League of Augsburg in Europe, 1689 to 1697, also called **King William's War** and the **Nine Years War**, took place mostly in Flanders, but became the first French and Indian War

The American Revolution, or War for Independence, was largely due to economic and political changes.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS: the name for the conflicts between the British and French colonial empires

- The War of the Spanish Succession, 1702 to 1713, also called **Queen Anne's War**, became the second French and Indian War
- The War of the Austrian Succession, 1740 to 1748, also called **King George's War**, was the third French and Indian War

Britain and France fought for possession of colonies—especially in Asia, the Caribbean, and North America—and for control of the seas. But none of these conflicts was decisive.

The final conflict, which decided once and for all who was the most powerful, was the fourth French and Indian War. In Europe where it began, it is known as the **Seven Years' War** and in Canada the **War of the Conquest**. No matter what name is used, this war caused over a million deaths and, in the twentieth century, Winston Churchill called it a world war because it took place in Europe, Asia, and North America. The result was the end of France's reign as a major colonial power in North America and in Great Britain becoming the dominant power in the world.

American Colonists in the French and Indian War

In America, both sides had advantages and disadvantages. The British colonies were well established and consolidated in a smaller area than the French settlements that were scattered over roughly half of the continent. In addition, British colonists outnumbered French colonists 23 to 1. But the French settlements were united under one government and were quick to act and cooperate when necessary, while the British colonies had separate, individual governments and seldom cooperated. In Europe, France was the more powerful of the two nations. In addition, the French had many more Native American allies than did the British.

Both sides had stunning victories and humiliating defeats. If one person could be given credit for British victory, it would have to be **William Pitt**. He was a strong leader, enormously energetic, supremely self-confident, and determined on complete British victory. Despite the advantages and military victories of the French, Pitt succeeded.

Pitt got rid of the incompetents in the army and replaced them with men who could do the job. He sent more troops to America, strengthened the British Navy, and gave the officers of the colonial militia equal rank to the British officers. In short, he saw to it that Britain took the offensive and kept it until they emerged victorious.

The British victory in Canada

Of all the British victories, perhaps the most crucial was winning Canada.

The French depended on the **ST. LAWRENCE RIVER** for transporting supplies, soldiers, and messages. The river was the link between New France and France. Tied into this waterway system were the connecting links of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River and its tributaries. Along the waterway system were scattered French forts, trading posts, and small settlements.

William Pitt ordered the bombardment of **Louisburg** on Cape Breton Island in 1758, and the British captured Louisburg. This gave the British Navy a base of operations and prevented French reinforcements and supplies from getting to their troops. Under Pitt's direction, other forts fell to the British, including:

- Frontenac
- Duquesne
- Crown Point
- Ticonderoga
- Niagara forts in the Upper Ohio Valley

Although Spain entered the war in 1762 to aid France, Quebec and finally Montreal fell to the British onslaught; the British victory was complete.

Peace and British Supremacy

In 1763, representatives from Spain, France, and Britain met in Paris to draw up the **Treaty of Paris**. Among Great Britain's prizes were most of India and all French territory in North America east of the Mississippi River, excluding New Orleans. Though Britain received control of Florida from Spain, control of Cuba and the islands of the Philippines were returned to the Spanish. France lost nearly all of its possessions in America and India but was allowed to keep islands in the Caribbean: Guadeloupe, Martinique, Haiti on Hispaniola, and St. Lucia. They also retained control of Miquelon and St. Pierre, a group of small islands off Newfoundland. France gave Spain New Orleans as well as the vast territory of Louisiana west of the Mississippi River.

Britain was now the most powerful nation on Earth.

The British Trade System

Where did this leave the British colonies? **Colonial militias** had fought with the British and benefited, as the militias and their officers gained much fighting experience. The thirteen colonies began to realize that cooperating with each other

ST. LAWRENCE RIVER:
the river that was the link
between New France and
France

*Of all the British victories,
perhaps the most crucial
was winning Canada.*

*British victories occurred
all around the world: in
India, in the Mediterranean,
and in Europe.*

was the best way to ensure their defense. This idea was reinforced with the eventual War for Independence and construction of a new national government.

By the end of the French and Indian War in 1763, Britain's American colonies numbered thirteen, and it had other colonies scattered around the world. Like all other countries, Britain strove to have a strong economy and a favorable balance of trade. That required wealth, self-sufficiency, and a powerful army and navy.

Imperial British legislation

The British colonies, with few exceptions, were considered commercial ventures, and their purpose was to make a profit for the Crown and for the financiers. The colonies would provide raw materials for the industries in England, and the colonies would be a market for finished products from England. The British built a strong merchant fleet to carry and protect their commodities, and this desire to dominate world trade led to the **NAVIGATION ACTS**.

