

The background of the entire cover is a stylized American flag. It features horizontal stripes of red, white, and blue, and a blue canton with white stars. The stars are arranged in a grid pattern, with some stars appearing slightly larger or more prominent than others.

2015
EDITION

UNITED STATES HISTORY

PREPARING FOR THE ADVANCED
PLACEMENT EXAMINATION

JOHN J. NEWMAN
JOHN M. SCHMALBACH

AN AMSCO® PUBLICATION
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UNITED STATES HISTORY

Preparing for the Advanced
Placement Examination

John J. Newman, Ed.D., has served as Adjunct Assistant Professor of History Education at Illinois State University and Adjunct Professor of History at the College of DuPage. He was for many years Department Coordinator of Art, Foreign Language, and Social Studies and teacher of Advanced Placement U.S. History at Naperville North High School, Naperville, Illinois.

John M. Schmalbach, Ed.D., is Adjunct Assistant Professor at Temple University. He was for many years Social Studies Department Head and teacher of Advanced Placement U.S. History at Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

UNITED STATES HISTORY

Preparing for the Advanced Placement Examination

Third Edition

John J. Newman
John M. Schmalbach

AMSCO SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS, INC. ,
a division of Perfection Learning®



*This book is dedicated to our wives,
Anne Newman and Rosemarie Schmalbach;
our children, Louise Newman,
and John, Suzanne, and Robert Schmalbach;
and our students, who share our study of America's past.*

Reviewers

William McKee
Former Chairperson, Social Studies,
Brockport High School, Brockport, New York

Stephen A. Shultz
Former Social Studies Coordinator,
Rocky Point Public Schools, New York

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Preface

This edition of *United States History: Preparing for the Advanced Placement Examination* was revised to meet the requirements of the College Board's new 2014–15 Curriculum Framework for the AP U.S. History exam. This edition maintains the concise and accessible chapter content, but the practice questions have been completely revised to reflect the new format of the exam. The chapters were organized and revised where needed to reflect the nine-period curriculum framework. Chapter 31 was added to update the years 2000 to the present. The Introduction, as well as the review questions, were rewritten to reflect the more explicit emphasis on historical thinking skills and thematic learning objectives of the new exam. A separate Answer Key is available through the publisher.

Since 1998, this textbook has been used by hundreds of thousands of students in a variety of ways. Many teachers have used it as a supplemental text to bridge the gap between a college-level history textbook and the needs of their AP high school students. Other teachers have successfully used it as a core textbook, in conjunction with college-level resources and supplemental materials. Students have effectively used it on their own, as a preparation book in the months or weeks before taking the exam. However, given the diverse instructional settings across the nation, the most effective use of this textbook is an instructional decision best made by the educators responsible for their students' performance.

We are committed to an ongoing process to keep this textbook current and plan to incorporate any future changes as released by the College Board. Meanwhile, AP U.S. History teachers should check the College Board Web site for the latest updates: AP Central site (apcentral.collegeboard.com) and the Advances in AP section (advancesinap.collegeboard.org).

The authors want to thank the staff of Perfection Learning Corporation for their support and the tireless effort that they have put into this major revision of the textbook. We also appreciate the continued opportunity to support the efforts of high school students and teachers, as they strive to meet the challenges of the Advanced Placement U.S. History examination.

John Newman and John Schmalbach, January 2014

INTRODUCTION

Preparing for the Advanced Placement Exam in U.S. History

Since 1998, the number of high school students taking the Advanced Placement Exam in United States History has tripled. Students enroll in AP U.S. History classes for many reasons:

- to demonstrate one's ability to succeed as a college undergraduate
- to become eligible for scholarships
- to save on college expenses by earning college credit
- to test out of introductory college courses
- to enrich one's high school experience

The placement and credit offered varies from college to college. The College Board's Web site and the Advanced Placement Course Description: History booklet provide a list of colleges and universities that normally use AP examination grades for determining placement and credits.

Most students who have taken AP courses report that they are more difficult than regular classes but worth the extra effort and more interesting. The rewards of these challenging classes go beyond the placement and grades to include the development of lifelong reading, thinking and writing skills, and, for many students, an increased interest and enjoyment of history.

Overview of the AP U. S. History Exam

This edition of this textbook was revised to prepare students for the changes to the AP U.S. History exam implemented during the 2014–15 school year. The revision places a greater focus on the thinking skills used by historians and historical themes and related concepts in order to deepen a student's understandings of U.S. history. Compared to previous exams, the new 3-hour-and-15-minute exam includes more excerpts, images, and other data sources.

The AP exam includes the following components, along with amount of time allotted for each and the percentage each is weighted in the final grade:

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------|-----|
| • 55 Multiple-Choice Questions (MCQs) | 55 minutes | 40% |
| • 4 Short-Answer Questions (SAQs) | 45 minutes | 20% |
| • 1 Document-Based Question (DBQs) | 60 minutes | 25% |
| • 1 Long-Essay Question (LAQs) | 35 minutes | 15% |

The multiple-choice section still has the greatest weight in a student's final grade, but students' performance on recent exams suggests that working on writing skills may offer the greatest opportunity for improvement. Each of these components will be explained in this Introduction and with a guide to sequential skill development to help prepare for the exam.

The College Board grades student performance on Advanced Placement examinations, including the United States History exam, on a five-point scale:

- 5: Extremely well qualified
- 4: Well qualified
- 3: Qualified
- 2: Possibly qualified
- 1: No recommendation

An AP grade of 3 or higher is usually considered evidence of mastery of course content similar to that demonstrated in a college-level introductory course in the same subject area. However, since the requirements of introductory courses may vary from college to college, some colleges may accept a 2 on the AP History exam while others may require a score of 4.

Unlike most classroom tests designed to measure mastery of a lesson or unit, in which 90 percent or more correct may receive an "A," the AP exams are deliberately constructed to provide a wider distribution of scores and higher reliability (the likelihood that test-takers repeating the same exam will receive the same scores). AP exams, while more difficult than most testing in high school, are also scored differently. The cutoff for a "qualified" or level 3 grade may range between 50 and 60 percent of the possible points. Only a small percentage of students will gain more than 80 percent of the possible points. Students who are having difficulty with a third or more of the questions on the practice AP exams should not be discouraged. The exam is challenging, but like any challenge, if it is broken down into manageable steps, it can be mastered.

How This Book Can Help

The goal of this textbook is to provide AP history students with the essential content and instructional materials to develop the knowledge and the historical thinking and writing skills needed for the AP U.S. History exam. These resources are found in the following sections of the book:

Introduction This section introduces students to the nine thinking skills, seven themes, and nine periods of the AP history program. A step-by-step skill development guide explains how to answer the four types of questions found on the exam: (1) multiple-choice, (2) short-answer, (3) long-essay, and (4) document-based.

Concise History The thirty-one chapters of essential historical content and accessible explanation of events form the heart of this textbook. The content reflects the revised AP U.S. History curriculum. Each of the nine periods is introduced with summaries and key AP concepts.

Maps and Graphics Maps, charts, graphs, cartoons, photographs, and other visual materials are integrated into the text to help students practice their analytical skills.

Historical Perspectives At the end of the text of each chapter is a section that introduces conflicting interpretations about significant historical issues.

Key Terms by Themes In each chapter, a list of key names, places, and words, organized by themes, is included to aid in review.

Multiple-Choice Questions Each chapter contains three sets of source-based multiple-choice questions to evaluate students' historical knowledge and skills using sources.

Short-Answer Questions Each chapter contains four sets of short-answer questions for review of the chapter and practice using thinking skills.

Long-Essay Questions Periods 2 through 9 conclude with a review section including several long-essay questions. Each question consists of a pair of options for students to answer. The long-essay questions prompt students to deal with significant themes and to practice thinking and writing skills. The AP exam will not have long essays based exclusively on periods 1 or 9.

Document-Based Questions The reviews for periods 2 through 8 include one or two DBQs for practice. The AP exam will not have DBQs based exclusively on periods 1 or 9.

Practice Examination Following the final chapter is a complete practice examination using the 2014–15 format.

Index The index is included to help locate key terms for review.

Answer Key A separate Answer Key is available for teachers and other authorized users of the book from the publisher.

The Study of AP U.S. History

Historians attempt to give meaning to the past by collecting historical evidence and then explaining how these “facts” are connected. Historians interpret and organize a wide variety of evidence from both primary sources and secondary texts in order to understand the past. Readers of AP U.S. History exams hope to find in a student's work evidence of the student's ability to analyze and use evidence and to answer probing questions about past events. Often there is not one “answer” for these kinds of questions, no more than one can find all of the answers in any one historical source. AP teachers and exam readers are looking for a student's ability to think about history and to support ideas with evidence.

AP students should appreciate how both participants and historians differ in their interpretation of critical questions in U.S. history. The Historical Perspectives feature in each chapter introduce readers to some of the issues raised by historians over time. The AP U.S. History exam does not require an advanced knowledge of historiography or, one might say, “the history of history.” Nevertheless, prior knowledge of the richness of historical thought can add depth to a student's analysis of historical questions.

Students planning to take the AP U.S. History exam should become familiar with the three components of the subject that shape the exam: (1) historical thinking skills, (2) thematic analysis, and (3) the concepts and understandings of the nine periods that organize the content. These three components of the course are explained below for orientation and future reference.

These components may strike some students as overwhelming at first. Mastering them takes time. Working on the skills and understandings needs to be an ongoing part of the study of AP history. The introduction provided here will become more helpful as a reference as the course proceeds.

Historical Thinking Skills

The Advanced Placement history courses encourage students to become “apprentice historians.” A primary means to attain that goal is to start thinking like an historian. The College Board has identified nine historical thinking skills that will be tested on the AP U.S. History exam. Every question on the exam will require students to apply one or more of these skills; long-essay questions and document-based questions usually involve more than one skill. To help in the development of the thinking skills, or habits of mind, each chapter has an exercise for identifying and understanding one of the skills. In addition, the review questions at the end of each chapter and period cover one or more of the nine historical thinking skills.

Each of the nine AP history thinking skills is explained below with examples of how they might be applied:

Skill 1: Historical Causation Thinking about causation involves the ability to identify, analyze, and evaluate the relationships among many historical events, as both causes and effects. Historians often try to distinguish between immediate, proximate, and long-term causes and effects. Some events and conditions may have some *correlation* without proof of a direct causal relationship, while others are only *coincidental* or without a relationship.

The Civil War era is a rich resource for the study of causation. The firing on Fort Sumter sparked the armed conflict, much like the first shots at Lexington Green were the *immediate* cause that led to fighting in Massachusetts in 1775. One could argue that the secession of the seven Southern states from the Union after the election of Lincoln were the *proximate* causes for the conflict, but slavery, states’ rights, and deep-rooted economic and cultural differences were long-term causes of the North and South going to war. Were the failed attempts to compromise before secession *primary* or *secondary* causes of the Union’s breakdown? Some historians argue that the economic Panic of 1857 contributed to North-South divisions, while others see it as only a *coincidental* event. Understanding multiple causes and effects of historical events involves analyzing and making judgments about their relative significance.

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time Thinking about continuity and change over time involves the ability to recognize, analyze, and evaluate the dynamics of history over periods of time of varying lengths. It often involves discovering patterns. The study of themes in history is often the tool of choice to understand change over time.

The decades before the Civil War raise interesting questions about the *continuity* or *change over time* concerning attitudes toward slavery in the North and South. Historians are interested how the institution of slavery, which was viewed as a “necessary evil” after the American Revolution, became viewed as a “positive good” in the South while many in the North came to view slavery as both economically unnecessary and morally wrong. Often continuity and change cannot be measured during a presidential administration or over a generation, but only across longer periods of time. Tracing change over time by theme, such as changing views on slavery, often becomes clear only over a number of historical periods.

Skill 3: Periodization Periodization involves the ability to analyze and organize history into blocks of time or periods. Periods in history are often identified as starting and ending with significant turning points, such as the start or end of a war. However, while historians recognize periodization is a handy tool in the organization of history in meaningful ways, the choice of specific dates depends on what the historian considers most significant, such as some political, economic, social, or cultural theme. Historical thinking involves not only being aware of how a historian’s point of view will shape choices about periodization but how periodization can change a historical narrative from political to an economic or foreign affairs perspective.

The overlap between period 5 (1848–1877) and period 6 (1865–1898) in the AP U.S. History curriculum is not an oversight but an example how different purposes or themes can change periodization. Period 5 primarily follows a political theme of disunion and the reconstruction of the Union after the Civil War along with the impact on African Americans, while period 6 focuses on the economy and the impact of industrialization. In period 5 from 1848 to 1877, the end of the Civil War in 1865 is just part of the narrative supporting the larger political theme, while in period 6 the end of the war proved a useful point to turn attention to the primary theme of economic development.

These first three skills (causation, continuity and change over time, and periodization) are all part of the skills referred to as *chronological reasoning*.

Skill 4: Comparison Thinking about comparison involves the ability to describe, compare, contrast, and evaluate two or more historical developments in the same era or from different periods. It involves the ability to study a given historical event or development from multiple perspectives.

Again using the Civil War era, the South from its perspective compared its struggle to the fight for independence from the Union to the American Revolution. Historians have often compared and contrasted the struggle by African Americans to achieve equal rights after the Civil War with the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s to better understand each development.

Skill 5: Contextualization Thinking about contextualization involves the skill to see how a specific event or development fits into the context of larger and broader historical developments, often on the national or global level. For example, American historians have tried to understand the anti-slavery movement in the United States in the context of 19th-century efforts by nations in

Europe and Latin America to end slavery and even the movement to end serfdom in Russia, as well as how long it took to achieve equality after liberation.

Both the skills of *comparison* and *contextualization* involve stepping back enough to recognize various perspectives and to discover commonalities and differences that broaden one's historical understanding.

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation Argumentation involves the ability to analyze a question and to address that question through the construction of a plausible and persuasive argument. Historical argumentation requires a focused and analytic thesis, supported by relevant historical evidence. The skill also involves the ability to evaluate the arguments and supporting evidence used by others.

For example, AP students may be asked, "Assess the extent to which slavery was the main cause of the disunion and the Civil War." This question demands a clear and comprehensive thesis that not only supports the position with persuasive and relevant evidence but also takes into account conflicting arguments. Skill 6 and Skill 7 are closely linked together in the ability of "crafting historical arguments from historical evidence."

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence Use of evidence involves the ability to evaluate evidence from diverse sources, including written primary and secondary sources, art and illustrations, artifacts, maps, and statistical data. Students need to be able to analyze evidence in terms of content, but also (1) author's point of view, (2) intended audience of document, (3) purpose of document, and (4) historical context. This skill also involves the ability to make inferences and draw conclusions, while recognizing the limitations or errors in the source.

For example, the pro-slavery documents produced in the 1840s and 1850s are offensive by today's standards, but they provide insights into the divisions and the thinking of the times, and cast light on issues such as the conditions of persons working for wages and early critiques of a market-driven economy.

Skill 8: Interpretation Historical interpretation involves the ability to describe, analyze, and evaluate diverse interpretations of historical sources, and the skill to construct one's own interpretation. This thinking skill also involves understanding how particular circumstances and perspectives shape historians' interpretations. The skill challenges people to avoid interpreting the past in terms of the present and to recognize the tentative nature of many judgments about the past.

The influential historian John Hope Franklin described how changing perspectives affected the history of the post-Civil War Reconstruction era: "If every generation rewrites its history, then every generation since 1870 has written the history of the Reconstruction. And what historians have written tells us as much about their own generation as about the Reconstruction period itself."

Historians often "rewrite" or revise history as a result of changes in society, personal perspectives, the discovery of new sources and information, and, above all, the asking of new questions. Questioning is a primary tool that historians can use to "peel back the layers of the onion" to discover new interpretations

of the evidence. As many historians have said, “The quality of one’s history is determined by the quality of one’s questions.”

Skill 9: Synthesis Historical synthesis involves applying all of the other historical thinking skills, as well as drawing and fusing knowledge and methods from diverse sources and disciplines to develop a persuasive understanding of the past. Synthesis also involves working to combine diverse and contradictory evidence to avoid a one-sided or narrow interpretation of the past.

James McPherson set the standard for synthesis of the Civil War period in his one-volume book *Battle Cry of Freedom*. One reviewer of McPherson’s book captured the objectives of historical synthesis. “Above all, everything is in living relationship with everything else. This is magic. . . . Omitting nothing important, whether military, political, or economic, he yet manages to make everything he touches drive his narrative forward. This is historical writing of the highest order.”

Of course, the expectations for an AP U.S. History student writing an essay in 35 minutes or answering a DBQ in 60 minutes are more modest, but they do include combining diverse and contradictory evidence with differing interpretations in essay form to reveal a thoughtful and persuasive understanding of the past.

Historical Themes

Just as each question on the AP exam deals with one or more of the historical thinking skills, it is also related to one or more of seven historical themes, along with specific thematic objectives detailed in the College Board course description. The seven themes address broad, recurring concerns in U.S. history. They help students think about how political, economic, and cultural institutions, along with foreign relations, developed and changed over more than five centuries. The themes also include the study of interactions with the natural environment, effects of internal and external migration on people, and changes in national and group identities.

