



Why did Europeans become so interested in distant East Asia?

How did the Americas become inhabited?

Where did most of the Indians of the New World reside?

When and where did Columbus first reach the New World?

What was the "Columbian Exchange"?

How accurate was Columbus's estimate of the distance from Europe to East Asia?

What European nation of American discovery/exploration/settlement treated the Indians most humanely?

What was the Treaty of Tordesillas?

In what two major ways did the English model for settlement differ from those of Spain and France?

Why did the Puritans banish Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson from their colony?

What was the first successful English colony in North America?

What is the Puritan doctrine of predestination?

What was the significance of the Great Awakening?

What colony was founded as a "Holy Experiment"?

Where was the center of French activity in North America?

What was the underlying cause of Bacon's Rebellion, the Regulator War, and similar uprisings?

Who founded Virginia?

Why were colleges such as Harvard and Yale established?

What European nation's New World settlements enjoyed the most autonomy from the mother country?

Who was James Oglethorpe?

Why is the Mayflower Compact so memorable?

What was the chief difference between Puritans and Separatists?

What two events opened the door for successful English penetration of the New World?

What were the two main reasons Georgia was founded?

What European nation introduced the horse to North America?

What three parties attended the Albany Conference of 1754 and what was the purpose of the meeting?

What is the capital of Arizona?



## DIRECTIONS: Indicate TRUE, FALSE, or NEITHER for each of the following statements.

 The headright system thrived in Virginia.
 The first African black slaves were brought to North America by the Dutch in 1619.
 The French and Indian War precipitated severe economic woes for Great Britain.
 The two chief export crops of the South were tobacco and rice.
 The economic relationship between Great Britain and its thirteen colonies was greatly shaped by various mercantilist policies enacted by the Crown.
 In the South, most educational instruction was the responsibility of parents, private tutors, or local ministers.
 In a properly ordered Puritan family, authority flowed "downward" from father to mother to children.
 Due to Puritan influence, New England colonial legislation was socially repressive and personally invasive.
 Slave revolts were a genuine danger to white slave owners.
 Cheap land closer to the coast and the threat of Indians kept all but only the most footloose hunters and fur traders from venturing too far inland.
 Unlike New Englanders, Chesapeake settlers showed an astonishing respect for constituted authority.
 The virtue most insistently impressed upon New England children was obedience.
 The town meeting was a distinct social characteristic of the Southern "low country" Colonies.
 The diet of New Englanders was almost exclusively fish, especially cod, from the Atlantic Ocean.
 Boston was the largest and most thriving town in New England; by 1720 it was the region's commercial hub
 Within the economic theory of mercantilism, a "favorable balance of trade" meant exports exceeded imports
 The Great Awakening was a movement largely restricted to the Middle Colonies.
 The patroon system of settlement was particularly popular throughout the Southern Colonies.
 The Enlightenment in America damaged the influence and prestige of the clergy.
 The quitrent was an innovative and successful tax, raising significant revenues for several colonies.
 France was the first nation to challenge Spain's New World establishment.
 The Anglican Church dominated the South, while the predominant religion in New England was Puritanism.
 The two preeminent armed conflicts between New England colonists and neighboring Indians were the Pequot War (1637-38) and King Philip's War (1675-76).
 The movement for independence from Great Britain began soon after the thirteen colonies were founded.
 With few exceptions, the thirteen colonies were oppressed by the Crown from the time of their founding.
 Despite geographical vastness, a firm sense of unity was established among the thirteen colonies.

Who discovered America? Ancestors of modern Indians, Leif Ericson, Amerigo Vespucci, and Christopher Columbus all played a part.

Columbus and the Discovery of America. Commercial and economic factors are the keys to understanding European interests in exploration during the 15th and 16th centuries. As early as the 11th century, Venetians brought oriental products to Europe, and the Crusades, beginning in the same century, further stimulated European appetites for exotic Eastern goods such as silk and spices. By the 15th century, western Europeans were intent on discovering direct routes to the East which would eliminate the "middle-men" and break the Italian monopoly. Prince Henry of Portugal sponsored advances in navigational knowledge, and he encouraged sailors to find a way around Africa in order to reach the Orient. Later, Christopher Columbus, an Italian who lived in Portugal for many years, hoped to reach the Indies by sailing directly west. Under the auspices of Queen Isabel of Spain, he accidentally discovered America in 1492, although he died believing that he had reached the Orient. Columbus was certainly not the first to touch the western hemisphere, but he did open exploration of the New World.

