

CHAPTER CHRONOLOGY

As you read, ask yourself why this chapter begins and ends with these dates and then identify the links among related events.

1642–1651	▶ English civil war	1689–1713	▶ England, France, and Spain at war
1649	▶ Charles I beheaded	1696	▶ Parliament creates Board of Trade
1651	▶ First Navigation Act	1714–1750	▶ British policy of salutary neglect ▶ American assemblies gain power
1660–1685	▶ Reign of Charles II, king of England	1720–1742	▶ Robert Walpole leads Parliament
1663	▶ Charles II grants Carolina proprietorship	1720–1750	▶ African American communities form ▶ Rice exports from South Carolina soar ▶ Planter aristocracy emerges ▶ Seaport cities expand
1664	▶ English capture New Netherland, rename it New York	1732	▶ Parliament charters Georgia, challenging Spain ▶ Hat Act limits colonial enterprise
1669	▶ Virginia law declares that the murder of a slave cannot be treated as a felony	1733	▶ Molasses Act threatens distillers
1681	▶ William Penn founds Pennsylvania	1739	▶ Stono Rebellion in South Carolina
1685–1688	▶ Reign of James II, king of England	1739–1748	▶ War with Spain in the Caribbean and France in Canada and Europe
1686–1689	▶ Dominion of New England	1750	▶ Iron Act restricts colonial iron production
1688–1689	▶ Glorious Revolution in England	1751	▶ Currency Act prohibits land banks and paper money
1689	▶ William and Mary ascend throne in England ▶ Revolts in Massachusetts, Maryland, and New York		



To see a longer excerpt of the Canassatego document mentioned in the chapter introduction, along with other primary sources from this period, see **Sources for America's History**.

Colonies to Empire, 1607–1713

Before 1660, England governed its New England and Chesapeake colonies haphazardly. Taking advantage of that laxness and the English civil war, local “big men” (Puritan magistrates and tobacco planters) ran their societies as they wished. Following the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, royal bureaucrats tried to impose order on the unruly settlements and, enlisting the aid of Indian allies, warred with rival European powers.

Self-Governing Colonies and New Elites, 1607–1660

In the years after its first American colonies were founded, England experienced a wrenching series of political crises. Disagreements between King Charles I and Parliament grew steadily worse until they culminated in the English civil war, which lasted from 1642 to 1651. A parliamentary army led by Oliver Cromwell fought against royalist forces for control of the country. Charles I was captured by Cromwell's army, tried for treason, and beheaded in 1649. Charles II, his son and successor, carried on the war for two more years but was defeated in 1651 and fled to France. England was no longer a monarchy. It was ruled by Parliament as a commonwealth, then fell under the personal rule of Oliver Cromwell, who was known as the Lord Protector. Cromwell's death in 1658 triggered a political crisis that led Parliament to invite Charles II to restore the monarchy and take up the throne.

During the long period of instability and crisis in England, its American colonies largely managed their own affairs. Neither crown nor Parliament devised a consistent system of imperial administration; in these years, England had colonies but no empire. Moreover, these were difficult years for all the colonies, when important decisions about the nature of the economy, the government, and the social system had to be worked out through trial and error (see Chapter 2). In this era of intense experimentation and struggle, emerging colonial elites often had to arrive at their own solutions to pressing problems. Leading men in Virginia, Maryland, the New England colonies, and the islands of the West Indies claimed authority and hammered out political systems

that allowed the colonies to be largely self-governing. Even in colonies with crown-appointed governors, such as Sir William Berkeley in Virginia, it soon became apparent that those appointees had to make alliances with local leaders in order to be effective.

The restoration of the crown in 1660 marked a decisive end to this period of near-independence in the colonies. Charles II (r. 1660–1685) and his brother and successor, James II (r. 1685–1688), were deeply interested in England's overseas possessions and dramatically reshaped colonial enterprise. From England's early, prolonged, halting efforts to sponsor overseas activity, an empire finally began to take shape.

The Restoration Colonies and Imperial Expansion

Charles II expanded English power in Asia and America. In 1662, he married the Portuguese princess Catherine of Braganza, whose dowry included the islands of Bombay (present-day Mumbai, India). Then, in 1663, Charles initiated new outposts in America by authorizing eight loyal noblemen to settle Carolina, an area that had long been claimed by Spain and was populated by thousands of Indians. The following year, he awarded the just-conquered Dutch colony of New Netherland to his brother James, the Duke of York, who renamed the colony New York and then re-granted a portion of it, called New Jersey, to another group of proprietors. Finally, in 1681, Charles granted a vast tract to William Penn—Pennsylvania, or “Penn’s Woods.” In a great land grab, England had ousted the Dutch from North America, intruded into Spain’s northern empire, and claimed all the land in between.