Identity (ID) The theme of “Identity” focuses on the formation of both the national identity and group identities. Earlier historians often referred to identity in terms of the “American character.” Today, students should be able to explain how identities related to gender, class, ethnicity, religion, or region have often had surprising continuity but also change over time in response to events. For example, the American Revolution changed the identity of Americans from British colonial subjects to citizens of a free and independent republic. The identity of African Americans and women changed dramatically over the past two centuries as their civil rights and roles in society changed.

Work, Exchange, and Technology (WXT) The “WXT” theme focuses on the development of the American economy from a primarily agricultural era to a highly industrialized and service economy. Students should understand the role of technology and innovation, various labor systems, and how government policies influenced the economy. This theme also explores how markets and international trade affected the development of the U.S. economy.

For example: How did advances in transportation and creation of a market economy affect the ways farmers made a living? How did industrialization change the lives of former agricultural workers and their families?

Peopling (PEO) This theme focuses on how and why people moved to and within the United States, the impact that these patterns had on American society, the values and cultural traditions that American Indians and migrants each had, and the conflicts that arose out of these differences. For example, historians have made much out of the impact of the Scots-Irish on the settlement of the frontier, in politics, and even on American diets. This theme includes understanding the debates over immigration from Irish and German Catholics in the 19th century, through the arrival of southern and eastern Europeans in the early 20th century, to the increase in Hispanic migration in recent decades. Students should be prepared to answer questions about the people who have lived in America.

Politics and Power (POL) The “POL” theme includes not only how governments evolved from the colonial period to the present but how changes in citizen participation affect the political process. Students need to understand the conflicts over power between branches of government, the national and state governments, and voters and special interest groups. This theme also covers the roles of political ideology and political parties that started with the first debates over the U.S. Constitution.

America in the World (WOR) The “America in the World” theme explores the development of United States from its origins in the global context of the “Atlantic World” of the 16th century through the emergence of the United States as a world leader in the 20th century. Students need to understand this development, as well as domestic debates over foreign policy from the Napoleonic Wars through the war on terrorism and the impact of these policy decisions. This theme also explores the economic, labor, and migration impact of international involvement.

Environment and Geography—Physical and Human (ENV) This theme focuses on the interaction of Americans with their environment. Students need to examine how geography and climate contributed to regional differences, the origins and changing debates over the use and control of natural resources, and the human-made environments created by technology. For example, why were Americans on the frontier slow to notice their impact on the environment?

Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture (CUL) This theme explores many sides of American life, including ideas, beliefs, values, science, artistic expression, and popular culture. Students should be able to explain why and how cultural components both hold constant and change over time, as well as the conflicts between traditional and modern values. For example, an exam question might ask how artistic expression changed in response to war or to the growth of industry and cities.

The tracing of multiple themes through each period of U.S. history is an effective way to study and review both during the course and before the AP exam. A thematic approach encourages one to think about specific events in a larger framework and to make judgments about continuity and change over time, comparison, and contextualization.

Historical Periods

The content of AP U.S. History is also organized by a framework of the nine chronological periods. The periods include the following chapters and content:

Period 1 (Chapter 1), 1491–1607 The period from pre-Columbian Indian cultures to the founding of Jamestown covers the interaction of cultures and how Europeans, Native Americans, and Africans created a “new” world.

Period 2 (Chapters 2–3), 1607–1754 Various mixtures of American Indians, Europeans, and African Americans created colonies with distinctive cultures, economies, and populations.

Period 3 (Chapters 4–6), 1754–1800 Wars over empires provided the context for the American Revolution and founding of the United States, including the political struggles to form a “more perfect union.”

Period 4 (Chapters 7–11), 1800–1848 The promise of the new republic played out during a period of rapid economic, territorial, and population growth that tested the political institutions that held the nation together.

Period 5 (Chapters 12–15), 1848–1877 A war with Mexico intensified the conflict over slavery and states’ rights, which led to the Civil War and then to struggles to reconstruct the Union and address the legacy of slavery.

Period 6 (Chapters 16–19), 1865–1898 Industrialization, the rapid growth of cities, and a large new wave of immigration transformed the American economy, society, culture, and regional identities.

Period 7 (Chapters 20–25), 1898–1945 While the United States responded to the impact of industrialization during the Progressive and New Deal years, it also became deeply involved in world affairs during World Wars I and II.

Period 8 (Chapters 26–29), 1945–1980 The United States assumed a world leadership role during the Cold War, while society became more divided over issues of economic and social justice, especially for minorities and women.

Period 9 (Chapters 30–31), 1980–Present A renewed conservative movement challenged the efficacy of government at home, while the end of the Cold War, the spread of globalization, and the increase in terrorism forced it to redefine its policies.

Beginning each period is a one-page introduction that provides an overview of the content, alternative views on periodization, and the key concepts of the period from the College Board’s new curriculum. The key concepts are flexible enough to allow the use of a variety of historically relevant evidence to support them. The College Board no longer provides a detailed factual content outline for the course. Rather, it provides a list of concepts. The subconcepts of the key

concepts are accessible in the AP U.S. History Curriculum Framework on the College Board Web site. This textbook illustrates and supports all of the content identified by the College Board at the time of publication. The text does not cover every historical fact, but it includes all of the essential evidence and understandings needed to address the challenges of the AP U.S. History exam.

The College Board will divide the questions chronologically as follows:

Period 1, 1491–1607: 5 percent

Periods 2 through 5, 1607–1877: 45 percent

Periods 6 through 8, 1865–1980: 45 percent

Period 9, 1980–present: 5 percent

In the AP U.S. history exam, some multiple-choice and short-answer questions will be based on periods 1 and 9, and content from these periods may be used in the long essays and DBQs. However, no long essay or DBQ will focus exclusively on these two periods of history.

History, like any other field of study, is a combination of subject matter and methodology. The historical skills and themes are methods or tools to explore the subject matter of history. One cannot practice these skills without knowledge of the historical content and understanding of specific historical evidence. The following section provides suggestions for development of another set of skills useful for answering the questions on the exam. Again, the “mastery” of these skills, particularly writing answers to AP questions, takes practice.

To the Student: Preparing for the AP Exam Questions

This section explains how to develop the skills needed to answer the four types of questions on the AP U.S. History exam: (1) multiple-choice, (2) short-answer, (3) long-essay, and (4) document-based. On the exam, the long-essay questions are last. In the following section, because once you have developed the long-essay writing skills, you are more than half-way to writing a competent answer to the DBQ, the long-essay is presented before the DBQ.

Answering the Multiple-Choice Questions

The AP exam asks 55 multiple-choice questions, and you will have 55 minutes to answer them. The value of the MCQs is now 40 percent of the student’s grade and each question is related to the analysis of a “stimulus,” such as a primary or secondary source, or an image (photo, cartoon, painting, graph, or map). Each MCQ assesses one or more historical thinking skills but also requires historical knowledge a student has learned studying U.S. history. From two to six questions will be asked about a stimulus. Each question will have one BEST answer and three distractors. Compared to most history tests, the AP exam will place less emphasis on simple recall and more emphasis on your ability to use the historical thinking skills such as using relevant evidence.

This textbook provides preparation for the MCQ section of the exam through the (1) Key Terms by Theme, and (2) three sets of multiple-choice questions (each set based on a stimulus) at the end of each chapter. In addition to the MCQs in the chapters, the practice AP exam includes 55 multiple-choice questions. The MCQs in the chapters are similar to ones on the AP exam but are also designed to review the content and understanding of the chapter.

Analyzing the Stimulus In the new format of the AP exam, all multiple-choice questions will be introduced with a stimulus. Below is one example of a stimulus, a political cartoon. Your first step in analyzing a stimulus, whether an image or reading, is to ask, What was the point of view of the author? What was the author's purpose? Who was the intended audience? What was the context in which it was created? The questions of Who? What? When? Where? and Why? can also help spark your thinking about the stimulus.

You might recognize the patient in the cartoon below, Uncle Sam, a characterization used by political cartoonists since the early 19th century as a stand-in for the United States. The doctor (President Franklin D. Roosevelt) is clearly under pressure from “old lady” Congress to cure the ills of the nation. However, in order to interpret and use the evidence in this cartoon, such as the labeled bottles on the table and the president’s remarks, you need knowledge of the 1930s Great Depression and Roosevelt’s New Deal program (Chapter 24). A stimulus by itself will not reveal the answers to the MCQs, unless you bring the knowledge and skills to effectively unlock and use the evidence.

All MCQs will ask a question related to one or more historical thinking skills. Following are examples of common questions that could be asked about this cartoon or any other stimulus.



Source: C. K. Berryman, *Washington Star*, 1934. Library of Congress

- *Causation:* Which of the following was most directly the cause of the point of view of the cartoon (stimulus)?
- *Continuity and Change over Time:* Which of the following was a continuation of the ideas in the stimulus?
- *Comparison:* Which of the following most closely resembles the point of view of the stimulus?
- *Contextualization:* Which of the following groups would most likely support the perspective of the stimulus?
- *Argumentation:* Which of the following would most directly support the argument in the stimulus?

Making a Choice Read the stem of the question and all four choices carefully before you record your answer. A number of choices may appear to be correct, but you must select the BEST answer. Choices that reflect absolute positions, such as “always,” “never,” and “exclusively,” are seldom correct, for historical evidence can rarely offer such absolute certainty. Keep in mind the need to make judgments about the significance of a variety of causes and effects.

Should you guess on the AP exam? The revised format does not penalize guessing. Obviously, the process of first eliminating of a wrong answer or two increases your chances of guessing correctly.

Budgeting Your Time The AP History exam gives you 55 minutes to answer 55 questions. You will not have enough time to spend two or three minutes on difficult questions. Follow a relaxed but reasonable pace, rather than rushing through the exam and then going back and second-guessing your decisions. Avoid skipping questions and be careful changing answers.

Recommended Activity Practicing sample multiple-choice questions is important before the exam, if for no reason than to reduce the number of surprises over the format of the questions. However, for many students, the review of content through multiple-choice questions is not the most productive way to prepare for the exam. The purpose of the chapter content in this textbook is to provide a useful and meaningful review of the essential concepts and evidence needed for the exam. By reviewing the essential facts in their historical context, you will better recall and understand the connections between events—so important for applying the historical thinking skills.

Answering the Short-Answer Questions

The short-answer type question was added to the AP U.S. History exam starting with the spring of 2015. A typical exam will have four questions of this type and allow students 45 minutes to answer them. Some will have a stimulus, such as a quotation or an image. Short-answer questions, unlike the long-essay questions, do not require the development of a thesis statement but do need to be answered in complete sentences. The College Board’s purpose in asking

these kinds of questions is to broaden the assessment of the student's skills and knowledge. Two of the four questions will have choices for the students, providing students the opportunity to write on what they know best.

Three Tasks—Three Points Each question consists of three tasks, and students receive one point for a successful response to each, so each question is worth three points. Each task tests one or more historical thinking skills.

Reading the Question Read each question carefully, because one part of the question may include two or three tasks as in (a) of the following question:

1. Answer a and b.
 - (a) Choose ONE of the following events listed below, and explain why your choice best represents the beginning of an American identity. Provide at least ONE piece of evidence to support your explanation.
 - French and Indian War in 1763
 - Signing of the Declaration of Independence in 1776
 - Ratification of the United Constitution in 1788
 - (b) Contrast your choice against ONE of the other options, demonstrating why that option is not as good as your choice.

This question requires the use of the thinking skill of periodization and the learning objective of identity. The three uses of “ONE” make very clear each of the three tasks involved for gaining full credit for the answer.

Writing Short Answers Like many students, you might wonder how much to write. Time is limited. “Briefly” is the key word in many short-answer questions. The number of sentences that it will take to answer the question will depend on the skills and content of the tasks contained in the questions. How many sentences you need to write ultimately depends on the quality and content of the sentence. As you practice writing responses to short-answer questions, work on your ability to write *clear* and *complete* sentences supported with accurate evidence.

The task “Briefly explain ONE cause of early European explorations” could be answered in one sentence.

European monarchs chartered and funded exploration because the voyages could result in new territories and increase revenues from trade for the state.

This sentence has a well-defined subject, “monarchs,” and a predicate, “chartered and funded . . . because . . .” that says something accurate about the subject and the cause of exploration. It is possible to pack too much into one sentence, but the sentences must use specific evidence to support your analysis.

Recommended Activity At the end of each chapter, this textbook contains four short-answer questions based on the models provided by the College Board. Some questions may have more options than one might find on the AP

exam. The purpose was not to make them easier but to broaden the review. Of course, students who want to be on the top of their game should be able to explain each option and will be better prepared for the exam.

As you answer the short-answer questions at the end of each chapter, first try to identify the historical thinking skill(s) used in the question. This will help you become more orientated to the purpose of the question, whether it involves causation, comparison, or any of the nine historical thinking skills.

You might need to answer many short-answer questions over several weeks to learn how to budget the ten minutes or so available to answer each part of the three-point questions. To evaluate your progress in answering these short-answer questions, use this simple scoring standard:

1 point for accomplishing the task identified in the prompt

0 points for each task that is not accomplished or completed

For additional information on grading rubrics for the short-answer questions, see the College Board Web site.

Answering the Long-Essay Questions

The AP U.S. History exam gives students a choice between two long-essay questions that focus on the same thinking skill but may apply to different time periods and thematic learning objectives. You will have 35 minutes to answer the one question you select. Each essay will be evaluated on the following criteria:

A. Argumentation Develop a thesis or relevant argument that addresses all parts of the question.

B. Use of Evidence Support the thesis using specific evidence, clearly linked to the thesis.

C. Targeted Historical Thinking Skill Each question will also assess an additional thinking skill, such as causation, comparison, continuity and change over time, or periodization.

D. Synthesis Written answers need to synthesize the argument, evidence, and context in a coherent and persuasive essay.

Development of Essay Writing Skills You will most benefit from starting the practice of writing AP history essays as early as possible. Instead of writing and rewriting complete essays until all elements are mastered, break down the skills needed to write an effective AP history essay into sequential steps. The following steps have proved useful in developing the skills needed to answer the AP long-essay question:

1. Analyze the Question

2. Organize the Evidence

3. Develop the Thesis
4. Write the Introductory Paragraph
5. Write the Supporting Paragraphs and Conclusion
6. Evaluate Your Essay

Let's look at the steps that you can practice to develop long-essay writing skills for the AP exam.

1. Analyze the Question Taking the time to consider what the question really asks is often overlooked in the rush to start writing. Stop and ask yourself, "What is the targeted historical thinking skill in the question? Causation? Comparison? Continuity and change over time? Periodization?" You might try reading over the question or prompt three times. What is the key word(s) or phrase in the question? Underline it. It could be verbs such as "analyze," "explain" or "support," "modify," or "refute." All questions have one thing in common: They demand the use of historical thinking skills and analysis of the evidence. A long-essay answer will not receive full credit by simply reporting information. Therefore, be on your guard for questions that start out with the verbs "identify" or "describe." Such a question is usually followed by "analyze" or some other more demanding thinking skill. Consider, for example, this AP essay question:

Consider TWO of the following and analyze the ways in which each of the two has affected the identity of women in American society since 1940:

Changing economic conditions

Rebirth of an organized women's movement

Traditional definitions of women's roles

For this essay, it is not enough simply to describe changing economic conditions, women's organizations, and so on. You must also *analyze* the effects that two factors had on the identity of women. Here is a reliable guideline for any AP essay question: *If you think that you can write an essay without making some judgment that results in a thesis statement, you have not understood the question.*

After the kind of judgments needed to complete the essay are clear, all the parts of the question need to be identified. The AP History exam has made some questions easier to understand by clearly structuring the question's parts, as in the above question on the status of women. However, two, three, or more aspects of a question may be embedded in one sentence, as in this example:

Evaluate the relative importance of domestic and foreign affairs in shaping American politics in the 1790s.

This question asks the student to deal with *both* domestic *and* foreign affairs. Failing to deal with both parts of the question will result in a lower grade. It may take only a few seconds to identify key historical thinking skills and the

parts of the essay question. If you do this, you will better understand the question and avoid the mistake of writing a perfectly good essay that receives little or no credit because it answered a question that was not asked.

Recommended Activity As an initial skill-building activity, analyze the essay questions at the end of the period 2. *Underline* the key word(s) that indicate what the writer should do and *circle* the words that indicate the specific parts or aspects of the content that need to be addressed.

2. Organize the Evidence Many students start writing their answers to an essay question without first thinking through what they know, and they often write themselves into the proverbial corner. Directions for the AP History exam advise students to spend some time planning before starting to write an essay. First identify what you know about the question and organize your information by making a brief outline of what you know. You can write your outline in the test booklet. A sample table of the topics that could be treated in answering the essay question about domestic and foreign affairs in the 1790s is provided below. You list facts pertaining to the question to help organize your thoughts, so you can use abbreviations and other memory aids.

The value of taking a few minutes to organize your knowledge becomes quickly apparent. Do you have enough evidence to support your thesis? It is obviously not very productive to select an essay or take a position that you cannot support. Based on this sample outline of evidence, an essay writer should have sufficient relevant knowledge to argue the role of domestic and foreign affairs in the politics of the 1790s. (In addition, of course, your analysis of the evidence should be as good as your recall of them.)