Navigation Acts

Between 1607 and 1763, the British Parliament enacted different laws to assist in getting and keeping a favorable trade balance. One series of laws required that most manufacturing be done only in England. Another law prohibited exporting any wool or woolen cloth from the colonies and the manufacture of beaver hats or iron products. There were other acts, however, that had greater impact upon the colonies.

The **Navigation Acts of 1651** put restrictions on shipping and trade within the British Empire, banning foreign ships from transporting goods to its colonies and banning foreign ships from transporting goods from elsewhere in Europe to England. These laws were directly focused upon the Dutch, who were successful in international shipping.

Those trading within the empire were also required to utilize British ships. This increased the strength of the British merchant fleet and greatly benefited the American colonists. Since they were British citizens, they could own, build, and operate their own vessels. By the end of the French and Indian War, the shipyards in the colonies were building one-third of the merchant ships under the British flag. There were quite a number of wealthy merchants among the colonists.

The **Navigation Act of 1660** and the **Staple Act of 1663** required all European goods heading for the colonies to go through an English port first. A tax was charged that raised the prices and lengthened shipping times. Britain needed to not only protect itself from the competition of European rivals but to protect its merchant ships from enemy ships and pirates as well.

NAVIGATION ACTS: laws enacted between 1607 and 1763 to help Britain get and keep a favorable trade balance

The Buildup to Revolution

Triangular trade

The New England and Middle Atlantic colonies at first felt threatened by these laws since they had started producing many of the same products being produced in Britain. But they soon found new markets for their goods and began their own triangular trade.

Colonial vessels started the first part of the triangle by sailing for Africa, loaded with kegs of rum from colonial distilleries. On Africa's West Coast, the rum was traded for either gold or slaves. The second part of the triangle was from Africa to the West Indies, where slaves were traded for molasses, sugar, or money. The third part of the triangle was from the West Indies to home, bringing sugar or molasses to make rum and also gold and silver.

Failing British policy

The major concern of the British government was that this triangular trade violated the 1733 **MOLASSES ACT**. Planters in the British West Indies wanted the colonists to buy all of their molasses, but these islands could provide the traders with only about one-eighth of the amount of molasses needed for distilling the rum. The colonists had to buy the rest of what was needed from the French, Dutch, and Spanish islands, and they then evaded the law and did not pay the high **duty** to Britain on the molasses bought from these islands.

If Britain had enforced the Molasses Act, financial ruin would likely have occurred. So for this act and all the other mercantile laws, the British government followed the policy of **SALUTARY NEGLECT**, deliberately failing to enforce the laws.

Changing British Policy

In 1763, after the French and Indian War, Britain needed money for several reasons. The important needs were:

- To pay the British war debt
- To defend the empire
- To pay for the governing of its colonies scattered across the Earth

The British government decided to adopt a new colonial policy and pass laws to raise revenue. It was reasoned that the colonists were subjects of the King, and since the King and his ministers had spent a great deal of money defending and protecting them, it was only right and fair that the colonists should help pay the costs of defense—especially the American colonists. The earlier laws passed had been for the purposes of regulating production and trade and had generally put

MOLASSES ACT: an act passed by the British government that imposed a large tax on molasses bought from non-British merchants

SALUTARY NEGLECT: a policy whereby a government deliberately fails to enforce its laws

As the proportion of English-born colonists decreased and the diversity of settlers increased, fewer and fewer colonists felt a cultural tie to the country that held influence over the colonies' trade and government.

money into colonial pockets. These new laws would take some of that rather hard-earned money out of their pockets. To the colonists, this was unjust and illegal.

As the proportion of English-born colonists decreased and the diversity of settlers increased, fewer and fewer colonists felt a cultural tie to the country that held influence over the colonies' trade and government. Divisions between the colonies became more pronounced as settlers of differing religious and national groups established themselves.

Though England's influence had been passive until this point, it remained in control of much of the colonies' political affairs as well. Each colony had a lower **legislative assembly** that was elected and a higher council and governor that were elected or appointed in different ways depending on the how the colony was organized initially. In most colonies, the **councils** and **governors** were appointed by the King of England, British property owners, or agencies. In **corporate colonies**, the council and governors were elected by colonial property owners who maintained a close connection to England.

Thus, while the colonies were allowed to determine their own taxes and regulate much of their daily lives through representation in the colonial assemblies, Britain maintained control of international affairs and international trade by controlling the upper levels of colonial government. In practice, Britain allowed the colonies to go about their business without interference, largely because the colonies were providing important raw materials to the home country.

The History of Colonial Defense

The first glimmers of dissent from the colonies came during the French and Indian War when colonial **militias** were raised to fight the French in America. Conflict arose with Britain over who should control these militias. The colonies wanted the assemblies to have authority. Britain's victory over France, and its subsequent need for funds, only increased tensions with the American colonies.

Residents of the 13 colonies had begun to speak out about how cooperation was important for their defense. Fresh in their minds was the French (and their Native American allies) defeat of **Maj. George Washington** and his militia at **Fort Necessity in 1754**. This left the entire northern frontier of the British colonies vulnerable and open to attack. In the wake of this, **Benjamin Franklin** proposed to the colonies that they unite permanently to be able to defend themselves.