The Indian and the European. Wherever they went, Europeans mistreated the people they encountered. Spaniards read the Requerimiento to the natives, commanding them to recognize the sovereignty of the Spanish monarchy or to be enslaved. Some English settlers dealt fairly with the inhabitants of North America, but in most instances they exploited and all but exterminated them.

Native American Civilizations. The languages and lifestyles of native Americans were diverse. But they shared certain characteristics, such as a lack of concern for material things and a communal view of land tenure. Clashes with European culture were inevitable as the Europeans attempted to Christianize the natives and as they strove to change the ecologies to their advantage rather than simply adjusting to them.

The Spanish Decline. Although explorers from countries other than Spain touched the shores of North America, they made no permanent settlements in the sixteenth century. Spain had already achieved a measure of internal tranquility and had seized areas in America best suited to quick returns. But Spain began to decline because of corruption at the court and dependence on bullion from the colonies, in addition to the effects of the Protestant Reformation.

The Protestant Reformation. Such practices as the sale of indulgences and the luxurious lifestyle of the pope made the Roman Catholic Church a fit target for reform in the sixteenth century. The movement, led by reformers such as Martin Luther and John Calvin, owed its success to political and economic factors, as well as religious ones. German princes confiscated church property and Henry VIII declared himself head of the English church in 1534. The commercial classes, growing in influence, tended to support the Protestant leaders.

English Beginnings in America. England under Elizabeth I initiated a subtle campaign of sponsoring attacks upon bullion-laden Spanish ships. Philip II organized the Spanish Armada in 1588 to end English harassment of Spanish shipping and to reestablish the Roman Catholic Church in England. The subsequent destruction of the Armada effectively opened New World exploration and settlement to other European nations. As early as 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert and later his half brother Sir Walter Raleigh had made unsuccessful attempts to plant English colonies in North America. In 1584, Richard Hakluyt, a propagandist for American settlements, wrote Discourse on Western Planting in which he encouraged royal aid and participation in sponsoring colonial settlements for mercantilistic purposes. While the English government was slow to develop colonization programs, merchants were eager to invest in exploration (not settlement) to gain immediate and sizable profits.

The Settlement of Virginia. The founding of the first permanent settlement provided an excellent example of how-not-to-found-a-colony. James I, expecting that gold, silver, and copper would be discovered in Virginia, granted the London Company, a joint-stock organization, a charter that stressed the importance of commercial profits. Mistakes in organizing Jamestown included selecting a swampy location, sending unskilled settlers, neglecting administrative control, and a general indifference to establishing a permanent settlement. Jamestown would probably have collapsed as an economic venture had it not been for the introduction of tobacco as a cash crop. In 1624 James I revoked the company's charter and made Virginia a royal colony.

Remnants of Popery. The Anglican Church became the official Church of England during the long reign of Elizabeth I. But Puritans thought it was still too similar to the Church of Rome. They objected to elaborate clerical vestments, candles and incense, and instead emphasized Bible study. The Puritans also differed with the Anglicans on the concept of predestination. Furthermore, the Puritans themselves were divided on the issue of church structure. The Congregationalists favored a completely decentralized arrangement whereas the Presbyterians favored some organization above the local level, but one controlled by elected laymen. Finally, they were of two minds as to whether reform could be accomplished by remaining within the Anglican Church, particularly during the reign of James I who was falsely rumored to be Catholic.

"Of Plymouth Plantation." In 1606, members of the church in Scrooby, Nottinghamshire, "separated" from the Anglican Church and moved to the Low Countries, settling in Leyden. Disappointed with their situation, they negotiated with Sir Edwin Sandys, head of the Virginia Company of London, and in 1620, 35 Pilgrims from Leyden joined others to sail on the Mayflower for America. Having landed north of the jurisdiction of the London Company, they drew up the Mayflower Compact and chose William Bradford as their first governor. Their adjustment was made easier by the presence of an English-speaking Indian named Squanto. Of Plymouth Plantation, Bradford's written account, describes the hardships, and in some cases the misadventures, of the early settlers.

