River (1638), but it was not well supported, and its struggle against great odds ended in 1655, when it was conquered by the Dutch. Greenland and the Virgin Islands were Denmark's closest contacts with the continent of North America.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1. Explain the significance of the term "Commercial Revolution."
- 2. Why did the nations of western Europe consider the Oriental trade so important?
- 3. What was the contribution of Prince Henry the Navigator to the age of discovery?
- 4. Explain the ability of the rising national states to break the Mediterranean monopoly held by the merchants of the Italian city-states.
- 5. How do you account for the leadership of Portugal and Spain in exploration and colonization during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?
- 6. What characteristics of the Spanish colonial empire distinguished it from that of Portugal?
- 7. What was the effect of royal supervision upon the French dominions overseas?
- 8. What were the principal interests of the Dutch West India Company in the Hudson Valley settlements?

CHAPTER II

THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH

Though England began her empire building later than Portugal, Spain, and France, she became the greatest of all the European nations in the planting and governing of colonies overseas. Her insularity, her flourishing commerce, her expanding navy, and the growing strength of her middle classes were great assets in the struggle for world-wide power.

THE PROCESS OF ENGLISH COLONIZATION

The English government never participated in colonial ventures as directly as did the governments of Spain and France; yet the English Crown from the days of Elizabeth I to the closing years of Charles II gave encouragement to Englishmen who were willing to adventure in foreign parts.

The Motives for Expansion. Statesmen and publicists who advocated the planting of English colonies in the New World were inspired by a wide range of motives. Most important were: (1) the desire to weaken Spain and France; (2) the eagerness of merchant adventurers to secure higher profits from foreign trade; (3) the belief that England was overpopulated and needed to send surplus laborers abroad; (4) the desire to win converts to Protestant Christianity; and (5) the determination to increase the nation's prestige by ensuring its economic self-sufficiency within the borders of its own empire.

EXPLORERS, COLONIZERS, AND ELIZABETHAN SEADOGS. From the year 1497, when John Cabot sailed from Bristol to Cape Breton Island and skirted the coast of North America southward, English mariners kept up the search for a shorter route through America to the Orient. Unspectacular as their achievements were, they added to Europe's knowlege of geography. Late in the sixteenth century the

deeds of Captain John Hawkins in despoiling the Spanish slave trade, and of Sir Francis Drake in raiding the Spanish colonies and the Spanish galleons carrying precious metals to Europe won special rewards from Queen Elizabeth. The Queen also encouraged Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who tried unsuccessfully to establish a settlement in Newfoundland (1583) and Sir Walter Raleigh, who sent out several ventures, culminating in the Lost Colony of Roanoke (established in 1587, it had disappeared by 1590, when English ships returned to it).

MIGRATION OF THE DISCONTENTED. Most English settlers sought the New World as a release from their troubles in the Old World. Some, like the Calvinistic dissenters from the Church of England, fled from the Stuart policy of religious uniformity or, like the Roman Catholics, sought refuge from possible persecution in England. After the Restoration of the Stuarts to the throne, supporters of the parliamentary cause emigrated to escape the divine-right pretensions of the monarchy. Most, however, were the victims of economic changes in England. Out of work, they were willing to risk the only capital they possessed, their lives, in the hope that they would find a new prosperity across the sea for themselves and their children.

Methods of Establishing Colonies. The English government authorized the use of two agencies to promote the establishment of settlements overseas—the chartered trading company and the proprietorship. Both, long known to the landholding and commercial leaders of England, proved to be well adapted to the work of colonization.

THE CHARTERED TRADING COMPANY. These commercial joint-stock companies, operating under royal charters, were composed of "adventurers" (stockholders) who shared pro rata the profits and losses of the colonial venture. Political control of the colony was at first vested in the directors of the company, who were usually more interested in profits than in settlers. Most charters provided that colonists should have all the rights and privileges of Englishmen and that their governing bodies should pass no law contrary to the laws of England.