Question: Evaluate the relative importance of domestic and foreign affairs in shaping American politics in the 1790s.		
Domestic Affairs	Foreign Affairs	Politics
Hamilton's financial plan: national debt, tariff, excise tax, Bank of the U.S. Constitution: loose vs. strict interpretation Whiskey Rebellion Alien and Sedition Acts	French Revolution British vs. French Proc. of Neutrality Citizen Genêt Jay Treaty Pinckney Treaty Washington's Farewell Address XYZ Affair Convention of 1800	President Washington Jefferson vs. Hamilton Two-party system Election of 1796 Revolution of 1800

Recommended Activity Create a list of the kinds of relevant information that could be incorporated into the responses to the long-essay questions in the period review. Organize the information under headings that reflect the major parts of the question. This activity parallels the lists developed by AP consultants before readers start scoring essays. It is a very useful prewriting activity.

3. Develop a Thesis A strong thesis is an essential part of every AP History essay answer. Surprisingly, many students seem to have difficulty taking a position. Some are afraid of making a mistake. Again, consider the nature of history. History does not offer the certitude of mathematics or the physical sciences. Disagreement over the interpretation of the historical evidence develops because of the limitations of the evidence available and the differing perspectives of both participants and historians. AP readers are looking not for the “right answer” but for a writer’s ability to interpret the evidence and marshal historical support for that interpretation.

A thesis must be more than a restatement of the question. It requires taking a position on the question and a focus on the appropriate historical thinking skills. The direction for the long-essay may give clear directions on the formation of the thesis, such as “support, modify, or refute” an interpretation. The following thesis is from an essay written in response to the above question:

During the 1790s, foreign affairs contributed more to shaping American politics than did domestic issues.

This statement is straightforward and simple, and it takes a position on the question and the issue of causation. However, for a thesis to be well-developed, it should explain the issues in question. For example, in the above question on the 1790s, the student continued the thesis statement with the following:

While the young nation struggled with questions about powers in the new Constitution, ideological conflicts over the French Revolution, foreign policy divisions created by the Napoleonic Wars, and our relations with Great Britain did more to divide Americans and promote the formation of two political parties during the 1790s.

The thesis not only took a position but also offered an interpretation of events. This interpretation provided the organizing arguments that guided the development of the essay.

Recommended Activity The “Answering an Essay Question” after Chapter 1 offers an exercise on identifying the strongest thesis statement. This exercise can help you identify the important elements of a strong, well-developed thesis. You can repeat this exercise by writing thesis statements for the essay questions at the end of each period. In addition, you could exchange statements with a partner or in a group and ask these questions about each one:

- Does the thesis take a position?
- Does the thesis offer an interpretation of the question?
- Does the thesis offer organizing or controlling ideas for an essay?

4. Write the Introductory Paragraph AP guidelines are reluctant to recommend a specific structure for the introductory paragraph for a history essay, lest they limit a student's creativity. However, many students suffer from poorly organized essays with no thesis statements or an argument so embedded in the essay that it might take several readings to find it. Therefore, you can probably improve your essay by using some organizing principles for writing an introductory paragraph.

Sample Organization for a Long Essay

Paragraph 1: Introduction. Background to question _____

_____ Thesis statement: _____

_____ Preview of main arguments to support thesis _____

Paragraph 2: First Argument. Topic sentence explaining argument _____

_____ Evidence to support argument _____

_____ Additional evidence _____

Paragraph 3: Second Argument. Topic sentence explaining argument _____

_____ Evidence to support argument _____

_____ Additional evidence _____

Paragraph 4: Third Argument. Topic sentence explaining argument _____

_____ Evidence to support argument _____

_____ Additional evidence _____

Paragraph 5: Conclusion. Summary and closing statement _____

An effective introductory paragraph usually contains three elements: (1) the background or context for the question or your thesis, (2) the thesis statement, and (3) an introduction to the main arguments of the essay to be developed in the body or supporting paragraphs. This third element is sometimes called the essay's "blueprint" or "controlling ideas." By the end of the first paragraph,

the reader should not only know your thesis but also have a clear idea of the main arguments to be developed in support of the thesis.

The model for an expository, five-paragraph essay illustrates how a well-organized essay relates back to an effective introductory paragraph. This model also emphasizes the importance of restating the thesis as the supporting paragraphs are developed. Do not conclude from the model that an essay should always consist of five paragraphs, however. The total number of paragraphs and sentences is for the writer to determine. What the model does suggest is that the introductory paragraph is crucial because it should shape the full essay. An effective introduction tells the reader the arguments you will develop in the body of essay and then explains how you will develop that view, identifying the main points you will be making in the body of your essay. If your introductory paragraph is properly written, the rest of the paper will be relatively easy to write, especially if you have already organized your information.

Recommended Activity Practice writing introductions for answers to long-essay questions using the model shown.

Next, follow up the introductory paragraph with an outline of the supporting paragraphs. For each paragraph, list historical evidence that you will link to the thesis. The exercise of writing an introductory paragraph and an outline of your supporting paragraphs helps you in two ways. First, it reinforces the connection of the main points in the introduction with the supporting paragraphs. Second, it requires you to think in terms of historical evidence before you start writing a complete essay.

5. Write the Supporting Paragraphs and Conclusion The number and length of the supporting paragraphs forming the body of the essay should vary depending on the thesis, the main points of your argument, and the amount of historical evidence. To receive the highest possible AP score, you must explain how specific historical evidence is linked to your thesis. Each essay will also have a targeted historical thinking skill, which should shape one argumentation and choice of evidence. For example:

Causation Describes and analyzes causes and/or effects of a historical development, illustrated with specific examples.

Comparison Describes and analyzes reasons for similarities and/or differences in historical developments with specific examples.

Continuity and Change over Time Describes and analyzes historical continuity and change with specific examples.

Periodization Analyzes the extent to which the historical development specified in the prompt (often a date) was of higher or lesser value than a different event, again with specific examples to illustrate the analysis.

Besides a targeted thinking skill, each long essay will also evaluate the skill of synthesis, which involves organizing relevant historical evidence in a coherent and persuasive argument. An effective essay will also explain the context of the question. For example, in the sample question above, the context of the French Revolution is essential to analyzing the foreign policy debate in the United States during the 1790s.

While length is no guarantee of a top grade, the longer essay often receives a higher grade because of its depth of analysis and factual support. However, the goal is not to fill up a specific number of pages but to write an insightful, persuasive and well-supported essay. Many students fail to achieve the full potential of their essay because they seem content to list a few generalities or a “laundry list” of facts. The AP long essays do not require or encourage a narrative style of historical writing or “stories” but analytical essays that support one’s argument with specific knowledge. A concise essay in which every word has a purpose is better than an essay bloated with fillers and flowery language in an attempt to impress the reader.

Other suggestions to keep in mind as you start practicing the writing of history essays for the AP exam are:

- *Write essays in the third person.* Avoid use of the first person (“I,” “we”). Essays in history are also usually written in the past tense, except when referring to documents or sources that currently exist (e.g., “the document implies”). Use the active voice rather than the passive voice because it states cause and effect more strongly (e.g., “Edison created” is in the active voice; “was created by Edison” is in the passive voice).
- *Use specific words.* Clearly identify persons, factors, and judgments. Avoid vague verbs such as “felt” and “says,” and vague references, such as “they” and “others.” Avoid absolutes, such as “all” and “none.” Rarely in history is the evidence so absolutely conclusive that you can prove that there were no exceptions.
- *Define or explain key terms.* If the question deals with terms (such as “liberal,” “conservative,” “sectionalism,” or “manifest destiny”), an essential part of your analysis should include an explanation of these terms.
- *Communicate awareness of the complexity of history.* Distinguishing between primary and secondary causes and effects, between the significant and the less important. Use verbs that communicate judgment and analysis (e.g., “reveal,” “exemplify,” “demonstrate,” “imply,” “symbolize”).
- *Anticipate counterarguments.* Consider arguments that are against your thesis, not to prove them, but to show that you are aware of opposing points of view. The strongest essays confront conflicting evidence.
- *Remain objective.* Avoid rhetoric, especially on social issues. The AP test is not the place to argue that a group was racists or that some were the “good guys” while others were the “bad guys.” Do not use slang terms!

- *Communicate the organization and logical development of your argument.* Each paragraph should develop a main point that is clearly stated in the topic sentence. Provide a few words or a phrase of transition to connect one paragraph to another.
- *Focus on the thesis in the conclusion.* Restate the thesis in a fresh and interesting manner or explain its significance. The conclusion should not try to summarize all the data or introduce new evidence. No conclusion is better than a meaningless effort. If you are running out of time, but have written a well-organized essay with a clear thesis that is restated in the supporting paragraphs, you should receive little or no penalty for not having a conclusion.

Recommended Activity The first effort for writing a complete AP History essay will be a more positive experience for all involved if it is an untimed assignment. After some confidence is gained in writing the long essay, you should apply these skills in the context of a timed test, similar to that of the AP exam (e.g., 35 minutes for the revised long essay). The purpose of this practice is to become familiar with the time restraints of the AP exam and to learn ways of (1) improving your writing, and (2) gaining insight into the type of information needed. The feedback from these practice tests—whether from teachers, peers, or self-evaluation—is essential for making the practice produce progress.

6. Evaluate Your Essay More essay writing does not necessarily produce better essays. Breaking down the process into manageable and sequential steps is one key for improvement. Peer evaluation and self-evaluation both help students to internalize the elements of an effective essay and learn ways to improve. The activity below is a set of questions about how effectively an essay achieves the elements that the AP readers look for in their grading of essays. Using the essay-evaluation techniques can help you better understand the characteristics of a strong long essay.

Activity: Evaluation of the Long Essay

1. Introductory Paragraph Underline the thesis and circle the structural elements identified in the introduction. How effectively does the introductory paragraph prepare the reader for the balance of the essay? How could the introductory paragraph be improved?

2. Thesis How well does thesis deal with all parts of the question? Does the thesis acknowledge the complexity of the question? How could the thesis be improved?

3. Analysis Does the body of the essay provide analysis of the question or does it primarily describe? Does it acknowledge opposing points of view on the questions? How could the analysis be improved?

4. Evidence Is the thesis supported with substantial, relevant information? Is the evidence clearly linked to the thesis? What significant additional information could have been used for support?

5. Errors What minor or major errors in fact or analysis does the essay include?

6. Presentation How well-organized and persuasive is the essay? Do the paragraph composition, sentence structure, word choice, and spelling detract from the essays? Do any specific areas need improvement?

Recommended Activity Teacher evaluation and self-evaluation of essay work is initially less threatening than peer evaluation. However, once a level of confidence is established, peer evaluation will help students become better writers and is often the most useful form of feedback. Below is a generic scoring guide for the long essay based on a draft of the College Board's rubrics for the long essay. (For updates, check the College Board Web site, *Advances in AP*.) Students can use the guide to evaluate their work and internalize the characteristics of a strong essay.

Practice Scoring Guide for Long Essay

Six Possible Points

A. Thesis: 0–1 Point

- 1:** Clear thesis that addresses all parts of the question
- 0:** Weak thesis or thesis that only restates the question

B. Support for Argument: 0–2 Points

- 2:** Supports the thesis using specific relevant evidence and clearly and consistently explains how the evidence supports the thesis
- 1:** Supports thesis using specific evidence
- 0:** Little or inappropriate use of evidence

C. Application of Targeted Historical Thinking Skill: 0–2 Points

- 2:** Describes and analyzes specific examples that illustrate the targeted historical thinking skill
- 1:** Describes examples that illustrate the targeted historical thinking skill
- 0:** Few or no examples that illustrate the targeted historical thinking skill

D. Synthesis: 0–1 Point

- 1:** Essay synthesizes the argument, evidence, and context into a coherent and persuasive essay, and may add analysis or support relevant to the question but beyond that required by the prompt
- 0:** Essay is poorly organized and writing limits comprehension

Answering the Document-Based Question (DBQ)

The 2015 exam format continues to include one Document-Based Question. Students will have 60 minutes to answer it. The College Board has reduced the number of documents in a question to five to seven documents. However, to receive a top grade, students will now need to provide plausible analysis for all or all but one of the documents. The grading of DBQs will also place more emphasis on understanding the background and context of the documents. Students are expected to include at least one or more of the following in their analysis of each document.

- Author's point of view
- Intended audience of document
- Purpose of document
- Historical context

Students also need to continue to use their “outside” knowledge to provide additional historical examples beyond the documents to support their arguments.

The initial mystery of answering a DBQ largely disappears if you remember that it builds on the skills for writing the long-essay question, including the skills of (1) development of a clear thesis, (2) argumentation supported with relevant historical evidence, (3) use of the targeted historical thinking skill(s), and (4) synthesis of your ideas. The difference between a long-essay question and a DBQ is that in the DBQ you must analyze and use all or all but one of the documents in your supporting arguments. The documents serve two purposes: (1) an additional source of relevant evidence (in addition to your outside knowledge), and (2) a way of demonstrating the effective analysis of sources with often differing and conflicting points of view.

The focus on answering a DBQ, just as in the long essay, is to develop a strong thesis that deals with all parts of the question. This sample DBQ illustrates how important it is to identify and address the parts of the question:

Analyze major changes and continuities in the social and economic experiences of African Americans who migrated from the rural South to urban areas in the North in the period 1910 to 1930.

An effective answer would have to address the targeted thinking skill of continuity and change, and the historical social and economic conditions, in both the South and North for the period.

The greatest mistake a novice can make in answering a DBQ is to write little more than a descriptive list of the documents. The arrangement of the documents in the DBQ should not control the organization of the essay. Analyze the documents in terms of evidence to be linked to the thesis, and integrate them into a well-organized and persuasive essay.

In this textbook, you will have dealt with more than a dozen excerpts, cartoons, or other forms of a “stimulus” before practicing the first DBQ. There are ten DBQs in the reviews at the ends of period 2 through period 8 and another DBQ in the practice exam. Each DBQ answer should be written using the following directions adapted from the College Board:

Answering Document-Based Questions

Directions: Question 1 is based on the accompanying documents. The documents have been edited for the purpose of this exercise. You are advised to spend 15 minutes planning and 45 minutes writing your answer.

In your response you should do the following.

- State a relevant thesis that directly addresses all parts of the question.
- Support the thesis or a relevant argument with evidence from all, or all but one, of the documents.
- Incorporate analysis of all, or all but one, of the documents into your argument.
- Focus your analysis of each document on at least one of the following: intended audience, purpose, historical context, and/or point of view.
- Support your argument with analysis of historical examples outside the documents.
- Connect historical phenomena relevant to your argument to broader events or processes.
- Synthesize the elements above into a persuasive essay.

Additional suggestions for writing an effective DBQ:

- Use the first 15 minutes to read and make marginal notes on the documents and to organize them and the relevant “outside” knowledge that you can bring to bear on the question.
- Brief references to the documents are enough. The readers already know the content of the documents, so you do not need to quote them.
- You can establish that you understand the era in question by setting the historical scene early in the essay using your “outside” information.
- Use all of the documents or all but one, but remember that not all documents will have equal weight in supporting your thesis. Communicate to the reader your awareness of the bias or unreliability of a document or how a document which may not support your thesis fits into the context that is relevant to the question.

Recommended Activities For a prewriting activity for the DBQs, students could work in small groups to discuss the author’s point of view, purpose, historical context, and the intended audience of each document. Apply the same skills developed in learning to write a strong long-essay answer. After writing your first DBQ answers, use the practice DBQ scoring guide below to evaluate

and grade your essays. The use of the guide can also help internalize the criteria for writing a strong DBQ.

Scoring Guide Below is a practice scoring guide for DBQ responses based on a draft of the College Board’s grading rubrics for the DBQ (check the College Board Web page, *Advances in AP*, for updates.) You can use the guide to evaluate your work and internalize the criteria for writing a strong DBQ essay.

Practice Scoring Guide for the Document-Based Question

Seven Possible Points

A. Thesis: 0–1 Point

- 1:** Clear thesis that addresses all parts of the question
- 0:** Weak thesis or one that only restates the question

B. Analysis of Historical Evidence and Support of Argument: 0–4 Points

- 3:** Offers analysis of all, or all but one, of the documents both for content and background (*see note below) and uses this analysis to support the thesis
- 2:** Offers analysis of a majority of the documents both content and background (*see note below) and uses the analysis to support the thesis
- 1:** Offers analysis of a majority of the documents (content only) and uses the analysis to support the thesis
- 0:** Offers little understanding or use of documents to support thesis
AND for use of “outside” historical examples
- 1:** Offers analysis of historical examples beyond the document to support thesis
- 0:** Offers no or inappropriate of historical examples beyond the documents

C. Contextualization: 0–1 Point

- 1:** Accurately connects historical content used to support thesis to broader historical developments
- 0:** Does not connect historical content used to broader historical events

D. Synthesis: 0–1 Point

- 1:** Essay synthesizes the argument, evidence, analysis of documents, and context into a coherent and persuasive essay and may add support relevant to the question but beyond that required by the prompt
- 0:** Essay is poorly organized and the writing limits comprehension

* In analysis of the “background” of documents, at least one of the following must be included for credit of 2 or 3 points: author’s point of view, purpose of the document, intended audience, and historical context.