A Puritan Commonwealth. Unlike the Separatists in Plymouth, most Puritans had managed to satisfy both crown and conscience while James I was king. But under Charles I and his favorite Anglican cleric, William Laud, Puritans were persecuted. In 1629 Puritans from Dorchester organized the Massachusetts Bay Company and in 1630, 1,000 moved to America and founded Boston and several other towns. John Winthrop was elected as governor and served almost twenty years. The founders also created an elected legislature, the General Court, and the right to vote and hold office was limited to church members, the "freemen" who could present satisfactory evidence of having experienced "saving grace."

Troublemakers. When faced with the choice between peace in the commonwealth and exiling dissenters, Governor Winthrop, the magistrates, and the ministers did not hesitate. Roger Williams earned the wrath of the Massachusetts Bay government by insisting that magistrates should have no voice in spiritual matters and that no one should take possession of American land without first buying it from the Indians. After a brief tenure in 1635 as minister of the Salem church, the General Court ordered him to leave the colony. In 1636, he founded the town of Providence. Williams obtained a charter from Parliament in 1644 and established the colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, where all religions were tolerated.

Anne Hutchinson was another resident of the Bay Colony who, in the judgment of the Puritan establishment, went too far. She felt that those possessed of saving grace were exempt from the rules of good behavior and laws of the Commonwealth. In 1636 the General Court charged Hutchinson with defaming the clergy, and when she claimed to be the regular recipient of divine insights from God, she was promptly banished from Massachusetts. She and her large family moved to Rhode Island in 1637 and then to New Netherland where she was killed by Indians in 1643.

Other New England Colonies. From the Massachusetts Bay Colony, settlement radiated outward because of population growth and Puritan intolerance. After early claims by Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason, Massachusetts bought title to Maine in 1677, and New Hampshire became a royal colony in 1680. Reverend Thomas Hooker led a group which founded Hartford, Connecticut, in 1636. Other Puritans came directly from England and settled around New Haven. Connecticut obtained a royal charter in 1662.

French and Dutch Settlements. While England was the most aggressive and successful European colonizer, other nations competed in the colonial scramble. With the expeditions of Samuel de Champlain (1603), France laid claim to much of the St. Lawrence River area. Little effort was given to planting permanent settlements; instead, fur trade became the primary French interest in Canada. The Dutch claimed the Hudson River area and intended to develop large agricultural units under the control of privileged patroons. The Dutch lost their American holdings to the English in 1664.

Maryland and the Carolinas. Beginning in the mid-17th century, colonization shifted from corporate enterprises to proprietary efforts. Obtaining land grants from the Crown, proprietors planted colonies expecting to profit from land sales and speculations. Maryland was unique in that it became a refuge for Catholic immigrants, and although Catholics were a minority in Maryland their rights were protected by a Toleration Act (1649).

Farther south, the proprietors of the Carolinas had the help of John Locke in planning a society based on a hereditary nobility with a class hierarchy. This system failed to attract the necessary "commoners" for manual work, and the Carolinas developed along the same political and economic lines as Virginia and Maryland.

The Middle Colonies. With the ouster of the Dutch from New York, the mid-Atlantic coast was opened for English settlement. The Middle Colonies were developed primarily by a sect of English religious dissenters known as Quakers, first in New Jersey and then in Pennsylvania. The proprietors in New Jersey drafted a liberal constitution creating an autonomous legislature, but William Penn's ideas were paternalistic rather than democratic—the assembly could only approve or reject laws proposed by the governor and council. Penn considered his colony a "Holy Experiment," he treated the Indians fairly, and he granted religious freedom to all who believed in God.

Indians as "Americanizers." The "Columbian exchange," that is, the interaction between Indian and European, was a two-way street. From the Indians, colonists learned what to eat and wear in the American forest, and in particular they profited from knowledge of domesticated corn and the birchbark canoe. For their part, Indians adopted European technology, especially metal tools and guns. Because of the fur trade, Indian-white interaction reached beyond personal contact. In The European and the Indian, James Axtell notes that although learning from the Indian, the colonists feared becoming "Indianized" and that constant conflicts with Indians forced the colonists to band together and in time gave them a sense of having shared a common history. These "reactive changes" made them Americans rather than transplanted Europeans.