Virginia and Massachusetts. Two of the colonies which later became the United States were established by English chartered trading companies: the settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, by the London Company (1607) and the Puritan colony in Massachusetts by the Massachusetts Bay Company (1630). In 1620 the Pilgrims (separatists

from the Church of England) arrived and settled in Plymouth, Massachusetts. The colony was self-governing under the Mayflower Compact * until 1691, when William III brought the Plymouth settlement under the governorship of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Virginia become a royal province in 1624, when the London Company, having failed in its attempt to exploit the colony's resources, surrendered its charter to the Crown. The stockholders of the Massachusetts Bay company migrated to America, thus making the colony corporate or self-governing. So it remained until the Crown annulled the charter in 1691 and appointed a royal governor.

New York and Delaware. Two of the thirteen original colonies were initiated by non-English joint-stock companies: New Netherland, later New York, by the Dutch West India Company in 1623 and Delaware by a Swedish company in 1638. New York was captured by the English in 1664 and became a royal province when its proprietor, James, Duke of York, became king in 1685. Delaware fell under the control of the Penn family as a proprietary province.

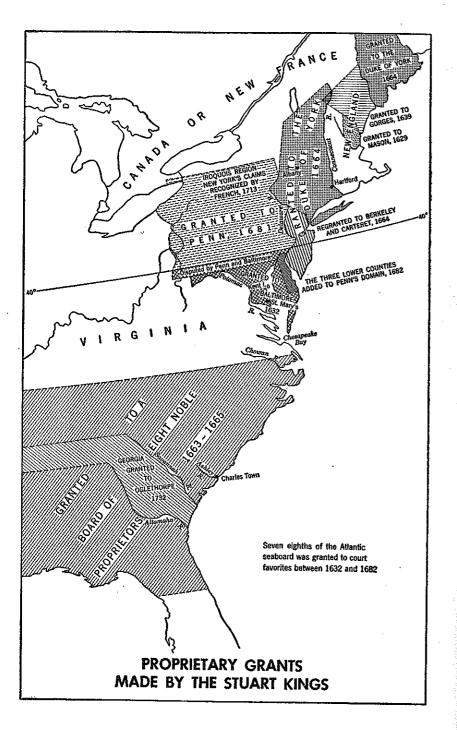
THE PROPRIETORSHIP. The proprietary charters normally granted huge tracts of land to an individual or a group of persons on terms reminiscent of feudal tenure.

Political and Economic Growth. In the proprietorships, political control was theoretically in the hands of those who received the royal grant, but power was actually delegated in part to representatives chosen by the colonists. The owners usually invested their personal fortunes in developing their lands. They encouraged settlers to take small holdings from them, expecting to reap their profits from quitrents paid to the proprietor by those who tilled the soil.

Seven Proprietary Grants. Of the thirteen English colonies, seven were founded as proprietorships: Maryland by Lord Baltimore (1632); New Hampshire by Captain John Mason (1635); New Jersey by Sir William Berkeley and Sir George Carteret in 1663; the Carolinas by friends of Charles II (1663); Pennsylvania by William Penn in 1682; and Georgia by a board of trustees, headed by James Oglethorpe in 1732. All except Pennsylvania and Maryland had become royal provinces before the outbreak of the Revolution.

THE CORPORATE COLONIES. The chief characteristic that distin-

^{*}This agreement was signed on board ship at the behest of Bradford and other leaders ("Saints") who realized that the territory they had reached was out of the jurisdiction of the Virginia Company (which had granted their patent) and who feared rebellion by the non-Pilgrims ("Strangers") attached to the group.



guished the corporate colony from others in English America was the large measure of self-government which it enjoyed. The qualified voters in the colony chose the governor, the governor's council, and the legislative assembly. Massachusetts, as we have seen (p. 9), was a corporate colony until it lost its charter in 1691. Connecticut (1662) and Rhode Island (1663), originally settled by dissident groups from Massachusetts, were fortunate in securing royal charters which conferred upon the colonists control of their own government.