The Carolinas In 1660, English settlement was concentrated in New England and the Chesapeake. Five corporate colonies coexisted in New England: Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, New Haven, and Rhode Island. (Connecticut absorbed New Haven in 1662, while Massachusetts Bay became a royal colony and absorbed Plymouth in 1692.) In the Chesapeake, Virginia was controlled by the crown while Maryland was in the hands of a Lord Proprietor. Like Lord Baltimore’s Maryland, the new settlements in Carolina, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania—the Restoration Colonies, as historians call them—were **proprietorships**. The Carolina and Jersey grantees, the Duke of York, and William Penn owned all the land in their new colonies and could rule them as they wished, provided that their laws conformed broadly to those of England (Table 3.1). Indeed, in New York, James II refused to allow an elective assembly and ruled by decree. The Carolina proprietors envisioned a traditional European society; they hoped to implement a manorial system, with a mass of serfs governed by a handful of powerful nobles.

The manorial system proved a fantasy. The first North Carolina settlers were a mixture of poor families and runaway servants from Virginia and English Quakers, an equality-minded Protestant sect (also known as the Society of Friends). Quakers “think there is no difference between a Gentleman and a labourer,” complained an Anglican clergyman. Refusing to work on large manors, the settlers raised corn, hogs, and tobacco on modest family farms. Inspired by Bacon’s Rebellion, they rebelled in 1677 against taxes on tobacco and again in 1708 against taxes to support the Anglican Church. Through their stubborn independence, residents forced the proprietors to abandon their dreams of a manorial society.

In South Carolina, the colonists also went their own way. The leading white settlers there were migrants from overcrowded Barbados. Hoping to re-create that island’s hierarchical slave society, they used enslaved workers—both Africans and Native Americans—to raise cattle and food crops for export to the West Indies. Carolina merchants opened a lucrative trade in deerskins and Indian slaves with neighboring peoples. Then, around 1700, South Carolina planters hit upon rice cultivation. The swampy estuaries of the coastal low country could be modified with sluices, floodgates, and check dams to create ideal rice-growing conditions, and slaves could do the backbreaking work. By 1708, white South Carolinians relied upon a few thousand slaves to work

AP PRACTICES & SKILLS

CAUSATION

How did the turmoil of the English civil war affect England’s colonial enterprises?



Turn to the Glossary of Academic & Historical

Terms in the back of the book for definitions of bolded terms.

AP EXAM TIP

Recognizing the difficulties faced by the British in exercising imperial control in North America is critical for success on the AP® exam.

TABLE 3.1

English Colonies Established in North America, 1660–1750

Colony	Date	Original Colony Type	Religion	Status in 1775	Chief Export/ Economic Activity
Carolina	1663	Proprietary	Church of England	Royal	
North	1691				Farming, naval stores
South	1691				Rice, indigo
New Jersey	1664	Proprietary	Church of England	Royal	Wheat
New York	1664	Proprietary	Church of England	Royal	Wheat
Pennsylvania	1681	Proprietary	Quaker	Proprietary	Wheat
Georgia	1732	Trustees	Church of England	Royal	Rice
New Hampshire (separated from Massachusetts)	1741	Royal	Congregationalist	Royal	Mixed farming, lumber, naval stores
Nova Scotia	1749	Royal	Church of England	Royal	Fishing, mixed farming, naval stores

AP EXAM TIP

Expand upon the chart above as you read through the chapter to compare the development of Massachusetts Bay, Virginia, South Carolina, and Pennsylvania.

their coastal plantations; thereafter, the African population exploded. Blacks outnumbered whites by 1710 and constituted two-thirds of the population by 1740.

William Penn and Pennsylvania In contrast to the Carolinas, which languished for decades with proprietors and colonists at odds, William Penn's colony was marked by unity of purpose: all who came hoped to create a prosperous neo-European settlement similar to the societies they knew at home. Penn, though born to wealth—he owned substantial estates in Ireland and England and lived lavishly—joined the **Quakers**, who condemned extravagance. Penn designed his colony as a refuge for his fellow Quakers, who were persecuted in England because they refused to serve in the military or pay taxes to support the Church of England. Penn himself had spent more than two years in jail in England for preaching his beliefs.

Like the Puritans, the Quakers sought to restore Christianity to its early simple spirituality. But they rejected the Puritans' pessimistic Calvinist doctrines, which restricted salvation to a small elect. The Quakers followed the teachings of two English visionaries, George Fox and Margaret Fell, who argued that God had imbued all men—and women—with an “inner light” of grace or understanding. Reflecting the sect's emphasis on gender equality, 350 Quaker women would serve as ministers in the colonies.

Mindful of the catastrophic history of Indian relations in the Chesapeake and New England, Penn exhorted colonists to “sit downe Lovingly” alongside the Native American inhabitants of the Delaware and Susquehanna valleys. He wrote a letter to the leaders of the Iroquois Confederacy alerting them to his intention to settle a colony, and in 1682 he arranged a public treaty with the Delaware Indians to purchase the lands that Philadelphia and the surrounding settlements would soon occupy.

Penn's Frame of Government (1681) applied the Quakers' radical beliefs to politics. It ensured religious freedom by prohibiting a legally established church, and it promoted political equality by allowing all property-owning men to vote and hold office. Cheered by these provisions, thousands of English Quakers flocked to Pennsylvania. To attract European Protestants, Penn published pamphlets in Germany promising cheap land and religious toleration. In 1683, migrants from Saxony founded Germantown (just outside Philadelphia), and thousands of other Germans soon

followed. Ethnic diversity, **pacifism**, and freedom of conscience made Pennsylvania the most open and democratic of the Restoration Colonies.