What Is an American? Europeans moved to the New World for a variety of reasons: for a more bountiful existence, for religious freedom, or for escape from punishment as criminals. Settlers came from every walk of life. Why then did America become something more than another Europe? The physical separation of 3,000 miles of ocean was part of the answer. Furthermore, the societies within England's American colonies were in many ways as different from each other as all were from their European cousins.

The Southern Colonies: A Hustling People. The South itself was comprised of three regions: the Chesapeake Bay, consisting of "tidewater" Virginia and Maryland; the "low country" Carolinas; and the "back country" to the west. But not until well into the 18th century would common features emerge, such as export-oriented agriculture, a labor force with black slaves, and the absence of towns of any size.

The Chesapeake: "Seasoning Time." Early Virginia was a death trap. The "hot and moist" climate, food shortages, and Indian warfare contributed to a high death rate. Disease took its toll. Most newcomers underwent "seasoning," a period of illness, and once safely over this threshold, settlers ran the seasonal risk of malaria. There was a persistent shortage of women. Men outnumbered women by three to two even in the early 1700s.

The Lure of Land. The first colonists were employees of the London Company who were to work for seven years in return for a share of the profits. There were none, so the surviving colonists each received a hundred acres of land. Thereafter, grants of land were used to attract both capital and labor. The headright system emerged. For each "head" entering, the colonial government issued a "right" to 50 acres of unoccupied land. To receive title, the holder had to mark out its boundaries, plant a crop, and construct some sort of habitation. The grantor of the land demanded a quitrent—an annual tax, feudal in origin—paid in recognition of the "sovereignty" of the grantor. Quitrents were always hard to collect, although the Calvert family of Maryland was relatively successful.

The indentured servant system developed to bring together those who wanted land and labor with those who wanted to come to America. The headright went to the person who paid the passage. The servant agreed to work for a stated period, usually about five years, and at the end received an "outfit," which included clothes and tools, and in some areas, a small parcel of land. Some ex-servants became "squatters" on land along the fringes of settlement. Then when someone appeared with legal title, they demanded squatter's rights, the privilege of buying the land from the legal owner without paying for the improvements.

The Resort to Slavery. Whether slavery produced race prejudice in America or prejudice slavery is a difficult-to-answer question. The Dutch brought the first slaves to Virginia in 1619. In 1650 there were only 300 blacks, and as late as 1670, no more than 2,000 in Virginia. The cost of slaves was roughly five times that of servants. White servants were more highly prized, but in the 1670s their numbers diminished as a result of improving conditions in England and the competition of other colonies for servants. The formation of the Royal African Company (1672) made slaves more available. An added inducement for preferring Africans was the recognition that slaves would be forever barred from competing for land and political power.

"Their Darling Tobacco." Tobacco was unknown in Europe until Spanish explorers brought it back from the West Indies. At first the London Company and King James I discouraged the growing of tobacco but then changed their tune, granting the colonies a monopoly. Production leaped from 2,500 pounds in 1616 to 500,000 in 1627. By the second half of the 17th century, the price had plummeted, particularly hurting the small farmer.

Bacon's Rebellion. The most serious challenge to authority took place in Virginia in 1676. Planters on the western edge of settlement, led by Nathaniel Bacon, asked the royal governor, Sir William Berkeley, to authorize an expedition against Indians who had been attacking nearby plantations. Berkeley refused, and without permission, Bacon organized an army of 500 men. After murdering some peaceful Indians, Bacon marched on Jamestown, and forced Berkeley to legitimize his authority, headed west again to kill more Indians, and then returned to Jamestown, burning it to the ground. The Baconites also plundered the estates of the Green Spring faction, the leaders of the colony who had ruled Virginia for thirty years and who often gathered at Green Spring, Berkeley's plantation. Bacon got a bad case of dysentery and died; an English naval squadron arrived and restored order. The rebellion did not change conditions, but thereafter, planters in the entire Chesapeake region became committed to black slavery. Large differences in the life-styles of growers of tobacco resulted. Those planters who accumulated 20 or more slaves lived like lords and controlled politics. The majority of planters owned no more than five or six slaves and tended to work side by side in the fields with them. Although southern whites differed greatly in wealth and influence, they stood as one behind the principle that blacks must have neither.