THE FRUITS OF ENGLISH COLONIZATION

Between 1607 and 1732 English men and women had established permanent settlements along the eastern coast of North America from New Hampshire to Georgia, which were organized into thirteen separate political units.

The Distribution of Land. The opportunity to become a landowner was the great loadstone that drew most settlers to the English colonies in America.

Land Tenure in New England. During the seventeenth century the New England legislatures tried to establish many small towns of freeholders, who were either church members or regular church attendants. To accomplish this, they granted tracts of land to "proprietors," who were responsible for laying out the town. Each settler belonging to the dominant religious group received a home lot and additional arable land for a farm. He became an outright owner of his home and farm and a joint owner with his fellow townsmen of the common meadow and wooded land belonging to the whole town. As a result, small farms owned as freeholds, rather than great estates, became typical of New England. This system of land distribution broke down in the eighteenth century as speculators persuaded the legislatures to grant larger tracts in which the grantees might sell lots for profit.

THE QUITRENT SYSTEM. Freeholds, similar to those in New England, existed in parts of the middle Atlantic and southern colonies, but generally the system of landholding was based upon semifeudal grants by an overlord, who had received his holdings from the Crown. Such were the manorial estates in New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, and the extensive holdings that developed under individual grants from colonial legislatures in Virginia and the Carolinas. Farms were apt to be larger than in New England, and were

held not as freeholds but as grants from the original owner, subject to the annual payment of a quitrent. However small the quitrent might be, it came to be resented and caused disturbances in some provinces. Many colonial farmers learned how to evade payment when enforcement was attempted.

Land Speculation. The wooded, but fertile, acres beyond the western fringe of settlement attracted not only pioneer farmers, eager to occupy them, but also shrewd speculators, determined to hold them for future increase in value. Every colony, even in New England, had its land companies and great proprietors who secured large tracts along the frontier. They aroused the hostility of actual settlers, anxious to acquire homes, unless the speculators were willing to sell farms, free of quitrent or other feudal obligations.

The Organization of Production. English America in colonial days was essentially a land of farmers and planters; but there were differences in the organization of production determined by natural resources, land tenure, and labor supply.

THE MARITIME PROVINCES. The New England colonies showed certain similarities in the processes of their economic life that distinguished them from other sections of English America.

Agriculture. Characteristic of the region northeast of the Hudson Valley was the diversified farming of small freeholds. Despite the handicaps of a short growing season and rocky soil, many crops were grown successfully. Among the chief products were corn, oats, rye, barley, and fruit. Cattle, sheep, horses, and poultry were also raised.

Fisheries. Fishing, as a commercial enterprise, was virtually confined to New England. By 1765, 10,000 persons were employed in catching, cleaning, and preserving cod, mackerel, bass, halibut, and other deep-sea fish, which had become an important factor in Anglo-American trade with Europe and the West Indies. New Englanders hunted whales in the Atlantic from the Arctic to the coast of Brazil. Some 360 vessels were engaged in the whaling industry at the outbreak of the Revolution.

Commerce and Shipbuilding. In the maritime sections of New England, seafaring surpassed farming. Her shipbuilders and mariners played a role in foreign trade far greater than is indicated by the proportion of New England's products in that commerce.

Manufacturing. Domestic production in New England, as elsewhere, was supplemented by the output of small handicraft indus-

tries. Woolen textiles, leather goods, household utensils, and iron implements were important, but in the eighteenth century the distillation of rum from West Indian molasses became New England's chief manufacturing industry. It was part of the profitable trade in molasses, rum, and slaves which brought gold and silver into the maritime provinces.

THE PROVISION PROVINCES. New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania were largely responsible for supplying New England with raw materials, and have aptly been called the provision provinces.

Agriculture. Diversified farming, not unlike that of New England, was more rewarding in the fertile valleys of the middle colonies. Wheat, corn, and other grains, cattle, sheep, swine, vegetables, and fruits were the foodstuffs which bulked large in the export trade of this section.