Review Schedule

Under the best conditions, preparation for the AP U.S. History exam takes place within the context of an Advanced Placement or Honors course. However, whether this text is used in conjunction with the course or as a review book before the exam, the teacher or students will benefit from organizing a review schedule before the exam. Many AP candidates find that study groups are helpful, especially if the students bring to the group a variety of strengths.

Following is a sample of a review schedule using this text that either teachers or students might construct to organize their preparation:

Week 1: Periods 1, 2, and 3 (Chapters 1–6), 1491 to 1800

Week 2: Period 4 and part of Period 5 (Chapters 7–13), 1800 to 1861

Week 3: Part of Period 5 and Period 6, (Chapters 14–19), 1861 to 1898

Week 4: Period 7 (Chapters 20–25), 1898 to 1945

Week 5: Periods 8 and 9 (Chapters 26–31), 1945 to the present

Week 6: Complete and review practice test

Staying with such a schedule requires discipline. This discipline is greatly strengthened if a study group chooses a specific time and place to meet and sets specific objectives for each meeting. For example, students might divide the material by chapters and prepare outline responses to key terms and review questions. Some individuals may find it more productive to create a review schedule for themselves. If this review text has been used in conjunction with a history course, your familiarity with the essential content and skills developed in this book should make it an even more convenient and efficient review tool.

PERIOD 1: 1491–1607

Chapter 1 *A New World of Many Cultures, 1491–1607*

Today, the United States is a synthesis, or combination, of people from around the world. The first people arrived in the Americas at least 10,000 years ago. Chapter 1 begins with a survey of how these people lived in 1491, the year before the arrival of European Christopher Columbus in the Americas. His arrival initiated lasting contact between people on opposite sides of the Atlantic Ocean. The chapter and the period end in 1607, with the founding of the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia. The Jamestown settlement marks the beginning of the framework of a new nation.

Period Perspectives Contact between Europeans and the natives of America touched off a trans-Atlantic trade in animals, plants, and germs known as the Columbian Exchange. This trade altered the way people around the globe lived and thought. Within a hundred years, Spanish and Portuguese explorers and settlers developed colonies using natives and enslaved Africans for labor in agriculture and mining precious metals. Natives and Africans resisted oppression by maintaining elements of their cultures. The Spanish and the Portuguese were quickly followed to the Americas by the French and the Dutch, and later by the English.

Alternate View Until the mid-20th century, most historians viewed Columbus and European explorers and settlers as great adventurers who founded colonies that developed into modern democracies. However, in recent years, historians have highlighted the vibrant and diverse native cultures that existed in the Americas before the arrival of Columbus, and how European diseases and violence destroyed so much of these cultures. The native population declined by 90 percent after the arrival of Europeans. To demonstrate this greater emphasis on native culture, historians often begin this period in 1491 rather than 1492.

Key Concepts

1.1: Before the arrival of Europeans, native populations in North America developed a wide variety of social, political, and economic structures based in part on interactions with the environment and each other.

1.2: European overseas expansion resulted in the Columbian Exchange, a series of interactions and adaptations among societies across the Atlantic.

1.3: Contacts among American Indians, Africans, and Europeans challenged the worldviews of each group.

Source: *AP United States History Curriculum Framework 2014–2015*.

A New World of Many Cultures, 1491–1607

Thirty-three days after my departure from [the Canary Islands] I reached the Indian Sea, where I discovered many islands, thickly peopled, of which I took possession without resistance in the name of our most illustrious monarch, by public proclamation and with unfurled banners.

Christopher Columbus, *Select Letters*, 1493.

The original discovery, exploration, and settlement of North and South America occurred at least 10,000 years before Christopher Columbus was born. Some archeologists estimate that the first people to settle North America arrived as many as 40,000 years ago. Waves of migrants from Asia may have crossed a land bridge that once connected Siberia and Alaska (land now submerged under the Bering Sea). Over a long period of time, successive generations migrated southward from the Arctic Circle to the southern tip of South America. The first Americans adapted to the varied environments of the regions that they found. They evolved into hundreds of tribes, spoke different languages, and practiced different cultures. Estimates of the native population in the Americas in the 1490s vary from 50 million to 100 million people.

Cultures of Central and South America

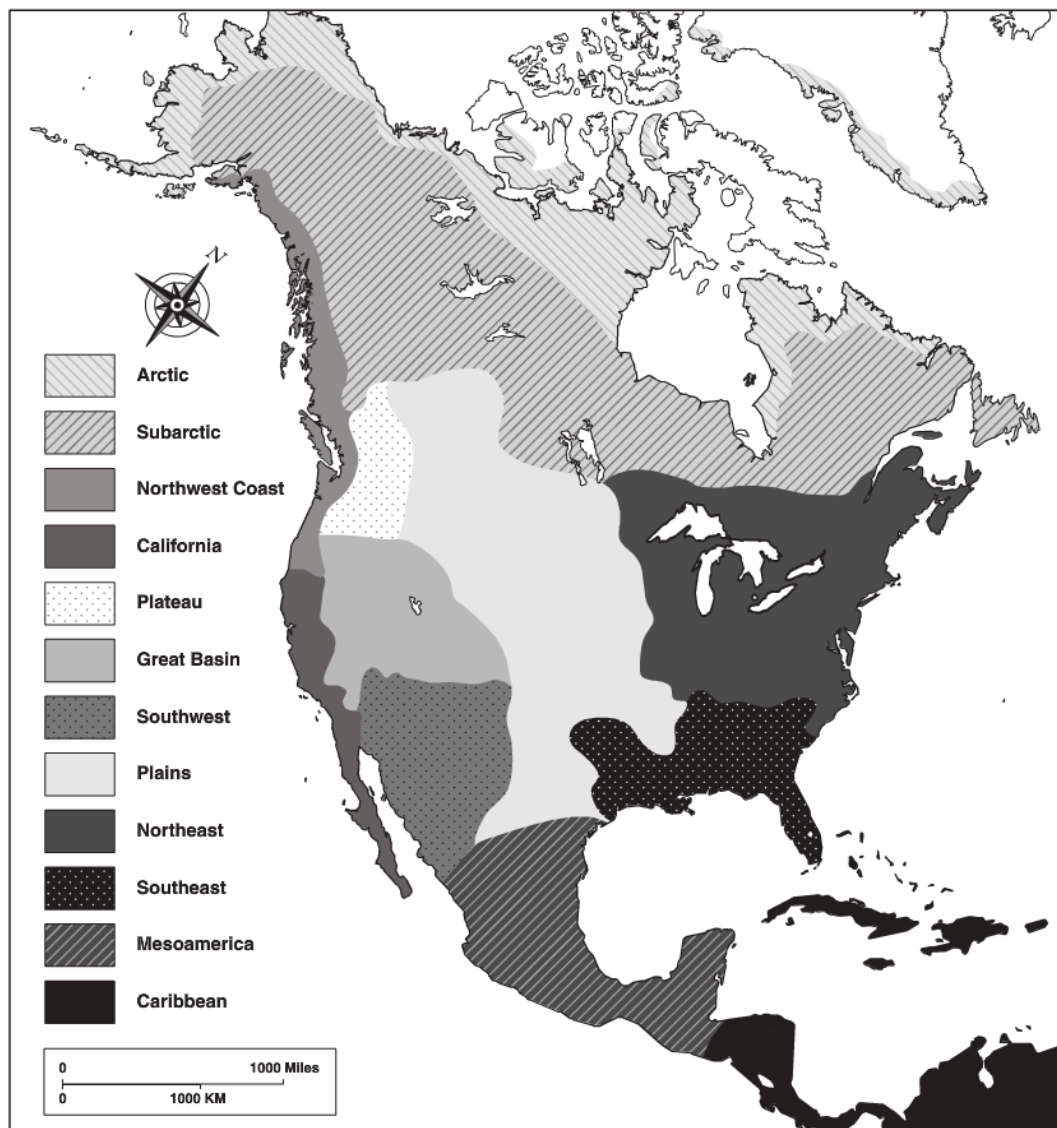
The native population was concentrated in three highly developed civilizations. Between A.D. 300 and 800, the Mayas built remarkable cities in the rain forests of the Yucatán Peninsula (present-day Guatemala, Belize, and southern Mexico). Several centuries after the decline of the Mayas, the Aztecs from central Mexico developed a powerful empire. The Aztec capital, Tenochtitlán, had a population of about 200,000, equivalent in population to the largest cities of Europe. While the Aztecs were dominating Mexico and Central America, the Incas based in Peru developed a vast empire in South America. All three civilizations developed highly organized societies, carried on an extensive trade, and created calendars that were based on accurate scientific observations. All three cultivated crops that provided a stable food supply, particularly corn for the Mayas and Aztecs and potatoes for the Incas.

Cultures of North America

The population in the region north of Mexico (present-day United States and Canada) in the 1490s may have been anywhere from under 1 million to more than 10 million. In general, the native societies in this region were smaller and less sophisticated than those in Mexico and South America. One reason for this was the slowness of the northward spread of corn cultivation from Mexico.

Some of the most populous and complex societies in North America had disappeared by the 15th century, for reasons not well understood. By the time of Columbus, most people in the Americas in what is now the United States and Canada lived in semipermanent settlements in groups seldom exceeding 300 people. The men spent their time making tools and hunting for game, while the women gathered plants and nuts or grew crops such as corn, beans, and tobacco.

NATIVE PEOPLES OF THE AMERICAS, 1491



Language Beyond these similarities, the cultures of American Indians were very diverse. For example, while English, Spanish, and almost all other European languages were part of just one language family (Indo-European), American Indian languages constituted more than 20 language families. Among the largest of these were Algonquian in the Northeast, Siouan on the Great Plains, and Athabaskan in the Southwest. Together, these 20 families included more than 400 distinct languages.

Southwest Settlements In the dry region that now includes New Mexico and Arizona, groups such as the Hokokam, Anasazi, and Pueblos evolved multifaceted societies supported by farming with irrigation systems. In large numbers they lived in caves, under cliffs, and in multistoried buildings. By the time Europeans arrived, extreme drought and other hostile natives had taken their toll on these groups. However, much of their way of life was preserved in the arid land and their stone and masonry dwellings.

Northwest Settlements Along the Pacific coast from what is today Alaska to northern California, people lived in permanent longhouses or plank houses. They had a rich diet based on hunting, fishing, and gathering nuts, berries, and roots. To save stories, legends, and myths, they carved large totem poles. The high mountain ranges in this region isolated tribes from one another, creating barriers to development.

Great Plains Most people who lived on the Great Plains were either nomadic hunters or sedentary people who farmed and traded. The nomadic tribes survived on hunting, principally the buffalo, which supplied their food as well as decorations, crafting tools, knives, and clothing. They lived in tepees, frames of poles covered in animal skins, which were easily disassembled and transported. While the farming tribes also hunted buffalo, they lived permanently in earthen lodges often along rivers. They raised corn, beans, and squash while actively trading with other tribes. Not until the 17th century did American Indians acquire horses by trading or stealing them from Spanish settlers. With horses, tribes such as the Lakota Sioux moved away from farming to hunting and easily following the buffalo across the plains. The plains tribes would at times merge or split apart as conditions changed. Migration also was common. For example, the Apaches gradually migrated southward from Canada to Texas.

Midwest Settlements East of the Mississippi River, the Woodland American Indians prospered with a rich food supply. Supported by hunting, fishing, and agriculture, many permanent settlements developed in the Mississippi and Ohio River valleys and elsewhere. The Adena-Hopewell culture, centered in what is now Ohio, is famous for the large earthen mounds it created, some as large as 300 feet long. One of the largest settlements in the Midwest was Cahokia (near present-day East St. Louis, Illinois), with as many as 30,000 inhabitants.

Northeast Settlements Some descendants of the Adena-Hopewell culture spread from the Ohio Valley into New York. Their culture combined hunting

and farming. However, their farming techniques exhausted the soil quickly, so people had to move to fresh land frequently. Among the most famous groups of American Indians in this region was the Iroquois Confederation, a political union of five independent tribes who lived in the Mohawk Valley of New York. The five tribes were the Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida, and Mohawk. Multiple families related through a mother lived in longhouses, up to 200 feet long. From the 16th century through the American Revolution, the Iroquois were a powerful force, battling rival American Indians as well as Europeans.

Atlantic Seaboard Settlements In the area from New Jersey south to Florida lived the people of the Coastal Plains. Many were descendants of the Woodland mound builders and built timber and bark lodgings along rivers. The rivers and the Atlantic Ocean provided a rich source of food.

Europe Moves Toward Exploration

Until the late 1400s, Americans and the people of Europe, Africa, and Asia had no knowledge of the people on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean. While Vikings from Scandinavia had visited Greenland and North America around the year 1000, these voyages had no lasting impact. Columbus's voyages of exploration finally brought people into contact across the Atlantic. Several factors made an oceanic crossing and exploration possible in the late 15th century.

Improvements in Technology

In Europe, a rebirth of classical learning prompted an outburst of artistic and scientific activity in the 15th and 16th centuries known as the Renaissance. Several of the technological advances during the Renaissance resulted from Europeans making improvements in the inventions of others. For example, they began to use gunpowder (invented by the Chinese) and the sailing compass (adopted from Arab merchants who learned about it from the Chinese). Europeans also made major improvements in shipbuilding and mapmaking. In addition, the invention of the printing press in the 1450s aided the spread of knowledge across Europe.

Religious Conflict

The later years of the Renaissance were a time of intense religious zeal and conflict. The Roman Catholic Church that had once dominated Western Europe was threatened from without by Ottoman Turks who were followers of Islam and from within by a revolt against the pope's authority.

Catholic Victory in Spain In the 8th century, Islamic invaders from North Africa, known as Moors, rapidly conquered most of what is now Spain. Over the next several centuries, Spanish Christians reconquered much of the land and set up several independent kingdoms. Two of the largest of these kingdoms united when Isabella, queen of Castile, and Ferdinand, king of Aragon, married in 1469. In 1492, under the leadership of Isabella and Ferdinand, the Spanish conquered the last Moorish stronghold in Spain, the city of Granada. In that year, the monarchs also funded Christopher Columbus on his historic

first voyage. The uniting of Spain under Isabella and Ferdinand, the conquest of Granada, and the launching of Columbus signaled new leadership, hope, and power for Europeans who followed the Roman Catholic faith.

Protestant Revolt in Northern Europe In the early 1500s, certain Christians in Germany, England, France, Holland, and other northern European countries revolted against the authority of the pope in Rome. Their revolt was known as the Protestant Reformation. Conflict between Catholics and Protestants led to a series of religious wars. The conflict also caused the Catholics of Spain and Portugal and the Protestants of England and Holland to want to spread their own versions of Christianity to people in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. Thus, a religious motive for exploration and colonization was added to political and economic motives.

Expanding Trade

Economic motives for exploration grew out of a fierce competition among European kingdoms for increased trade with Africa, India, and China. In the past, merchants had traveled from the Italian city-state of Venice and the Byzantine city of Constantinople on a long, slow, expensive overland route that reached all the way to the capital of the Chinese empire. This land route to Asia had become blocked in 1453 when the Ottoman Turks seized control of Constantinople.

New Routes So the challenge to finding a new way to the rich Asian trade appeared to be by sailing either south along the West African coast east to China, or sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean. The Portuguese, who realized the route south and east was the shortest path, thought this option seemed more promising. Voyages of exploration sponsored by Portugal's Prince Henry the Navigator eventually succeeded in opening up a long sea route around South Africa's Cape of Good Hope. In 1498, the Portuguese sea captain Vasco da Gama was the first European to reach India via this route. By this time, Columbus had attempted what he mistakenly believed would be a shorter route to Asia.

Slave Trading Since ancient times people in Europe, Africa, and Asia had enslaved people captured in wars. In the 15th century, the Portuguese began trading for slaves from West Africa. They used the slaves to work newly established sugar plantations on the Madeira and Azores islands off the African coast. Producing sugar with slave labor was so profitable that when Europeans later established colonies in the Americas, they used the slave system there.

African Resistance Enslaved Africans resisted slavery in whatever ways they could. Though transported thousands of miles from their homelands and brutally repressed, they often ran away, sabotaged work, or revolted. And for generations they maintained aspects of their African culture, particularly in music, religion, and folkways.

Developing Nation-States

Europe was also changing politically in the 15th century. Small kingdoms, such as Castile and Aragon, were uniting into larger ones. Enormous multiethnic empires, such as the sprawling Holy Roman Empire in central Europe, were

breaking up. Replacing the small kingdoms and the multiethnic empires were nation-states, countries in which the majority of people shared both a common culture and common loyalty toward a central government. The monarchs of the emerging nation-states, such as Isabella and Ferdinand of Spain; Prince Henry the Navigator of Portugal; and similar monarchs of France, England, and the Netherlands; depended on trade to bring in needed revenues and on the church to justify their right to rule. They used their power to search for riches abroad and to spread the influence of their version of Christianity to new overseas dominions.