The Carolinas: "More Like a Negro Country." Madagascar rice was introduced in South Carolina in 1696, after two decades in which furs and cereals were chief products. In the 1740s a second cash crop, indigo, was introduced by Eliza Lucas, and Parliament placed a bounty on it to stimulate production. Planters dealt with agents in England and Scotland called factors, who managed the sale of their crop, filled their orders for manufactures, and supplied them with credit. The use of intermediaries tended to prevent the development of a diversified economy—a merchant class did not develop in the South. Charleston was the only city of importance in the South until the rise of Baltimore (1750s).

The first quarter of the 18th century saw an enormous influx of slaves. By 1730 roughly three out of every ten people south of Pennsylvania were black, and in South Carolina they were in the majority. The slave owners sought to acculturate the slaves in order to make them more efficient workers. Yet it was one of the many paradoxes of slavery that the more valuable a slave became, the harder that slave was to control.

The Back Country. West of the fall line of the rivers that irrigated tidewater Chesapeake and Carolina lay the "back parts." The region included the Great Valley of Virginia, the Piedmont, and Georgia.

Georgia was founded by a group of philanthropists who wanted to provide an alternative for honest persons imprisoned for debt; this idealistic goal was striking proof that Europeans were still beguiled by the prospect of regenerating their society in the New World. The trustees received a charter in 1732 to manage the colony without profit for 21 years. The leader, James Oglethorpe, founded Savannah in 1733. Land grants were limited to 50 acres. Blacks and "strong waters" were prohibited. But the settlers refused to endure this Spartan existence, and in 1752 the trustees, disillusioned, abandoned their responsibilities. Georgia became a royal colony.

So long as there was cheap land remained close to the coast and Indians along the frontier remained a threat, only a few moved far inland. But in the 1750s and 1760s this movement picked up momentum. By 1770 the back country contained about 250,000 settlers, 10 percent of the population of the colonies. The internal migration did not proceed altogether peacefully. In 1771 a pitched battle occurred between the Regulators, back-country North Carolinians protesting their lack of representation in the assembly, and 1,200 troops dispatched by the Carolina assembly. The Regulators were crushed and their leaders executed.

Intellectual and Religious Life in the Colonial South. The literary output of the South consisted mostly of personal correspondence and descriptions of the country. The diaries of William Byrd of Virginia are a major source of our knowledge of southern life. Education was hard to come by, and those with the financial means sent their children to school in England.

By the mid-18th century, the Anglican church had been legally established in all the southern colonies. In Maryland, Lord Baltimore had sought to promote a live-and-let-live attitude toward Catholics, but in 1718 Catholics lost even the right to vote. For all its legal standing, the Anglican church was not a very powerful force. In Virginia, ministers were usually paid in tobacco vouchers. In 1758 a drought caused the price of tobacco to increase, but the following year the House of Burgesses passed the Two-Penny Act providing that "tobacco debts" for 1759 be honored at a rate of 2 pence per pound, one-half the selling price. Indignant clergymen appealed to the Privy Council, which voided the law. Reverend James Maury sued for back pay and won. But the young lawyer Patrick Henry attacked the clergy as unpatriotic and money grubbing, and the jury awarded Maury only one penny in damages in this "Parson's Cause."

Colonial New England: A Covenanted People. Would the "Puritan society" established in New England have worked 600 miles to the south? If survival in the Chesapeake required junking European notions and submitting to the dictates of the wilderness, was this also true in Massachusetts and Connecticut? Ultimately it probably was, but in the early going, Puritan ideas certainly fought the New England reality to a draw. Safe water supplies and healthful terrain spared the New Englanders from "the agues and fevers" of "seasoning," leaving them free to attend to their spiritual and social well-being.

The Stamp of Puritanism. New England's Puritans were set apart from other English settlers by how much--and how long--they lived out of their baggage, which included a comprehensive plan for ordering society as well as pots and pans, saws and shovels. At the center of the plan was the Biblical concept of the Covenant.