Delegates from 7 of the 13 colonies met at Albany, New York, in 1754 with the representatives from the **Iroquois Confederation** at the request of British officials. But Franklin's proposal, known as the **Albany Plan of Union**, was

rejected by the colonists, along with a similar proposal from the British. Delegates simply did not want each of the colonies to lose its right to act independently. However, a seed was planted.

The Buildup to Revolution

Before 1763, except for trade and supplying raw materials, the colonies had mostly been left to themselves. England looked on them merely as part of an economic or commercial empire. Little consideration was given to how they were to conduct their daily affairs, so the colonists became independent, self-reliant, and skilled at handling daily affairs. This, in turn, gave rise to leadership, initiative, achievement, and vast experience. In fact, there was a far greater degree of **independence** and **self-government** in America than could be found in Britain or the major countries on the continent or any other colonies anywhere.

Political setup in the Colonies

In America, as new towns and counties were formed, the practice of representation in government began. Representatives to the colonial **legislative assemblies** were elected from the district in which they lived, chosen by qualified property-owning male voters, and they represented the interests of the political district from which they were elected. Most of the thirteen colonies also had a royal governor appointed by the King, representing his interests in the colonies. Nevertheless, the colonial legislative assemblies controlled the purse strings by having the power to vote on all issues involving money to be spent by the colonial governments.

Political setup in England

Quite different from the colonial setup was the established government in England. Members of **Parliament** were not elected to represent their own districts. They were considered representative of classes, not individuals. If some members of a professional or commercial class or some landed interests were able to elect representatives, then those classes or special interests were represented. It had nothing at all to do with numbers or territories. Some large population centers had no **direct representation** at all, yet the people there considered themselves represented by men elected from their particular class or interest somewhere else. Consequently, it was extremely difficult for the English to understand why the American merchants and landowners claimed they were not represented; the English accepted that Parliament represented the best interests of the Empire and, therefore, the best interests of the colonies.

The colonists' protest of "**No taxation without representation**" was meaningless to the English. Parliament represented the entire nation, was

There were now two different environments: the older, traditional British system and the American system with its new ideas and different ways of doing things.

QUARTERING ACT:

required the colonists to provide supplies and living quarters for the British troops

PROCLAMATION OF

1763: prohibited American colonists from making any settlements west of the Appalachians until provided for by treaties with the Native Americans

SUGAR ACT OF 1764:

required efficient collection of taxes on molasses brought into the colonies from other than British sources and permitted British officials to conduct searches of any suspicious premises

STAMP ACT OF 1765:

levied a tax on newspapers, legal documents, and other printed material

DECLARATORY ACT:

stated that Parliament had the right to make all laws for the colonies and denied their right to be taxed only by colonial legislatures

completely unlimited in legislation, and had become supreme. The colonists were incensed at this English attitude and considered their colonial legislative assemblies equal to Parliament, a position that was totally unacceptable in England.

Contrasting traditions

In a new country, a new environment has little or no tradition, institutions, or vested interests. New ideas and traditions grew quickly in America, pushing aside what was left of the old ideas and old traditions. By 1763, Britain had changed its perception of its American colonies to their being a “territorial” empire. The stage was set and the conditions were right for a showdown.

Increasing Tensions

In 1763, Parliament decided to place a standing army in North America to reinforce British control. In 1765, the **QUARTERING ACT** was passed requiring the colonists to provide supplies and living quarters for the British troops. In addition, efforts by the British were made to keep the peace by establishing good relations with the Native Americans. The **PROCLAMATION OF 1763** prohibited any American colonists from making any settlements west of the Appalachians until provided for by treaties with the Native Americans.

The **SUGAR ACT OF 1764** required efficient collection of taxes on molasses that was brought into the colonies from other than British sources and gave British officials free license to conduct searches of the premises of anyone suspected of violating the law. Furthermore, the colonists were taxed on newspapers, legal documents, and other printed material under the **STAMP ACT OF 1765**.

Colonial response to British legislation

Nine colonies assembled in New York to call for repeal of the Stamp Act. At the same time, a group of New York City merchants organized a protest to stop the importation of British goods. Similar protests arose in Philadelphia and Boston and other merchant cities, often erupting in violence. Britain’s representatives in the colonies—the governors and members of the **cabinet** and **council**—were sometimes the targets of these protests. Although a stamp tax was already in use in England, the colonists would have none of it. Hoping to curb the uproar of rioting and mob violence, Parliament repealed the tax.

Of course, great exultation resulted when news of the repeal reached America. But attached to the repeal was the small, quiet **DECLARATORY ACT**. This Act plainly and unequivocally stated that Parliament still had the right to make all laws for the colonies, and it denied their right to be taxed only by colonial legislatures.