

THE HISTORICAL ATLAS OF



The



# American

# Revolution



**Ian Barnes**

**Charles Royster, Consulting Editor**

THE  
HISTORICAL ATLAS  
OF  
THE AMERICAN  
REVOLUTION

This page intentionally left blank

THE  
HISTORICAL ATLAS  
OF  
THE AMERICAN  
REVOLUTION

IAN BARNES

Consultant Editor

Professor CHARLES ROYSTER

Published in 2000 by  
Routledge

711 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017  
2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN

*Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business*

Text copyright © 2000 by Ian Barnes  
Maps and design © 2000 by Arcadia Editions Limited

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reprinted or reproduced or utilized in any form or by any electronic, mechanical, or other means, now known or hereafter invented, including photocopying and recording or in any information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publishers.

Routledge, Inc. respects international copyright laws. Any omissions or oversights in the acknowledgments section of this volume are purely unintentional.

#### Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Barnes, Ian, 1946—

The historical atlas of the American Revolution / Ian Barnes; Charles Royster, consulting editor.

p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-415-92243-7 (alk. paper)

1. United States—History—Revolution, 1775–1783. 2. United States—History—Revolution, 1775–1783—Maps. I. Royster, Charles. II. Title.

E208 B36 2000  
973.3—dc21

99-059920













TO  
VIVIENNE, ROBIN, AND AMBER  
*WITH LOVE AND THANKS*

# Contents

FOREWORD	8
INTRODUCTION	11
CHRONOLOGY	14
CHAPTER 1 BRITISH NORTH AMERICA	18
The Colonies	22
Native Americans	24
Church Formation	26
Church and Politics	28
Trade and Industry	30
Origins of Settler Population	32
The Slave Triangle	34
Density of Population Settlement	36
CHAPTER 2 PROLOGUE TO DISSENT	38
King William's War	44
Queen Anne's War	46
King George's War	48
French and Indian Wars	50
Methods of 18th-century War	52
George Washington in the West	54
Global Implication of American Wars	56
Native Americans Before the War	58
Division in Colonial Society	60
The Québec Act	62
CHAPTER 3 THE SHOT HEARD AROUND THE WORLD	64
Distribution of Armed Forces in the Colonies	68
Lexington and Concord	70
Fort Ticonderoga to Canada	72
Bunker Hill	74
Battle for Valcour Island	76
CHAPTER 4 WASHINGTON ASSUMES COMMAND	78
Battle of Long Island and Harlem Heights	82
Battle of White Plains	84
Battle of Trenton	86
Battle of Princeton	88
Ticonderoga and Hubbardton	90
Oriskany and Fort Stanwix	92
Battle of the Brandywine	94
Saratoga Campaign	96
Battle of Germantown	98
Northern Stalemate	100
CHAPTER 5 THE HELP OF FOREIGN FRIENDS	102
Savannah and Charleston	106
Battle of Camden	108
Battle of King's Mountain	110
Battle of Cowpens	112
Guilford Courthouse	114
Battle of Hobkirk's Hill	116

Eutaw Springs	118
Siege of Yorktown	120
CHAPTER 6 WAR AT SEA	122
Privateers and Pinpricks	126
Battle of Flamborough Head	128
Battle of the Chesapeake, 1781	130
Rodney's Naval Campaigns	132
Battle of the Saintes	134
Oceanic Dimensions	136
CHAPTER 7 OTHER BATTLE FRONTS, NATIVE AMERICANS' DISMAY	138
Joseph Brant	142
George Rogers Clark and French Possessions	144
Sullivan's Campaigns	146
The Ohio Campaigns	148
Spanish Operations in the South and West	150
CHAPTER 8 BIRTH OF POLITICS	152
The Treaty of Paris	156
Empire Loyalists	158
Native Americans	160
African Americans	162
Ratification of the Constitution	164
The Constitution	166
The Election of 1800	168
People of the New Nation	170
CHAPTER 9 THE STATE EXPANDS	172
Foreign Policy After the War	178
Transatlantic Revolutions	180
Expansion and Settlement	182
Opening of the West	184
King Cotton	186
SELECTED BIOGRAPHIES	188
BIBLIOGRAPHY	196
INDEX	198
MAP NAME INDEX	209