From Mercantilism to Imperial Dominion

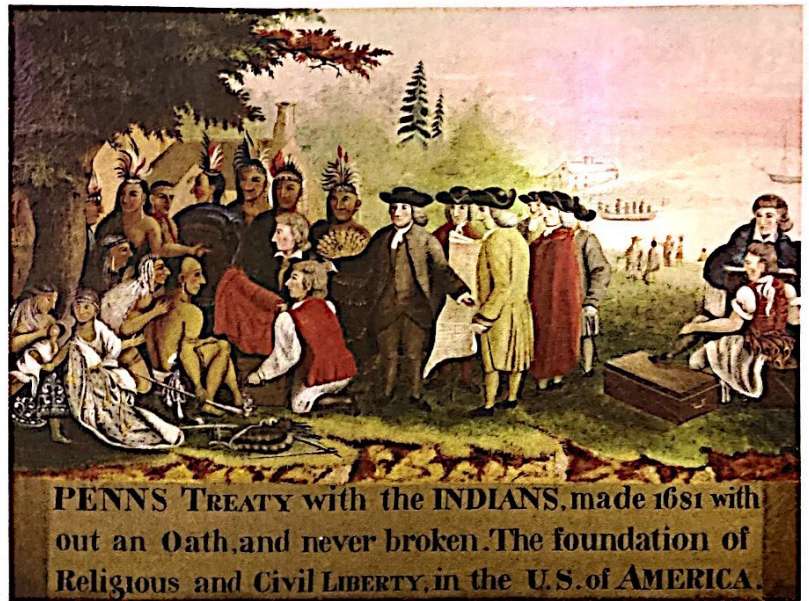
As Charles II distributed American land, his ministers devised policies to keep colonial trade in English hands. Since the 1560s, the English crown had pursued mercantilist policies, using government subsidies and charters to stimulate English manufacturing and foreign trade. Now it extended these mercantilist strategies to the American settlements through the **Navigation Acts**.

The Navigation Acts Dutch and French ship-
pers were often buying sugar and other colonial products from English colonies and carrying them directly into foreign markets. To counter this practice, the Navigation Act of 1651 required that goods be carried on ships owned by English or colonial merchants. New parliamentary acts in 1660 and 1663 strengthened the ban on foreign traders: colonists could export sugar and tobacco only to England and import European goods only through England; moreover, three-quarters of the crew on English vessels had to be English. To pay the customs officials who enforced these laws, the Revenue Act of 1673 imposed a “plantation duty” on American exports of sugar and tobacco.

The English government backed these policies with military force. In three wars between 1652 and 1674, the English navy drove the Dutch from New Netherland and contested Holland’s control of the Atlantic slave trade by attacking Dutch forts and ships along the West African coast. Meanwhile, English merchants expanded their fleets, which increased in capacity from 150,000 tons in 1640 to 340,000 tons in 1690. This growth occurred on both sides of the Atlantic; by 1702, only London and Bristol had more ships registered in port than did the town of Boston.

Though colonial ports benefitted from the growth of English shipping, many colonists violated the Navigation Acts. Planters continued to trade with Dutch shippers, and New England merchants imported sugar and molasses from the French West Indies. The Massachusetts Bay assembly boldly declared: “The laws of England are bounded within the seas [surrounding it] and do not reach America.” Outraged by this insolence, customs official Edward Randolph called for troops to “reduce Massachusetts to obedience.” Instead, the Lords of Trade—the administrative body charged with colonial affairs—chose a less violent, but no less confrontational, strategy. In 1679, it denied the claim of Massachusetts Bay to New Hampshire and eventually established a separate royal colony there. Then, in 1684, the Lords of Trade persuaded an English court to annul the Massachusetts Bay charter by charging the Puritan government with violating the Navigation Acts and virtually outlawing the Church of England.

The Dominion of New England The Puritans’ troubles had only begun, thanks to the accession of King James II (r. 1685–1688), an aggressive and inflexible ruler. During the reign of Oliver Cromwell, James had grown up in exile in France, and he admired its authoritarian king, Louis XIV. James wanted stricter control over the



Edward Hicks, *Penn's Treaty*, c. 1830–1835 Edward Hicks was a Pennsylvania-born painter and preacher whose art expressed a religiously infused understanding of early Pennsylvania history. In more than a hundred paintings, Hicks depicted the colony as a “peaceable kingdom,” in which lions lay down with lambs and colonists met peacefully with Native Americans. This painting, which features Hicks’s characteristic folk art style, depicts William Penn’s first meeting with the Lenni-Lenape peoples in 1683. A Quaker pacifist, Penn refused to seize Indian lands by force and instead negotiated their purchase. This spirit of peaceful cooperation eroded in the later colonial era, but Hicks chose to portray Penn’s meeting with the Indians as the foundation of religious and civil liberty in America. Private Collection/Bridgeman Images.

AP EXAM TIP

Take detailed notes on the responses of colonists to British attempts to impose mercantilist economic policies.