Manufacturing. The wheat areas of the provision provinces were dotted with flour mills. The presence of skilled workmen in Pennsylvania and New Jersey enabled the section to make important contributions to the production of textiles, paper, glass, and iron.

Fur Trade. The trade in furs, especially that which passed through the Iroquois country into Albany, was important during the seventeenth century, but it declined rapidly in New York after 1715.

THE PLANTATION PROVINCES. During the eighteenth century the area from Maryland to Georgia became increasingly interested in the production of great staple crops.

Agriculture. Though the southern colonies produced grains and fruits, the farmers and planters of the section relied upon tobacco (Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina), rice, and indigo (South Carolina and Georgia) as their commercial crops. Before the Revolution, Maryland and Virginia were raising fifty million pounds of tobacco annually, whereas South Carolina was exporting five hundred thousand pounds of rice a year.

Lumber and Naval Stores. The forests of the Carolina uplands furnished lumber for shipbuilding and "naval stores"—pitch, tar, and turpentine—for the British navy.

Fur Trade. In the eighteenth century Carolina and Georgia traders did a thriving business in furs, Augusta becoming one of the important trading centers in furs in America.

Manufacturing. The southern colonies had fewer manufacturing establishments than the other sections of the country. The iron industry was important in Maryland and Virginia, but most of the

work of blacksmiths, tanners, cobblers, weavers, etc., was done on the plantations for domestic consumption.

The Scarcity of Labor. The colonial farmers, merchants, and manufacturers were generally in search of laborers, for the ease with which newcomers in English America acquired land meant that industrious colonists could soon become landlords in their own right. Indentured servants and enslaved Negroes and Indians constituted the most important labor force.

Indentured Servants. These bondsmen, under contract for a limited term of service, usually five years, were particularly numerous in the colonies from New York southward to Virginia. The voluntarily indentured, or "redemptioners," were sometimes skilled artisans, occasionally persons with professional training. The unskilled laborers were often recruited by kidnappers operating in European ports; many others were transported by English courts for political and religious offenses, as well as for misdemeanors and crimes.

Negro Slaves. Late in the seventeenth century the white indentured servants were rapidly replaced in Virginia and the Carolinas by enslaved Africans. The first shipload of African Negroes arrived in Virginia in 1619, but the labor force of the Southern colonies throughout the seventeenth century was chiefly recruited from the poor whites, both free and indentured. Negro slavery, however, increased rapidly after 1713, when England and Spain signed the Assiento (see p. 32), which gave England the exclusive right for thirty years to bring Africans into the Spanish possessions. By 1760 it was estimated that there were 400,000 Negroes in English America, of whom three quarters were in the South. In some communities of South Carolina and Georgia they exceeded the white population in number.

The First Americans. Everywhere that the European penetrated the continent of North America he found the American Indians. They may have been descendants of primitive Asians who had crossed Bering Strait from Siberia to the headlands of Alaska. By the fifteenth century they roamed the high plains, hunted the mountain valleys, and farmed along the rivers from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Divided into scores of tribes and speaking hundreds of languages, they bore a striking resemblance to their Mongolian ancestors. Without their aid, the first Europeans might not have survived in the New World. In the process of European conquest, the Indian lost his "happy hunting grounds" to the white man. Often

he was cruelly deceived and dispossessed by the Europeans to whom he had shown the way to combat the wilderness and tame its resources.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1. What circumstances delayed England's participation in the competition for colonial possessions?
- 2. How did England's rivalry with Spain affect her attitude toward the New World?
- 3. Discuss the struggle between the Stuarts and Parliament as a motive for English migration.
- 4. What groups of religious dissenters were most eager to seek their fortunes overseas?
- 5. Why was the trading company an acceptable instrument of colonization?
- 6. What advantages accrued to the recipient of a proprietary grant from the Crown?
- 7. How was the Massachusetts Bay Company transformed into a body politic?
- 8. In what respect did the corporate colony, such as Connecticut, differ from the proprietorship, such as Pennsylvania?