The Family Bonds: Fear and Love. The Puritan family was nuclear and patriarchal, which is to say that each household contained one family, and in it, the father was boss. Women kept house and educated the children. Childbearing likely extended over two decades of a woman's life. The virtue most impressed upon children was obedience. After the early 1640s, immigration virtually ceased, and thereafter population growth was entirely due to the region's high birth rate and low mortality rate.

Visible Saints and Others. New England Puritans felt that Church membership was not a presumptive right but should be limited to the "visible saints." By the 1650s, fewer than half of Boston's adults were church members. Non-members were compelled to attend church services and could not vote, but what really forced reconsideration of the policy were the concerns of nonmember parents about the souls of their children, who could not be baptized. In the early 1660s, members adopted the Half-Way Covenant, which provided halfway membership for any applicant not known to be a sinner who was willing to accept the church covenant. Such members and their children could be baptized, although communion and a voice in church decision making were reserved for full members.

Democracies Without Democrats. The structure of government included a governor, a governor's council, and a popularly elected assembly. According to Puritan theory, government was both a civil covenant and a "shield of the churches." Was colonial New England democratic? To be considered democratic, a government must at least offer those subject to its authority a voice in its operations, a condition New England governments met. But ordinary voters tended to choose their "betters." The most serious threat to these arrangements was the Dominion of New England, governed from 1686 to 1689 by Edmund Andros, who set out to abolish popular assemblies and promote the Anglican church. But he was routed after the Glorious Revolution.

Crisis in Salem Village. In 1692 over 150 persons were charged with witch-craft, and 28, most of them women, were convicted. Nineteen were hanged, and one "wizard" had stones piled upon him until he suffocated. Finally, at the urging of Increase Mather, Governor William Phips halted the executions. Life went on as before; nearly three decades passed before anyone publicly claimed that what had happened was a tragic case of mass hysteria.

"To Advance Learning." Fear of an uneducated ministry in the future prompted the Massachusetts General Court in 1636 to appropriate money for a college. Two years later as its doors were opening in Cambridge, John Harvard died, leaving money and his library to the new institution. Immediately below Harvard on the educational ladder was the grammar school, where boys spent seven years learning Latin and Greek. Massachusetts and Connecticut passed laws requiring all towns of any size to establish such schools, although not every town actually did so. Male literacy was widespread and created a thriving market for the printed word, although most early publications were reprints of sermons. Yale was established in 1701 with the intention of upholding the Puritan values that Harvard seemed ready to abandon.

The assumption that the clergy had the last word on learned matters was challenged in 1721 when Cotton Mather recommended the radical idea of inoculation to combat the smallpox epidemic. Mather's motives and professional credentials were challenged by the New England Courant, published in Boston by James Franklin and assisted by his 16-year-old brother, Benjamin. James Franklin was jailed for criticizing the General Court, the Courant went out of business, and Ben departed for Philadelphia.

The Serpent Prosperity. The anticommercial bias of the early Puritans gradually lost ground. The "triangular trade" started in 1643, although the routes more often gave it a polygonal character. Maritime trade became the driving force of the New England economy. By 1720 Boston was the commercial hub of the region. With a population of 10,000, only London and Bristol in the British Empire were larger.

The Middle Colonies: A Rising People. The lack of a distinctive institution, such as slavery or the town meeting, explains part of the neglect in accounts of the Middle Colonies in colonial America. Actually both of these institutions existed in the Middle Colonies. The "in-betweenness" extended to farming: foodstuffs were raised for local consumption and wheat was exported.

"This Promiscuous Breed." The Middle Colonies had another distinctive "American" trait: ethnic and religious heterogeneity. New York had a large Dutch population, and Scandinavian and Dutch settlers outnumbered the English in New Jersey and Delaware for decades. Why so few English? By the 1680s England was booming and there seemed to be work for all, so immigration fell.

"The Best Poor Man's Country." This quote was used in a promotional pamphlet for Pennsylvania indicating the promise of prosperity. Acquisition of land was relatively easy in all of the Middle Colonies, and mixed farming was the most commonly trod path to prosperity. Artisans in towns also prospered. In the 1750s with a population of 15,000, Philadelphia passed Boston to become the largest city in English America.