Early Explorations

Changing economic, political, and social conditions in Europe shaped the ambitions of the Italian-born Christopher Columbus.

Christopher Columbus

Columbus spent eight years seeking financial support for his plan to sail west from Europe to the “Indies.” Finally, in 1492, he succeeded in winning the backing of Isabella and Ferdinand. The two Spanish monarchs were then at the height of their power, having just defeated the Moors in Granada. They agreed to outfit three ships and to make Columbus governor, admiral, and viceroy of all the lands that he would claim for Spain.

After sailing from the Canary Islands on September 6, Columbus landed on an island in the Bahamas on October 12. His success in reaching lands on the other side of the ocean brought him a burst of glory in Spain. But three subsequent voyages across the Atlantic were disappointing—he found little gold, few spices, and no simple path to China and India.

Columbus’s Legacy Columbus died in 1506, still believing that he had found a western route to Asia. However, many Spaniards viewed Columbus as a failure because they suspected that he had found not a valuable trade route, but a “New World.” Today, some people scoff at Columbus for having erroneously giving the people he encountered the name “Indians.” Even the land that he had explored was named for someone else, Amerigo Vespucci, another Italian sailor. Columbus’s critics also point out the many problems and injustices suffered by the natives of the Americas after Europeans arrived and took over their land.

Nevertheless, most historians agree on Columbus’s importance. Modern scholars have recognized his great skills as a navigator and his daring commitment in going forth where nobody else had ever dared to venture. Furthermore, Columbus’s voyages brought about, for the first time in history, permanent interaction between people from all over the globe. He changed the world forever.

Exchanges Europeans and the original inhabitants of the Americas had developed vastly different cultures over the millennia. The contact between them resulted in the Columbian Exchange, a transfer of plants, animals, and germs from one side of the Atlantic to the other for the first time. Europeans learned about many new plants and foods, including beans, corn, sweet and

white potatoes, tomatoes, and tobacco. They also contracted a new disease, syphilis. Europeans introduced to the Americas sugar cane, bluegrasses, pigs, and horses, as well as the wheel, iron implements, and guns. Deadlier than all the guns was the European importation of germs and diseases, such as smallpox and measles, to which the natives had no immunity. Millions died (there was a mortality rate of more than 90 percent), including entire tribal communities. These exchanges, biological and cultural, would permanently change the entire world.

Dividing the Americas

Spain and Portugal were the first European kingdoms to claim territories in the Americas. Their claims overlapped, leading to disputes. The Catholic monarchs of the two countries turned to the pope in Rome to resolve their differences. In 1493, the pope drew a vertical, north-south line on a world map, called the *line of demarcation*. The pope granted Spain all lands to the west of the line and Portugal all lands to the east.

In 1494, Spain and Portugal moved the pope's line a few degrees to the west and signed an agreement called the Treaty of Tordesillas. The line passed through what is now the country of Brazil. This treaty, together with Portuguese explorations, established Portugal's claim to Brazil. Spain claimed the rest of the Americas. However, other European countries soon challenged these claims.

Spanish Exploration and Conquest

Spanish dominance in the Americas was based on more than a papal ruling and a treaty. Spain owed its expanding power to its explorers and conquerors (called *conquistadores*). Feats such as the journey across the Isthmus of Panama to the Pacific Ocean by Vasco Núñez de Balboa, the circumnavigation of the world by one of Ferdinand Magellan's ships (Magellan died before completing the trip), the conquests of the Aztecs in Mexico by Hernan Cortés, and the conquest of the Incas in Peru by Francisco Pizarro secured Spain's initial supremacy in the Americas.

The conquistadores sent ships loaded with gold and silver back to Spain from Mexico and Peru. They increased the gold supply by more than 500 percent, making Spain the richest and most powerful nation in Europe. Spain's success encouraged other nations to turn to the Americas in search of gold and power. After seizing the wealth of the Indian empires, the Spanish instituted an *encomienda* system, with the king of Spain giving grants of land and natives to individual Spaniards. These Indians had to farm or work in the mines. The fruits of their labors went to their Spanish masters, who in turn had to "care" for them. As Europeans' diseases and brutality reduced the native population, the Spanish brought enslaved people from West Africa under the *asiento* system. This required the Spanish to pay a tax to their king on each slave they imported to the Americas.

EARLY SETTLEMENTS IN NORTH AMERICA 1600s



English Claims

England's earliest claims to territory in the Americas rested on the voyages of John Cabot, an Italian sea captain who sailed under contract to England's King Henry VII. Cabot explored the coast of Newfoundland in 1497.

England, however, did not follow up Cabot's discoveries with other expeditions of exploration and settlement. Other issues preoccupied England's monarchy in the 1500s, including Henry VIII's break with the Roman Catholic Church. In the 1570s and 1580s, under Queen Elizabeth I, England challenged Spanish shipping in both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Sir Francis Drake, for example, attacked Spanish ships, seized the gold and silver that they carried, and even attacked Spanish settlements on the coast of Peru. Another English adventurer, Sir Walter Raleigh, attempted to establish a settlement at Roanoke Island off the North Carolina coast in 1587, but the venture failed.

French Claims

The French monarchy first showed interest in exploration in 1524 when it sponsored a voyage by an Italian navigator, Giovanni da Verrazano. Hoping to find a northwest passage leading through the Americas to Asia, Verrazano explored part of North America's eastern coast, including the New York harbor. French claims to American territory were also based on the voyages of Jacques Cartier (1534–1542), who explored the St. Lawrence River extensively.

Like the English, the French were slow to develop colonies across the Atlantic. During the 1500s, the French monarchy was preoccupied with European wars as well as with internal religious conflict between Roman Catholics and French Protestants known as Huguenots. Only in the next century did France develop a strong interest in following up its claims to North American land.

The first permanent French settlement in America was established by Samuel de Champlain in 1608 at Quebec, a fortified village on the St. Lawrence River. Champlain's strong leadership won him the nickname "Father of New France." Other explorers extended French claims across a vast territory. In 1673, Louis Jolliet and Father Jacques Marquette explored the upper Mississippi River, and in 1682, Robert de La Salle explored the Mississippi basin, which he named Louisiana (after the French king, Louis XIV).

Dutch Claims

During the 1600s, the Netherlands also began to sponsor voyages of exploration. The Dutch government hired Henry Hudson, an experienced English sailor, to seek westward passage to Asia through northern America. In 1609, while searching for a northwest passage, Hudson sailed up a broad river that was later named for him, the Hudson River. This expedition established Dutch claims to the surrounding area that would become New Amsterdam (and later New York). The Dutch government granted a private company, the Dutch West India Company, the right to control the region for economic gain.

Spanish Settlements in North America

Spanish settlements developed slowly in North America, as a result of limited mineral resources and strong opposition from American Indians.

Florida After a number of failed attempts and against the strong resistance of American Indians in the region, the Spanish established a permanent settlement at St. Augustine in 1565. Today, St. Augustine is the oldest city in North America founded by Europeans.

New Mexico Santa Fe was established as the capital of New Mexico in 1610. Harsh efforts to Christianize the American Indians caused the Pueblo people to revolt in 1680. The Spanish were driven from the area until 1692.

Texas In between Florida and New Mexico, the Spanish established settlements in Texas. These communities grew in the early 1700s as Spain attempted to resist French efforts to explore the lower Mississippi River.

California In response to Russian exploration from Alaska, the Spanish established permanent settlements at San Diego in 1769 and San Francisco in 1776. By 1784, a series of missions or settlements had been established along the California coast by members of the Franciscan order. Father Junípero Serra founded nine of these missions.

European Treatment of Native Americans

Most Europeans looked down upon Native Americans. The Europeans who colonized North and South America generally viewed Native Americans as inferior people who could be exploited for economic gain, converted to Christianity, and used as military allies. However, Europeans used various approaches for controlling Native Americans and operating their colonies.

Spanish Policy

The Spanish who settled in Mexico and Peru encountered the highly organized Aztec and Inca empires. Even after diseases killed most natives, millions remained in these empires that the Spanish could incorporate as laborers in their own empire. Many natives who did not die from disease died from forced labor. Because few families came from Spain to settle the empire, the explorers and soldiers intermarried with natives as well as with Africans. The latter were captured in Africa and forced to travel across the ocean to provide slave labor for the Spanish colonists. A rigid class system developed in the Spanish colonies, one dominated by pure-blooded Spaniards.

Bartolomé de Las Casas One European who dissented from the views of most Europeans toward Native Americans was a Spanish priest named Bartolomé de Las Casas. Though he had owned land and slaves in the West Indies and had fought in wars against the Indians, he eventually became an advocate for better treatment for Indians. He persuaded the king to institute the New Laws of 1542. These laws ended Indian slavery, halted forced Indian labor, and began to end the *encomienda* system which kept the Indians in serfdom. Conservative Spaniards, eager to keep the *encomienda* system, responded and successfully pushed the king to repeal parts of the New Laws.

Valladolid Debate The debate over the role for Indians in the Spanish colonies came to a head in a formal debate in 1550–1551 in Valladolid, Spain. On one side, Las Casas argued that the Indians were completely human and morally equal to Europeans, so enslaving them was not justified. On the other side, another priest, Juan Ginés de Sepúlveda, argued that Indians were less than human. Hence, they benefited from serving the Spaniards in the *encomienda* system. Neither side clearly won the debate. Though Las Casas was unable to gain equal treatment for Native Americans, he established the basic arguments on behalf of justice for Indians.

English Policy

Unlike the Spanish, the English settled in areas without large native empires that could be controlled as a workforce. In addition, many English colonists came in families rather than as single young men, so marriage with natives was less common. Initially, at least in Massachusetts, the English and the American Indians coexisted, traded, and shared ideas. American Indians taught the settlers how to grow new crops such as corn and showed them how to hunt in the forests. They traded various furs for an array of English manufactured goods, including iron tools and weapons. But peaceful relations soon gave way to conflict and open warfare. The English had no respect for American Indian cultures, which they viewed as primitive or “savage.” For their part, American Indians saw their way of life threatened as the English began to take more land to support their ever-increasing population. The English occupied the land and forced the small, scattered tribes they encountered to move away from the coast to inland territories. They expelled the natives rather than subjugating them.

French Policy

The French, looking for furs and converts to Catholicism, viewed American Indians as potential economic and military allies. Compared to the Spaniards and the English, the French maintained good relations with the tribes they encountered. Seeking to control the fur trade, the French built trading posts throughout the St. Lawrence Valley, the Great Lakes region, and along the Mississippi River. At these posts, they exchanged French goods for beaver pelts and other furs collected by American Indians. Because the French had few colonists, farms, or towns, they posed less threat to the native population than did other Europeans. In addition, French soldiers assisted the Huron people in fighting their traditional enemy, the Iroquois.

Native American Reaction

North American tribes saw themselves as groups distinct from each other, not as part of a larger body of Native Americans. As a result, European settlers rarely had to be concerned with a unified response from the Native Americans. Initially the European goods such as copper pots and guns had motivated the natives to interact with the strangers. After the decimation of their peoples from the violence and disease of the Europeans, the Native Americans had to adopt new ways to survive. Upon observing the Europeans fighting each other, some tribes allied themselves with one European power or another in hopes of gaining support in order to survive. A number of tribes simply migrated to new land to get away from the slowly encroaching settlers. Regardless of how they dealt with the European invasion, Native Americans would never be able to return to the life they had known prior to 1492.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES: WAS COLUMBUS A GREAT HERO?

Over the centuries, Columbus has received both praise for his role as a “discoverer” and blame for his actions as a “conqueror.” In the United States, he has traditionally been viewed as a hero. As early as 1828, Washington Irving wrote a popular biography extolling the explorer’s virtues. The apex of Columbus’s heroic reputation was reached in 1934 when President Franklin Roosevelt declared October 12 a national holiday.

Since the 1990s, however, revisionist histories and biographies have been highly critical of Columbus. His detractors argue that Columbus was simply at the right place at the right time. Europe at the end of the 15th century was ready to expand. If Columbus had not crossed the Atlantic in 1492, some other explorer—perhaps Vespucci or Cabot—would have done so a few years later. According to this interpretation, Columbus was little more than a good navigator and a self-promoter who exploited an opportunity.

Some revisionists take a harsh view of Columbus and regard him not as the first discoverer of America but rather as its first conqueror. They portray him as a religious fanatic in the European Christian tradition who sought to convert the American natives to Christianity and liquidated those who resisted.

The revisionist argument has not gone unanswered. For example, historian Arthur M. Schlesinger Jr. has argued that the chief motivation for Columbus’s deeds was neither greed for gold nor ambition for conquest. What drove him, in Schlesinger’s view, was the challenge of the unknown. Columbus’s apologists admit that millions of Native Americans died as a result of European exploration in the Americas, but they point out that an unknown number had suffered horrible deaths in Aztec sacrifices. Moreover, the mistreatment of Native Americans was perhaps partially offset by such positive results as the gradual development of democratic institutions in the colonies and later the United States.

Historians will continue to debate the nature of Columbus’s achievement. As with other historical questions, distinguishing between fact and fiction and separating a writer’s personal biases from objective reality is difficult. One conclusion is inescapable: As a result of Columbus’s voyages, world history took a sharp turn in a new direction. His explorations established a permanent point of contact between Europeans and the first Americans, and soon between both groups and Africans. People are still living with the consequences of this interaction.

KEY TERMS BY THEME

Exchange and Interaction (WXT, ENV)

corn
horses
disease

Labor Systems (WXT)

encomienda system
asiento system
slavery

Migration (PEO)

land bridge
Adena-Hopewell
Hokokam, Anasazi, and
Pueblos
Woodland mound
builders
Lakota Sioux

Identity and Politics (ID, POL)

Mayas
Incas
Aztecs
conquistadores
Hernan Cortés
Francisco Pizarro
New Laws of 1542
Roanoke Island

Atlantic Trade (WOR)

compass
printing press
Ferdinand and Isabella
Protestant Reformation
Henry the Navigator
Christopher Columbus
Treaty of Tordesillas
slave trade
nation-state

American Indians (PEO, POL)

Algonquian
Siouan
Iroquois Confederation
longhouses

Search for Resources (ENV)

John Cabot
Jacques Cartier
Samuel de Champlain
Henry Hudson

Values and Attitudes (CUL)

Bartolomé de Las Casas
Valladolid Debate
Juan Ginés de
Sepúlveda

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

Questions 1–2 refer to the excerpt below.

“To oppose those hordes of northern tribes, singly and alone, would prove certain destruction. We can make no progress in that way. We unite ourselves into one common band of brothers. We must have but one voice. Many voices makes confusion. We must have one fire, one pipe and one war club. This will give us strength. If our warriors are united they can defeat the enemy and drive them from our land; If we do this, we are safe

“And you of the different nations of the south, and you of the west, may place yourselves under our protection, and we will protect you. We earnestly desire the alliance and friendship of you all”

—Chief Elias Johnson, *Legends, Traditions, and Laws of the Iroquois, or Six Nations, and History of the Tuscarora Indians*, 1881

1. According to Johnson, which of the following was the primary reason for the tribes to unite?
 - (A) To increase trade
 - (B) To provide for self-defense
 - (C) To gain additional land
 - (D) To make the Tuscarora leaders
2. Which of the following factors best explains why Native American efforts to unite were rare?
 - (A) Most tribes were isolated from each other
 - (B) Europeans discouraged tribes from uniting
 - (C) People had different foods and cultures
 - (D) Tribes had traditions of independence

Questions 3–5 refer to the excerpt below.

“Concerning the treatment of Native American workers:

When they were allowed to go home, they often found it deserted and had no other recourse than to go out into the woods to find food and to die. When they fell ill, which was very frequently because they are a delicate people unaccustomed to such work, the Spaniards did not believe them and pitilessly called them lazy dogs, and kicked and beat them; and when illness was apparent they sent them home as useless, giving them some cassava for the twenty- to eighty-league journey. They would go then, falling into the first stream and dying there in desperation; others would hold on longer, but very few ever made it home. I sometimes came upon dead bodies on my way, and upon others who were gasping and moaning in their death agony, repeating ‘Hungry, hungry.’”

—Bartolomé de Las Casas, priest and social reformer,
In Defense of the Indian, c. 1550

3. Which of the following best explains the underlying cause of the Spanish actions described by Las Casas?
 - (A) Racism
 - (B) Religion
 - (C) Desire for wealth
 - (D) Fear of native power
4. The primary audience that Las Casas hoped to influence by his writing was
 - (A) the monarchs of Spain
 - (B) the Roman Catholic Church
 - (C) the conquistadores
 - (D) the Native Americans
5. Which of the following factors that affected Native Americans is directly implied but not stated in this excerpt?
 - (A) Many Spaniards were sympathetic to the Native Americans
 - (B) The Catholic Church was trying to help the Native Americans
 - (C) European diseases were killing millions of Native Americans
 - (D) The Spanish faced strong resistance from Native Americans

Questions 6–7 refer to the excerpt below.

“Apart from his navigational skills, what most set Columbus apart from other Europeans of his day were not the things that he believed, but the intensity with which he believed in them and the determination with which he acted upon those beliefs. . . .

“Columbus was, in most respects, merely an especially active and dramatic embodiment of the European—and especially the Mediterranean—mind and soul of his time: a religious fanatic obsessed with the conversion, conquest, or liquidation of all non-Christians; a latter-day Crusader in search of personal wealth and fame, who expected the enormous and mysterious world he had found to be filled with monstrous races inhabiting wild forests, and with golden people living in Eden.”

—David E. Stannard, historian, *American Holocaust: Columbus and the Conquest of the New World*, 1992

6. Which of the following European nations would be the least likely to share the characteristics Stannard uses in describing Columbus?
 - (A) England
 - (B) France
 - (C) Portugal
 - (D) Spain
7. Which of the following is a reason historians are most likely to criticize the view of Columbus expressed in this excerpt?
 - (A) It ignores the period in which Columbus lived
 - (B) It displays a bias against Christians
 - (C) It skips over the progress brought by Columbus
 - (D) It uses highly charged language

Questions 8–9 refer to the excerpt below.

“The province of Quivira is 950 leagues from Mexico. Where I reached it, it is in the fortieth degree [of latitude]. . . . I have treated the natives of this province, and all the others whom I found wherever I went, as well as was possible, agreeably to what Your Majesty had commanded, and they have received no harm in any way from me or from those who went in my company. I remained twenty-five days in this province of Quivira, so as to see and explore the country and also to find out whether there was anything beyond which could be of service to Your Majesty, because the guides who had brought me had given me an account of other provinces beyond this. And what I am sure of is that there is not any gold nor any other metal in all that country.”

—Francisco Coronado, Spanish conquistador, *Travels in Quivira*, c. 1542

8. Based on Coronado’s observations, which of the following best describes Spanish efforts in Mexico in the mid-16th century?
- (A) Exploring lands new to them
 - (B) Establishing colonies
 - (C) Warring with Native Americans
 - (D) Spreading the Christian faith
9. The activities of Coronado and other Spanish and Portuguese explorers in the Americas in the 16th century primarily depended on the support of
- (A) merchants and fur traders
 - (B) the Catholic Church
 - (C) the monarchs
 - (D) enslaved Europeans

SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS

Briefly answer the questions in complete sentences. A thesis is not required.

Question 1. Answer a and b.

- a) Briefly explain, with reference to TWO of the factors listed below, how there came together in Europe in the early 16th century both the motivation and the means to explore and colonize land across the seas.
 - religion
 - trade
 - technology
- b) Briefly explain how ONE of the three factors listed above became either more or less important in colonization by the end of the 16th century.

Question 2 is based on the following excerpt.

“I marvel not a little, right worshipful, that since the first discovery of America (which is now full four score and ten years), after so great conquests and planings of the Spaniards and Portuguese there, that we of England could never have the grace to set fast footing in such fertile and temperate places as are left as yet unpossessed of them. But . . . I conceive great hope that the time approacheth and now is that we of England may share and part stakes . . . in part of America and other regions as yet undiscovered. . . .

“Yea, if we would behold with the eye of pity how all our prisons are pestered and filled with able men to serve their country, which for small robberies are daily hanged up in great numbers, . . . we would hasten . . . the deducting [conveying] of some colonies of our superfluous people into these temperate and fertile parts of America, which being within six weeks’ sailing of England, are yet unpossessed by any Christians, and seem to offer themselves unto us, stretching nearer unto Her Majesty’s dominions than to other part of Europe.”

—Richard Hakluyt, English writer, *Divers Voyages Touching the Discovery of America and the Islands Adjacent*, 1582

2. Using the excerpt, answer a, b, and c.

- a) Briefly explain ONE reason not in this passage for why England was so far behind Spain and Portugal in colonization.
- b) Briefly explain ONE source where the author believes England can find an excellent source to supply potential colonists for the Americas.
- c) Briefly explain ONE development of the late 16th century that challenges or supports the point of view expressed by the writer.

Question 3 is based on the following excerpt.

“I want the natives to develop a friendly attitude toward us because I know that they are a people who can be made free and converted to our Holy Faith more by love than by force. I therefore gave red caps to some and glass beads to others. They hung the beads around their necks, along with some other things of slight value that I gave them. . . . I warned my men to take nothing from the people without giving something in exchange.”

—Christopher Columbus, *Log*, October 12, 1492

3. Using the excerpt, answer a, b, and c.
- Briefly explain the point of view expressed by Columbus in the excerpt.
 - Briefly explain what powerful group in Spain, other than the monarchy, Columbus would be appealing to in the above passage.
 - Provide an example of contact between Europeans and the first inhabitants of America that is not consistent with the above passage.

Question 4. Answer a, b, and c.

- Briefly explain ONE common trait in the policies of two of these European nations toward Native Americans:
 - England
 - France
 - Spain
- Briefly explain ONE difference between the policies of two European nations toward Native Americans.
- Briefly explain ONE reaction of Native Americans to European policies.

THINK AS A HISTORIAN: QUESTIONS ABOUT CAUSATION

Tests often ask students to explain why one event or trait happened after or resulted from another. Which THREE prompts below would best be answered with an essay that emphasizes causation?

- Explain why American Indians were so diverse in 1491.
- How did Spanish colonies differ from English colonies?
- How did religious beliefs influence American colonization?
- Did Columbus reflect the values of the late 15th century Europe?
- Analyze the impact of colonization on Spain.

PERIOD 1 Review: Answering an Essay Question

Writing an Essay: Stating Your Thesis

The AP U.S. History exam includes questions that should be answered with long essays. While no Long-Essay question on the AP US History exam will come exclusively from Period 1, below is an essay question that both helps review the period and initiate the practice of essential essay writing skills. Two aspects of these essays are particularly important to the readers who will be grading them:

1. How clearly does the writer present a thesis (the idea or argument around which the essay is organized) in the essay's introductory paragraph?
2. How well does the writer support his or her thesis with relevant evidence from a historical period?

Sample Question

Writing an essay without a thesis statement would be like attempting to build a house without first laying the foundation. In the same way, practicing the skill of writing the thesis statement is absolutely essential not only to doing well on an AP exam but also to writing a clear and convincing paper on any topic in any subject. Consider three attempts to answer the following essay question:

With the dawn of the 16th century, there came together in Europe both the motivation and the means to explore and colonize territory across the seas. Discuss this statement with reference to two of the following:

- religion
- trade
- technology

Sample Answers

In your view, which of the following THREE introductory paragraphs contains the strongest thesis statement?

- A. By the beginning of the 16th century, Columbus had already explored parts of Central and South America. Immediately following his four voyages, other explorers for Spain were strongly motivated to seek gold and glory in the Americas. Explorers and conquistadores such as Cortés in Mexico, Balboa in Panama, and Pizarro in Peru were quick to establish Spanish claims to large parts of the Americas. An important reason for their being able to do this was the improved design of Spanish ships and such inventions as the compass and the astrolabe.

- B. In the 16th century, Spain's success in conquering and colonizing American lands was based upon fundamental changes that had already occurred in the culture, economy, and technology of Europe in the preceding century. In religious terms, Spain in the late 1490s had unified itself as a Roman Catholic state by defeating the Moors (or Muslims). In economic terms, the desire for increased trade with Asia provided powerful motivation for voyages of exploration. In technological terms, improvements in navigation in the 1400s made it possible for European ship captains to make the long transatlantic crossing to the Americas and back to return home safely.
- C. Columbus's first voyage of discovery in 1492 was followed by other voyages by Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian navigators. Of course, Spanish explorers such as Cortés, Pizarro, Coronado, de Soto, and others were the most successful in establishing claims to American land. Motivated by "God, gold, and glory," Cortés conquered the Aztecs of Mexico while Pizarro conquered the Incas of Peru. Cabral's voyage for Portugal helped to establish that nation-state's claim to Brazil. Henry Cabot's 1497 voyage for England was motivated by the desire to find a northwest passage to Asia. Cabot's voyage, however, did not really have important consequences until more than a 100 years later when England under Queen Elizabeth tried unsuccessfully to found colonies in North America.

Evaluating the Answers

Of course, an essay consists of more than just the first paragraph. But if the graders had only these introductions to evaluate, then they would probably rank B as the most effective, C as the least effective, and A in the middle.

Why is paragraph B the strongest of the three? It is the only paragraph that addresses all aspects of the question. It mentions trade as a motivating force, technology as a means, and religious change as another factor in explaining Spain's success in the early 16th century. Thus, a foundation is laid for more detailed paragraphs that follow: one on religious change, a second on economic change, and a third on technological change.

Paragraphs A and C, on the other hand, fall short of the mark because they are not focused on a main idea. Notice that both consist of specific facts that are only loosely related to the question. Paragraph A ranks higher than C because it addresses both motivation and means, whereas C deals with motivation only. Also, C's information about Cabot in the last sentence, while accurate, strays from the subject of the question. Avoid the temptation to overload your first paragraph with information. Concentrate instead on stating a general thesis, making sure that it ties directly to key phrases in question.

PERIOD 2: 1607–1754

Chapter 2 *The Thirteen Colonies and the British Empire, 1607–1754*

Chapter 3 *Colonial Society in the 18th Century*

In a period of almost 150 years during the 17th and 18th centuries, the British established 13 colonies along the Atlantic coast that provided a profitable trade and a home to a diverse group of people.

Overview From the establishment of the first permanent English settlement in North America to the start of a decisive war for European control of the continent, the colonies evolved. At first, they struggled for survival, but they became a society of permanent farms, plantations, towns, and cities. European settlers brought various cultures, economic plans, and ideas for governing to the Americas. In particular, with varying approaches, they all sought to dominate the native inhabitants. The British took pride in their tradition of free farmers working the land. The various colonies developed regional or sectional differences based on many influences including topography, natural resources, climate, and the background of their settlers. They largely viewed the American Indian as an obstacle to colonial growth. With their emphasis on agriculture came a demand for labor, and this led to a growing dependence on slavery and the Atlantic slave trade to power the economy. The start of the Seven Years' War signified the maturity of the British colonies and the influence of European conflicts in the power struggle for control in North America.

Alternate View Historians disagree on what date best marks the end of the colonial era. Some identify the conclusion of the Seven Years' War in 1763 or the start of the American Revolution in 1775 or the signing of a peace treaty in 1783. Historians who focus on cultural rather than political and military events might choose other dates for both the start and end of the period that emphasize the role of non-English residents, such as the Scotch-Irish, Germans, and enslaved Africans, in the colonies.

Key Concepts

2.1: Differences in imperial goals, cultures, and the North American environments that different empires confronted led Europeans to develop diverse patterns of colonization.

2.2: European colonization efforts in North America stimulated intercultural contact and intensified conflict between the various groups of colonizers and native peoples.

2.3: The increasing political, economic, and cultural exchanges within the “Atlantic World” had a profound impact on the development of colonial societies in North America.

Source: *AP U. S. History Curriculum Frameworks, 2014–2015*, The College Board

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES AND THE BRITISH EMPIRE, 1607–1754

If they desire that Piety and godliness should prosper; accompanied with sobriety, justice and love, let them choose a Country such as this is; even like France, or England, which may yield sufficiency with hard labour and industry. . . .

Reverend John White, *The Planter's Plea*, 1630

Starting with Jamestown (Virginia) in 1607 and ending with Georgia in 1733, a total of 13 distinct English colonies developed along the Atlantic Coast of North America. Every colony received its identity and its authority to operate by means of a charter (a document granting special privileges) from the English monarch. Each charter described in general terms the relationship that was supposed to exist between the colony and the crown. Over time, three types of charters—and three types of colonies—developed:

- Corporate colonies, such as Jamestown, were operated by joint-stock companies, at least during these colonies' early years.
- Royal colonies, such as Virginia after 1624, were to be under the direct authority and rule of the king's government.
- Proprietary colonies, such as Maryland and Pennsylvania, were under the authority of individuals granted charters of ownership by the king.

Unlike the French and Spanish colonists, the English brought a tradition of representative government. They were accustomed to holding elections for representatives who would speak for property owners and decide important measures, such as taxes, proposed by the king's government. While political and religious conflicts dominated England, feelings for independence grew in the colonies. Eventually, tensions emerged between the king and his colonial subjects. This chapter summarizes the development of the English colonies.

Early English Settlements

In the early 1600s, England was finally in a position to colonize the lands explored more than a century earlier by John Cabot. By defeating a large Spanish fleet—the Spanish Armada—in 1588, England had gained a reputation as a major naval power. Also in this period, England’s population was growing rapidly while its economy was depressed. The number of poor and landless people increased, people who were attracted to opportunities in the Americas. The English devised a practical method for financing the costly and risky enterprise of founding colonies. A joint-stock company pooled the savings of many investors, thereby spreading the risk. Thus, colonies on the North Atlantic Coast were able to attract large numbers of English settlers.

Jamestown

England’s King James I chartered the Virginia Company, a joint-stock company that founded the first permanent English colony in America at Jamestown in 1607.

Early Problems The first settlers of Jamestown suffered greatly, mostly from their own mistakes. The settlement’s location in a swampy area along the James River resulted in fatal outbreaks of dysentery and malaria. Moreover, many of the settlers were gentlemen unaccustomed to physical work. Others were gold-seeking adventurers who refused to hunt or farm. One key source of goods was from trade with American Indians—but when conflicts erupted between settlers and the natives, trade would stop and settlers went hungry. Starvation was a persistent issue in Jamestown.

Through the forceful leadership of Captain John Smith, Jamestown survived its first five years, but barely. Then, through the efforts of John Rolfe and his Indian wife, Pocahontas, the colony developed a new variety of tobacco that would become popular in Europe and become a profitable crop.

Transition to a Royal Colony Despite tobacco, by 1624 the Virginia colony remained near collapse. More than 6,000 people had settled there, but only 2,000 remained alive. Further, the Virginia Company made unwise decisions that placed it heavily in debt. King James I had seen enough. He revoked the charter of the bankrupt company and took direct control of the colony. Now known as Virginia, the colony became England’s first royal colony.

Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay

Religious motivation, not the search for wealth, was the principal force behind the settlement of two other English colonies, Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay. Both were settled by English Protestants who dissented from the official government-supported Church of England, also known as the Anglican Church. The leader of the Church of England was the monarch of England. The Church of England had broken away from the control of the pope in Rome, so it was no longer part of the Roman Catholic Church. However, it had kept most of

the Catholic rituals and governing structure. The dissenters, influenced by the teachings of Swiss theologian John Calvin, charged that the Church of England should break more completely with Rome. In addition, the dissenters adopted Calvin's doctrine of predestination, the belief that God guides those he has selected for salvation even before their birth. England's King James I, who reigned from 1603 to 1625, viewed the religious dissenters as a threat to his religious and political authority and ordered them arrested and jailed.

The Plymouth Colony

Radical dissenters to the Church of England were known as the Separatists because they wanted to organize a completely separate church that was independent of royal control. Several hundred Separatists left England for Holland in search of religious freedom. Because of their travels, they became known as Pilgrims. Economic hardship and cultural differences with the Dutch led many of the Pilgrims to seek another haven for their religion. They chose the new colony in America, then operated by the Virginia Company of London. In 1620, a small group of Pilgrims set sail for Virginia aboard the *Mayflower*. Fewer than half of the 100 passengers on this ship were Separatists; the rest were people who had economic motives for making the voyage.

After a hard and stormy voyage of 65 days, the *Mayflower* dropped anchor off the Massachusetts coast, a few hundred miles to the north of the intended destination in Virginia. Rather than going on to Jamestown as planned, the Pilgrims decided to establish a new colony at Plymouth.

Early Hardships After a first winter that saw half their number perish, the settlers at Plymouth were helped to adapt to the land by friendly American Indians. They celebrated a good harvest at a thanksgiving feast (the first Thanksgiving) in 1621. Under strong leaders, including Captain Miles Standish and Governor William Bradford, the Plymouth colony grew slowly but remained small. Fish, furs, and lumber became the mainstays of the economy.

Massachusetts Bay Colony

A group of more moderate dissenters believed that the Church of England could be reformed. Because they wanted to purify the church, they became known as Puritans. The persecution of Puritans increased when a new king, Charles I, took the throne in 1625. Seeking religious freedom, a group of Puritans gained a royal charter for the Massachusetts Bay Company (1629).

In 1630, about a thousand Puritans led by John Winthrop sailed for the Massachusetts shore and founded Boston and several other towns. A civil war in England in the 1630s drove some 15,000 more settlers to the Massachusetts Bay Colony—a movement known as the Great Migration.

Early Political Institutions

From their very beginning, the American colonies began taking steps toward self-rule.

Representative Assembly in Virginia The Virginia Company encouraged settlement in Jamestown by guaranteeing colonists the same rights as residents of England, including representation in the lawmaking process. In 1619, just 12 years after the founding of Jamestown, Virginia's colonists organized the first representative assembly in America, the House of Burgesses.

Representative Government in New England Aboard the *Mayflower* in 1620, the Pilgrims drew up and signed a document that pledged them to make decisions by the will of the majority. This document, known as the Mayflower Compact, was an early form of colonial self-government and a rudimentary written constitution.