The Politics of Diversity. In New York in 1689, Jacob Leisler seized control of the government for two years before being sent to the gallows. But for two decades struggles continued between those who shared Leisler's dislike of English rule and those who had opposed his takeover. Another political problem occurred when Governor William Cosby made a claim for back salary and was opposed by forces led by Lewis Morris. Morrisites established a weekly journal which was eventually closed down and which led to the trial for seditious libel of its editor, John Peter Zenger.

Politics in Pennsylvania revolved around two interest groups: the proprietor and the assembly, the latter controlled by Quakers and the Pennsylvania Dutch. In 1763 there was an uprising of the Paxton Boys triggered by eastern indifference to Indian attacks and by the fact that the east outnumbered the west in the assembly. When they marched on Philadelphia, Ben Franklin persuaded them to disband.

The Great Awakening. By the early 18th century, religious fervor had slackened in all the colonies, but that changed with the Great Awakening of the 1740s. George Whitefield, an Anglican minister, led numerous revivals and preached a theology "scaled down to the comprehension of twelve-year-olds." While not denying the doctrine of predestination, he preached a God responsive to good intentions. Some ministers copied his emotionally charged style and this led to splits between New Light and Old Light Congregationalists and New Side and Old Side Presbyterians. These splits often ran along class lines. Higher education was also affected with the College of New Jersey (Princeton) founded by New Side Presbyterians, the College of Rhode Island (Brown) founded by Baptists, Queen's College (Rutgers) by Dutch Reformed, and Dartmouth by New Light Congregationalists. Jonathan Edwards was the most famous native-born revivalist. In 1727 he "inherited" his grandfather's pulpit in Northampton, Massachusetts, and dramatized hell's fire and brimstone from the pulpit. Eventually in 1749 his parishioners voted to dismiss him. By the 1750s, the Great Awakening, the first truly national event in American history, had run its course. Although it caused divisions, it also fostered religious toleration.

The Enlightenment in America. As a result of the European Enlightenment, some Americans began to believe that human reasoning and direct observation, rather than God's revelations, provided the key to knowledge. These ideas produced the so-called Age of Reason. Some churchgoers became Unitarians; others, Deists. Colonial America produced no Galileo or Newton, but Americans such as John Bartram and Professor John Winthrop did contribute to scientific knowledge. In particular, many important discoveries were made by Ben Franklin. The contributions of most Americans were practical rather than theoretical.

## OLONIAL AMERICA'S RELIGIOUS LANDSCAPE

	Congregational Church (Puritans)		Society of Friends (Quakers)	Catholic Church	Presbyterian Church
Leaders	John Cotton John Winthrop Cotton Mather	King or queen of England Bishop of London	George Fox William Penn	Pope in Rome Bishops Priests	Francis Makemie William Tennent
Areas of Influence	New England	Virginia Maryland	Pennsylvania Scattered in New England, New Jersey	Maryland (early) Scattered in parts of Pennsylvania	Frontier and backcountry; Pennsylvania, New Jersey
Beliefs	Man is depraved/sinful One is saved or damned at birth Wicked life was a sign of damnation Only "visible saints" were saved Intolerant of all other religions Coerced nonbelievers with force or banishment	King/queen headed church King's power came from God Used Book of Common Prayer Some Catholic liturgy and doctrine maintained	"Inner light" a guide to salvation  Minimal church structure  All people equal in God's eyes  Pacifism  Refused to take oaths  Tolerant of other religions	Strict hierarchy with Pope at head  Salvation earned by good works, faith, loyalty to church  Priests were path to God  No divorce allowed	Calvinism  Split from Puritans over church governance Power lay with church elders Like other Protestants, accepted Jesus as savior Tolerant of other religions
Comment	By 1740 church represented largest denomination in colonies  Lost much of their poltical influence in New England after 1700  Intolerance cost its support  Hoped to create a religious "City Upon a Hill"	By 1740 had second-largest membership in colonies  Much less influence in colonies than in England  Being a member carried great status in colonies	Grew from Puritanism Clashed often with Puritans "Holy Experiment" in Pennsylvania	Maryland originally a Catholic haven Catholics very unpopular in other colonies, where they could not vote or hold office	By 1740 had third-largest membership in colonies Scotch/Irish immigrants changed church in early 1700s Split between New/Old Lights