In the Massachusetts Bay Colony, all freemen—male members of the Puritan Church—had the right to participate in yearly elections of the colony's governor, his assistants, and a representative assembly.

Limits to Colonial Democracy Despite these steps, most colonists were excluded from the political process. Only male property owners could vote for representatives. Those who were either female or landless had few rights; slaves and indentured servants had practically none at all. Also, many colonial governors ruled with autocratic or unlimited powers, answering only to the king or others in England who provided the colonies' financial support. Thus, the gradual development of democratic ideas in the colonies coexisted with antidemocratic practices such as slavery and the widespread mistreatment of American Indians.

The Chesapeake Colonies

In 1632, King Charles I subdivided the Virginia colony. He chartered a new colony on either side of Chesapeake Bay and granted control of it to George Calvert (Lord Baltimore), as a reward for this Catholic nobleman's service to the crown. The new colony of Maryland thus became the first proprietary colony.

Religious Issues in Maryland

The king expected proprietors to carry out his wishes faithfully, thus giving him control over a colony. The first Lord Baltimore died before he could achieve great wealth in his colony while also providing a haven for his fellow Catholics. The Maryland proprietorship passed to his son, Cecil Calvert—the second Lord Baltimore—who set about implementing his father's plan in 1634.

Act of Toleration To avoid persecution in England, several wealthy English Catholics emigrated to Maryland and established large colonial plantations. They were quickly outnumbered, however, by Protestant farmers. Protestants therefore held a majority in Maryland's assembly. In 1649, Calvert persuaded the assembly to adopt the Act of Toleration, the first colonial statute granting religious freedom to all Christians. However, the statute also called for the death of anyone who denied the divinity of Jesus.

Protestant Revolt In the late 1600s, Protestant resentment against a Catholic proprietor erupted into a brief civil war. The Protestants triumphed, and the Act of Toleration was repealed. Catholics lost their right to vote in elections for the Maryland assembly. In the 18th century, Maryland's economy and society was much like that of neighboring Virginia, except that in Maryland there was greater tolerance of religious diversity among different Protestant sects.

Labor Shortages

In both Maryland and Virginia, landowners saw great opportunities. They could get land, either by taking it from or trading for it with American Indians, and Europeans had a growing demand for tobacco. However, they could not find enough laborers. For example, in Virginia, the high death rate from disease, food shortages, and battles with American Indians meant that the population grew slowly. Landowners tried several ways to find the workers they wanted.

Indentured Servants At first, the Virginia Company hoped to meet the need for labor using indentured servants. Under contract with a master or landowner who paid for their passage, young people from the British Isles agreed to work for a specified period—usually between four to seven years—in return for room and board. In effect, indentured servants were under the absolute rule of their masters until the end of their work period. At the expiration of that period, they gained their freedom and either worked for wages or obtained land of their own to farm. For landowners, the system provided laborers, but only temporarily.

Headright System Virginia attempted to attract immigrants through offers of land. The colony offered 50 acres of land to (1) each immigrant who paid for his own passage and (2) any plantation owner who paid for an immigrant's passage.

Slavery In 1619, a Dutch ship brought an unusual group of indentured servants to Virginia: they were black Africans. Because English law at that time did not recognize hereditary slavery, the first Africans in Virginia were not in bondage for life, and any children born to them were free. Moreover, the early colonists were struggling to survive and too poor to purchase the Africans who were being imported as slaves for sugar plantations in the West Indies. By 1650, there were only about 400 African laborers in Virginia. However, by the end of the 1660s, the Virginia House of Burgesses had enacted laws that discriminated between blacks and whites. Africans and their offspring were to be kept in permanent bondage. They were slaves.

Economic Problems Beginning in the 1660s, low tobacco prices, due largely to overproduction, brought hard times to the Chesapeake colonies Maryland and Virginia. When Virginia's House of Burgesses attempted to raise tobacco prices, the merchants of London retaliated by raising their own prices on goods exported to Virginia.

Conflict in Virginia

Sir William Berkeley, the royal governor of Virginia (1641–1652; 1660–1677), used dictatorial powers to govern on behalf of the large planters. He antagonized small farmers on Virginia's western frontier because he failed to protect them from Indian attacks.

Bacon's Rebellion Nathaniel Bacon, an impoverished gentleman farmer, seized upon the grievances of the western farmers to lead a rebellion against Berkeley's government. Bacon and others resented the economic and political control exercised by a few large planters in the Chesapeake area. He raised an army of volunteers and, in 1676, conducted a series of raids and massacres against American Indian villages on the Virginia frontier. Berkeley's government in Jamestown accused Bacon of rebelling against royal authority. Bacon's army succeeded in defeating the governor's forces and even burned the Jamestown settlement. Soon afterward, Bacon died of dysentery and the rebel army collapsed. Governor Berkeley brutally suppressed the remnants of the insurrection, executing 23 rebels.

Lasting Problems Although it was short-lived, Bacon's Rebellion, or the Chesapeake Revolution, highlighted two long-lasting disputes in colonial Virginia: (1) sharp class differences between wealthy planters and landless or poor farmers, and (2) colonial resistance to royal control. These problems would continue into the next century, even after the general conditions of life in the Chesapeake colonies became more stable and prosperous.

Development of New England

Strong religious convictions helped sustain settlers in their struggle to establish the Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay colonies. However, Puritan leaders showed intolerance of anyone who questioned their religious teachings. The Puritans often banished dissidents from the Bay colony. These banished dissidents formed settlements that would develop into Rhode Island and Connecticut.

Rhode Island Roger Williams went to Boston in 1631 as a respected Puritan minister. He believed, however, that the individual's conscience was beyond the control of any civil or church authority. His teachings on this point placed him in conflict with other Puritan leaders, who ordered his banishment from the Bay colony. Leaving Boston, Williams fled southward to Narragansett Bay, where he and a few followers founded the settlement of Providence in 1636. The new colony was unique in two respects. First, it recognized the rights of American Indians and paid them for the use of their land. Second, Williams' government allowed Catholics, Quakers, and Jews to worship freely. Williams also founded one of the first Baptist churches in America.

Another dissident who questioned the doctrines of the Puritan authorities was Anne Hutchinson. She believed in *antinomianism*—the idea that faith alone, not deeds, is necessary for salvation. Banished from the Bay colony, Hutchinson and a group of followers founded the colony of Portsmouth in

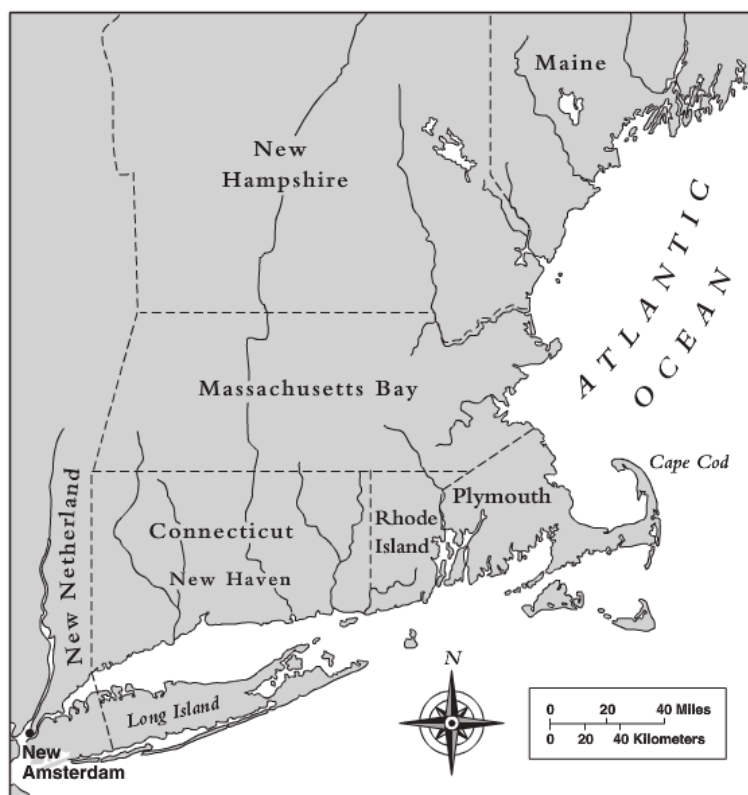
1638, not far from Williams' colony of Providence. A few years later, Hutchinson migrated to Long Island and was killed in an American Indian uprising.

In 1644, Roger Williams was granted a charter from the Parliament that joined Providence and Portsmouth into a single colony, Rhode Island. Because this colony tolerated diverse beliefs, it served as a refuge for many.

Connecticut To the west of Rhode Island, the fertile Connecticut River Valley attracted other settlers who were unhappy with the Massachusetts authorities. The Reverend Thomas Hooker led a large group of Boston Puritans into the valley and founded the colony of Hartford in 1636. The Hartford settlers then drew up the first written constitution in American history, the *Fundamental Orders of Connecticut* (1639). It established a representative government consisting of a legislature elected by popular vote and a governor chosen by that legislature. South of Hartford, a second settlement in the Connecticut Valley was started by John Davenport in 1637 and given the name New Haven.

In 1665, New Haven joined with the more democratic Hartford settlers to form the colony of Connecticut. The royal charter for Connecticut granted it a limited degree of self-government, including election of the governor.

NEW ENGLAND AND ATLANTIC COLONIES 1600s



New Hampshire The last colony to be founded in New England was New Hampshire. Originally part of Massachusetts Bay, it consisted of a few settlements north of Boston. Hoping to increase royal control over the colonies, King Charles II separated New Hampshire from the Bay colony in 1679 and made it a royal colony, subject to the authority of an appointed governor.

Halfway Covenant In the 1660s, a generation had passed since the founding of the first Puritan colonies in New England. To be a full member of a Puritan congregation, an individual needed to have felt a profound religious experience known as a conversion. However, fewer members of the new native-born generation were having such experiences. In an effort to maintain the church's influence and membership, a *halfway covenant* was offered by some clergy. Under this, people could become partial church members even if they had not had felt a conversion.

Other ministers rejected the halfway covenant and denounced it from the pulpit. Nevertheless, as the years passed, strict Puritan practices weakened in most New England communities in order to maintain church membership.

New England Confederation In the 1640s, the New England colonies faced the constant threat of attack from American Indians, the Dutch, and the French. Because England was in the midst of a civil war, the colonists could expect little assistance. Therefore in 1643, four New England colonies (Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, and New Haven) formed a military alliance known as the New England Confederation. The confederation was directed by a board composed of two representatives from each colony. It had limited powers to act on boundary disputes, the return of runaway servants, and dealings with American Indians.

The confederation lasted until 1684, when colonial rivalries and renewed control by the English monarch brought this first experiment in colonial cooperation to an end. It was important because it established a precedent for colonies taking unified action toward a common purpose.

King Philip's War Only a few years before the confederation's demise, it helped the New England colonists cope successfully with a dire threat. A chief of the Wampanoags named Metacom—known to the colonists as King Philip—united many tribes in southern New England against the English settlers, who were constantly encroaching on the American Indians' lands. In a vicious war (1675–1676), thousands on both sides were killed, and dozens of towns and villages were burned. Eventually, the colonial forces prevailed, killing King Philip and ending most American Indian resistance in New England.

Restoration Colonies

New American colonies were founded in the late 17th century during a period in English history known as the Restoration. (The name refers to the restoration to power of an English monarch, Charles II, in 1660 following a brief period of Puritan rule under Oliver Cromwell.)

The Carolinas

As a reward for helping him gain the throne, Charles II granted a huge tract of land between Virginia and Spanish Florida to eight nobles, who in 1663 became the lord proprietors of the Carolinas. In 1729, two royal colonies, South Carolina and North Carolina, were formed from the original grant.

THE THIRTEEN ENGLISH COLONIES
AROUND 1750



South Carolina In 1670, in the southern Carolinas, a few colonists from England and some planters from the island of Barbados founded a town named for their king. Initially, the southern economy was based on trading furs and providing food for the West Indies. By the middle of the 18th century, South Carolina's large rice-growing plantations worked by enslaved Africans resembled the economy and culture of the West Indies.

North Carolina The northern part of the Carolinas developed differently. There, farmers from Virginia and New England established small, self-sufficient tobacco farms. The region had few good harbors and poor transportation; therefore, compared to South Carolina, there were fewer large plantations and less reliance on slavery. North Carolina in the 18th century earned a reputation for democratic views and autonomy from British control.

New York

Charles II wished to consolidate the crown's holdings along the Atlantic Coast and close the gap between the New England and the Chesapeake colonies. This required compelling the Dutch to give up their colony of New Amsterdam centered on Manhattan Island and the Hudson River Valley.

In 1664, the king granted his brother, the Duke of York (the future James II), the lands lying between Connecticut and Delaware Bay. As the lord high admiral of the navy, James dispatched a force that easily took control of the Dutch colony from its governor, Peter Stuyvesant. James ordered his agents in the renamed colony of New York to treat the Dutch settlers well and to allow them freedom to worship as they pleased and speak their own language.

James also ordered new taxes, duties, and rents without seeking the consent of a representative assembly. In fact, he insisted that no assembly should be allowed to form in his colony. But taxation without representation met strong opposition from New York's English-speaking settlers, most of whom were Puritans from New England. Finally, in 1683, James yielded by allowing New York's governor to grant broad civil and political rights, including a representative assembly.

New Jersey

Believing that the territory of New York was too large to administer, James split it in 1664. He gave the section of the colony located between the Hudson River and Delaware Bay to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. In 1674, one proprietor received West New Jersey and the other East New Jersey. To attract settlers, both proprietors made generous land offers and allowed religious freedom and an assembly. Eventually, they sold their proprietary interests to various groups of Quakers. Land titles in the Jerseys changed hands repeatedly, and inaccurate property lines added to the general confusion. To settle matters, the crown decided in 1702 to combine the two Jerseys into a single royal colony: New Jersey.

Pennsylvania and Delaware

To the west of New Jersey lay a broad expanse of forested land that was originally settled by a peace-loving Christian sect, the Quakers.

Quakers Members of the Religious Society of Friends—commonly known as Quakers—believed in the equality of all men and women, nonviolence, and resistance to military service. They further believed that religious authority was found within each person’s soul and not in the Bible and not in any outside source. Such views posed a radical challenge to established authority. Therefore, the Quakers of England were persecuted and jailed for their beliefs.

William Penn William Penn was a young convert to the Quaker faith. His father had served the king as a victorious admiral. Although the elder Penn opposed his son’s religious beliefs, he respected William’s sincerity and bequeathed him considerable wealth. In addition, the royal family owed the father a large debt, which they paid to William in 1681 in the form of a grant of American land for a colony that he called Pennsylvania, or Penn’s woods.

“The Holy Experiment” Penn put his Quaker beliefs to the test in his colony. He wanted his new colony to provide a religious refuge for Quakers and other persecuted people, to enact liberal ideas in government, and generate income and profits for himself. He provided the colony with a Frame of Government (1682–1683), which guaranteed a representative assembly elected by landowners, and a written constitution, the Charter of Liberties (1701), which guaranteed freedom of worship for all and unrestricted immigration.

Unlike other colonial proprietors, who governed from afar in England, Penn crossed the ocean to supervise the founding of a new town on the Delaware River named Philadelphia. He brought with him a plan for a grid pattern of streets, which was later imitated by other American cities. Also unusual was Penn’s attempt to treat the American Indians fairly and not to cheat them when purchasing their land.

To attract settlers to his new land, Penn hired agents and published notices throughout Europe, which promised political and religious freedom and generous land terms. Penn’s lands along the Delaware River had previously been settled by several thousand Dutch and Swedish colonists, who eased the arrival of the newcomers attracted by Penn’s promotion.

Delaware In 1702, Penn granted the lower three counties of Pennsylvania their own assembly. In effect, Delaware became a separate colony, even though its governor was the same as Pennsylvania’s until the American Revolution.

Georgia: The Last Colony

In 1732, a thirteenth colony, Georgia, was chartered. It was the last of the British colonies and the only one to receive direct financial support from the government in London. There were two reasons for British interest in starting a new southern colony. First, Britain wanted to create a defensive buffer to protect the prosperous South Carolina plantations from the threat of Spanish

Florida. Second, thousands of people in England were being imprisoned for debt. Wealthy philanthropists thought it would relieve the overcrowded jails if debtors were shipped to an American colony to start life over.

Special Regulations Given a royal charter for a proprietary colony, a group of philanthropists led by James Oglethorpe founded Georgia's first settlement, Savannah, in 1733. Oglethorpe acted as the colony's first governor and put into effect an elaborate plan for making the colony thrive. There were strict regulations, including bans on drinking rum and slavery. Nevertheless, partly because of the constant threat of Spanish attack, the colony did not prosper.

Royal Colony By 1752, Oglethorpe and his group gave up their plan. Taken over by the British government, Georgia became a royal colony. Restrictions on rum and slavery were dropped. The colony grew slowly by adopting the plantation system of South Carolina. Even so, at the time of the American Revolution, Georgia was the smallest and poorest of the 13 colonies.

Mercantilism and the Empire

Most European kingdoms in the 17th century adopted the economic policy of *mercantilism*, which looked upon trade, colonies, and the accumulation of wealth as the basis for a country's military and political strength. According to mercantilist doctrine, a government should regulate trade and production to enable it to become self-sufficient. Colonies were to provide raw materials to the parent country for the growth and profit of that country's industries. Colonies existed for one purpose only: to enrich the parent country.

Mercantilist policies had guided both the Spanish and the French colonies from their inception. Mercantilism began to be applied to the English colonies, however, only after the turmoil of England's civil war had subsided.

Acts of Trade and Navigation England's government implemented a mercantilist policy with a series of Navigation Acts between 1650 and 1673, which established three rules for colonial trade:

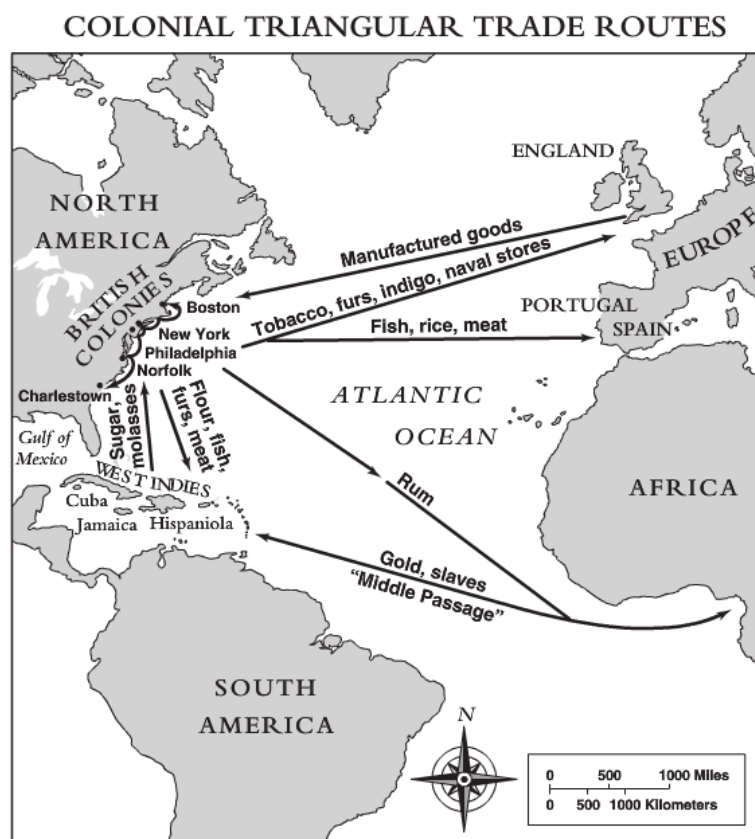
1. Trade to and from the colonies could be carried only by English or colonial-built ships, which could be operated only by English or colonial crews.
2. All goods imported into the colonies, except for some perishables, had to pass through ports in England.
3. Specified or "enumerated" goods from the colonies could be exported to England only. Tobacco was the original "enumerated" good, but over the years, the list was greatly expanded.

Impact on the Colonies The Navigation Acts had mixed effects on the colonies. The acts caused New England shipbuilding to prosper, provided Chesapeake tobacco with a monopoly in England, and provided English military forces to protect the colonies from potential attacks by the French and Spanish. However, the acts also severely limited the development of colonial

manufacturing, forced Chesapeake farmers to accept low prices for their crops, and caused colonists to pay high prices for manufactured goods from England.

In many respects, mercantilist regulations were unnecessary, since England would have been the colonies' primary trading partner in any case. Furthermore, the economic advantages from the Navigation Acts were offset by their negative political effects on British-colonial relations. Colonists resented the regulatory laws imposed by the distant government in London. Especially in New England, colonists defied the acts by smuggling in French, Dutch, and other goods.

Enforcement of the Acts The British government was often lax in enforcing the acts, and its agents in the colonies were known for their corruption. Occasionally, however, the crown would attempt to overcome colonial resistance to its trade laws. In 1684, it revoked the charter of Massachusetts Bay because that colony had been the center of smuggling activity.



The Dominion of New England A new king, James II, succeeded to the throne in 1685. He was determined to increase royal control over the colonies by combining them into larger administrative units and doing away with their representative assemblies. In 1686, he combined New York, New Jersey, and the various New England colonies into a single unit called the Dominion of New England. Sir Edmund Andros was sent from England to serve as governor of

the dominion. The new governor made himself instantly unpopular by levying taxes, limiting town meetings, and revoking land titles.

James II did not remain in power for long. His attempts at asserting his royal powers led to an uprising against him. The Glorious Revolution of 1688 succeeded in deposing James and replacing him with two new sovereigns, William and Mary. James's fall from power brought the Dominion of New England to an end and the colonies again operated under separate charters.

Permanent Restrictions Despite the Glorious Revolution, mercantilist policies remained in force. In the 18th century, there were more English officials in the colonies than in any earlier era. Restrictions on colonial trade, though poorly enforced, were widely resented and resisted.

The Institution of Slavery

More important than mercantilism in the early 18th century was the growth of slavery. By 1750, half of Virginia's population and two-thirds of South Carolina's population were enslaved.

Increased Demand for Slaves The following factors explain why slavery became increasingly important, especially in the southern colonies:

1. *Reduced migration:* Increases in wages in England reduced the supply of immigrants to the colonies.
2. *Dependable workforce:* Large plantation owners were disturbed by the political demands of small farmers and indentured servants and by the disorders of Bacon's Rebellion (see page 29). They thought that slavery would provide a stable labor force totally under their control.
3. *Cheap labor:* As tobacco prices fell, rice and indigo became the most profitable crops. To grow such crops required a large land area and many inexpensive, relatively unskilled field hands.

Slave Laws As the number of slaves increased, white colonists adopted laws to ensure that African Americans would be held in bondage for life and that slave status would be inherited. In 1641, Massachusetts became the first colony to recognize the enslavement of "lawful" captives. Virginia in 1661 enacted legislation stating that children automatically inherited their mother's enslaved status for life. By 1664, Maryland declared that baptism did not affect the enslaved person's status, and that white women could not marry African American men. It became customary for whites to regard all blacks as social inferiors. Racism and slavery soon became integral to colonial society.

Triangular Trade In the 17th century, English trade in enslaved Africans had been monopolized by a single company, the Royal African Company. But after this monopoly expired, many New England merchants entered the lucrative slave trade. Merchant ships would regularly follow a triangular, or three-part, trade route. First, a ship starting from a New England port such as Boston would carry rum across the Atlantic to West Africa. There the rum would be traded for hundreds of captive Africans. Next, the ship would set out on the horrendous

Middle Passage. Those Africans who survived the frightful voyage would be traded as slaves in the West Indies for a cargo of sugarcane. Third, completing the last side of the triangle, the ship would return to a New England port where the sugar would be sold to be used in making rum. Every time one type of cargo was traded for another, the slave-trading entrepreneur usually succeeded in making a substantial profit.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES: HOW INFLUENTIAL WERE THE PURITANS?

To what extent did the Puritan founders of Massachusetts shape the development of an American culture? Although some early historians such as James Truslow Adams have minimized the Puritan role, more recent scholars generally agree that the Puritans made significant cultural and intellectual contributions. There is continuing disagreement, however, about whether the Puritan influence encouraged an individualistic spirit or just the opposite.

Some historians have concentrated their study on the writings and sermons of the Puritan clergy and other leaders. They have concluded that the leaders stressed conformity to a strict moral code and exhorted people to sacrifice their individuality for the common good. According to these historians, in other words, the Puritan influence tended to suppress the individualism that later came to characterize American culture.

Other historians believe that the opposite is true. They raise objections to the method of studying only sermons and the journals of leading Puritans such as John Winthrop. If one examines the writings and actions of ordinary colonists in Massachusetts society, say these historians, then one observes many instances of independent thought and action by individuals in Puritan society. According to their argument, American individualism began with the Puritan colonists.

KEY TERMS BY THEME

Religion (CUL)

Cecil Calvert, Lord
Baltimore
Act of Toleration
Roger Williams
Providence
Anne Hutchinson
antinomianism
Rhode Island
Halfway covenant
Quakers
William Penn
Holy Experiment
Charter of Liberties
(1701)

Crops (ENV)

rice plantations
tobacco farms

Early Settlements (PEO)

John Cabot
Jamestown
Captain John Smith
John Rolfe
Pocahontas
Jamestown
Puritans
Separatists
Pilgrims
Mayflower
Plymouth Colony

Massachusetts Bay Colony

John Winthrop
Great Migration
Virginia
Thomas Hooker
John Davenport
Connecticut
New Hampshire

Later Settlements (PEO)

The Carolinas
New York
New Jersey
Pennsylvania
Delaware
Georgia
James Oglethorpe

Conflict (PEO)

Wampanoags
Metacom
King Philip's War

Self-Rule (POL)

Mayflower Compact
Virginia House of
Burgesses
Sir William Berkeley
Bacon's Rebellion
Fundamental Orders of
Connecticut (1639)
New England
Confederation
Frame of Government
(1682)

Authority (WOR)

corporate colonies
royal colonies
proprietary colonies
Chesapeake colonies
joint-stock company
Virginia Company

Royal Authority (WOR)

mercantilism
Navigation Acts
Dominion of New
England
Sir Edmund Andros
Glorious Revolution

Labor (WXT)

indentured servants
headright system
slavery
triangular trade
Middle Passage

KEY MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS

Questions 1–2 refer to the excerpt below.

“Be it therefore ordered and enacted. . . . That whatsoever person or persons within this Province...shall henceforth blaspheme God, that is, curse Him or shall deny our Savior Jesus Christ to be the Son of God, or shall deny the Holy Trinity . . . or the Godhead of any of the said Three persons of the Trinity or the Unity of the Godhead . . . shall be punished with death and confiscation or forfeiture of all his or her lands. . . . And whereas . . . that no person or persons whatsoever within this province, or the islands, ports, harbors, creeks, or havens thereunto belonging professing to believe in Jesus Christ, shall from henceforth be any way troubled, molested or discountenanced for or in respect of his or her religion nor in free exercise thereof within this province or the islands thereunto belonging nor any way compelled to the belief or exercise of any other Religion against his or her consent.”

—The Maryland Act of Toleration, 1649

1. Which of the following religious groups were the authors of the Maryland Act of Toleration trying to protect?
 - (A) Jews
 - (B) Puritans
 - (C) Quakers
 - (D) Roman Catholics
2. Which of the following best summarizes the attitude toward religious beliefs expressed in this document?
 - (A) All individuals should be free to believe or not believe in God as they wished
 - (B) Religion was a personal matter that the government should not try to influence
 - (C) Christians should be able to practice their faith without fear of persecution
 - (D) The colony should be reserved for the one specific type of Christianity approved by the local government officials

Questions 3–5 refer to the excerpt below.

“These at the heads of James and York rivers . . . grew impatient at the many slaughters of their neighbors and rose for own defense, who choosing Mr. Bacon for their leader, sent oftentimes to the Governor, . . . beseeching a commission to go against the Indians at their own charge; which His Honor as often promised, but did not send. . . .

“During these protractions and people often slain, most or all the officers, civil and military, . . . met and concerted together, the danger of going without a commission on the one part and the continual murders of their neighbors on the other part. . . . This day lapsing and no commission come, they marched into the wilderness in quest of these Indians, after whom the Governor sent his proclamation, denouncing all rebels who should not return within a limited day; whereupon those of estates obeyed. But Mr. Bacon, with fifty-seven men, proceeded. . . . They fired and . . . slew 150 Indians.”

—Samuel Kercheval, Virginia author and lawyer, “On Bacon’s Rebellion in Virginia,” 1833

3. Based on the information in this excerpt, what is Samuel Kercheval’s point of view toward Bacon and his followers?
 - (A) They were dangerous men who threatened colonial stability and prosperity
 - (B) They were frustrated men who were taking action because the government did not
 - (C) They were allies of the governor who carried out actions that he supported
 - (D) They were a primarily political movement that wanted Bacon to become governor
4. Bacon’s Rebellion was initiated by a group of farmers who felt most directly threatened by
 - (A) an increase in royal taxes
 - (B) the power of large planters
 - (C) conflicts with American Indians
 - (D) the growth of the slave trade
5. Which of the following led the opposition to Bacon’s Rebellion?
 - (A) leaders of the Church of England
 - (B) members of the Virginia House of Burgesses
 - (C) soldiers from the British army
 - (D) the colonial governor

Questions 6–8 refer to the excerpt below.

“As touching the quality of this country, three thinges there bee, which in fewe yeares may bring this Colony to perfection; the English plough, Vineyards, & Cattle. . . .

“All our riches for the present doe consiste in Tobacco, wherein one man by his owne laboour hath in one yeare, raised to himself to the value of 200 sterling; and another by the means of sixe seruants hath cleared at one crop a thousand pound english. These be true, yet indeed rare examples, yet possible to be done by others. Our principall wealth (I should haue said) consisteth in servants: but they are chargeable to be furnished with armes, apparel, & bedding, and for their transportation, and casuall both at sea, & for their first yeare commonly at lande also: but if they escape, they proove very hardy, and sound able men.”

—John Pory, Secretary of Virginia, Letter to Sir Dudley Carlton, 1619

6. What did Pory predict for the future of Virginia?
 - (A) it would approach “perfection” because of agricultural products
 - (B) it would prosper by selling “armes, apparel, & bedding”
 - (C) it would decline if its “riches” continued to “consiste in Tobacco”
 - (D) it would collapse unless it found laborers who were “very hardy”
7. Which of the following groups made up most of the servants referred to in the passage?
 - (A) American Indians
 - (B) Indentured servants from Europe
 - (C) Enslaved Africans
 - (D) Women whose husbands had escaped
8. The primary market for the Virginia tobacco crop during this period was
 - (A) Virginia
 - (B) England
 - (C) New England
 - (D) Africa

SHORT-ANSWER QUESTIONS

Briefly answer the questions in complete sentences. A thesis is not required.

Question 1. Answer a and b.

- a) Explain how ONE of the following supports this statement: “Puritan intolerance of dissent led to the founding of a number of new colonies.”
 - Hartford
 - Portsmouth
 - Providence
- b) Identify an individual who founded one of these new colonies and briefly describe his or her basic idea that challenged Puritan principles.

Question 2 is based on the following excerpt.

“[This colony] was for the most part at first peopled by persons of low circumstances. . . . Nor was it hardly possible it should be otherwise; for 'tis not likely that any man of a plentiful estate should voluntarily abandon a happy certainty to roam after imaginary advantages in a New World. Besides which uncertainty, must have proposed to himself to encounter the infinite difficulties and dangers that attend a new settlement. These discouragements were sufficient to terrify any man that could live easy in England from going to provoke his fortune in a strange land.”

—Robert Beverly, historian, *The History and Present State of Virginia*, 1705

2. Using the excerpt, answer a and b.

- a) Briefly explain the main point of the passage.
- b) Briefly explain BOTH whether you agree with the main point AND why you do or do not. Provide evidence from your knowledge of colonial history.

Question 3. Answer a, b, and c.

- a) Briefly explain which of William Penn’s three purposes for his “Holy Experiment” in Pennsylvania—religious toleration, government based on liberal ideas, and personal profit—were not found in any of the other original English colonies.
- b) Briefly explain which of Penn’s three purposes would prove to be the most difficult for him to fulfill.
- c) Briefly explain how one of the other 13 original colonies came close to Penn’s purpose of religious toleration.

Question 4 is based on the following excerpts.

“As to the natives of this country, I find them entirely savage and wild, strangers to all decency, yea, uncivil and stupid as garden stakes, proficient in all wickedness and ungodliness, devilish men who serve nobody but the devil. . . . They have so much witchcraft, divination, sorcery, and wicked arts that they can hardly be held in by any bands or locks. They are as thievish and treacherous as they are tall, and in cruelty they are altogether inhuman.”

—Jonas Michaelius, pastor, Dutch Reformed Church, Letter to Reverend Andrianus Smoutius, 1628

“I confess I think no great good will be done till they [Indians] be more civilized. But why may not God begin with some few to awaken others by degrees? Nor do I expect any great good will be wrought by the English . . . because God is wont ordinarily to convert nations and peoples by some of their own countrymen who are nearest to them and can best speak, and, most of all, pity their brethren and countrymen.”

—John Eliot, Puritan “The Day-Breaking of the Gospel with the Indians,” 1646

4. Using the excerpts, answer a, b, and c.
 - a) Briefly explain the main point in passage 1.
 - b) Briefly explain the main point in passage 2.
 - c) Provide ONE piece of evidence from the colonial period that is not included in the passages and explain how it supports the interpretations in either passage.

THINK AS A HISTORIAN: QUESTIONS ABOUT CONTINUITY

Essay questions often ask students to focus on how a society has stayed the same or evolved over time. Which **THREE** of the questions or statements below would best be answered with an essay that emphasizes historical continuity and change over time?

1. How did the Massachusetts and the Chesapeake colonies differ?
2. Use examples from both New England and Virginia to show the development in colonial America of a pattern of resistance to authority.
3. Describe how attitudes toward equality evolved during the colonial era.
4. Between 1607 and 1754, did the colonies become more or less like England?
5. What caused the colonial economy to prosper?