### Key to map symbols

XXXX	army		infantry		battle		Spanish fort
XXX	corps		canalry		American fort		other fort
XX	division		attack		French fort		fortification
X	brigade		retreat		English/British fort		road



# Foreword

Many writers have reminded us that the War of American Independence—known in Britain at that time as “the American War”—was not the same as the American Revolution. The revolution entailed innovations in government and new political ideas and institutions changing the role of the citizen, the nature of legislative representation, the power of the executive, and the relations between national and local governments. The war, on the other hand, was waged in a manner readily recognizable to veterans of previous conflicts, especially the Seven Years’ War, which began twenty years earlier. The War of American Independence was not “revolutionary” in military ideas or practice.

In the Seven Years’ War, Britain had dismantled much of France’s overseas empire. In the War of American Independence, France, by allying with the Americans, took its revenge, though at a heavy cost, which brought unexpected consequences upon the old regime. Americans, proud of their dedication to republicanism and liberty, nevertheless needed the army, the navy, the munitions, and the money of King Louis XVI in order to win independence from King George III. Americans claimed to have created a new kind of soldier for a new kind of war: a patriot, not a hireling, a thinking fighter, not an automaton. Yet the successes of George Washington’s Continental Army depended in large part upon his efforts to make it as reliable as the disciplined regular forces of European monarchs.

The War of American Independence lasted more than eight years, from the first shots in Massachusetts to the treaty of peace in France. The British cabinet led by Frederick North did not mount a sustained offensive for the duration of the war. At one time or another, British forces occupied every significant American city, but 95 percent of Americans did not live in cities, and their resistance, though fluctuating in its scale of effort, continued. The British tried first to isolate a supposed minority of rebellious agitators in the northeast. Then they tried to rally a supposed majority of loyal subjects in other parts of the continent. Neither effort succeeded because both were based upon false assumptions. The Royal Army and Navy repeatedly defeated the American forces or drove them to retreat. Yet these victories did not conquer a continent. And the crucial British defeats—Trenton, New Jersey, at the end of 1776, Saratoga, New York, in the autumn of 1777, and Yorktown, Virginia, in the autumn of 1781—thwarted major offensives and, in the last two cases, lost entire British armies. The North administration took Britain more and more deeply into debt with fewer and fewer successes to justify these large expenditures. At last, North lost his majority in the House of Commons, and George III acknowledged in December 1782 that the treaty of peace must recognize the independence of the United States.

The American Revolution depicted and summarized by this historical atlas was, we can see, more than the military engagements of the War of American Independence. To understand that war and its outcome, the reader needs to know not only the dispositions of forces and materiel in combat, but also the motives underlying Americans' effort to win independence and the difficulties inherent in the North administration's attempt to compel thirteen colonies to remain within the British Empire. For that reason, this historical atlas adopts a wide-ranging approach to its subject and strives to be as comprehensive as possible within the limits of its length.

It begins with a portrait of British North America and with the rivalry between Britain and France for control of North America. And it carries the story of American Independence into the first half of the nineteenth century. The revolution did not end with the departure of British troops. Americans had not yet fully agreed upon what kind of country they had created. Was its federal government perpetual and supreme or temporary and contingent? Would the nation continue human slavery indefinitely or confine and end it? Americans failed to resolve these questions through the mechanism of republican self-government which they so proudly created during the American Revolution. Instead, they found themselves fighting another war—this time not against British enemies but against one another.

The War of American Independence consisted not only of armies' campaigns and naval engagements but also of a transatlantic struggle over trade and supplies. American privateering vessels and, eventually, the navies of France and Spain disrupted Britain's commerce and supply lines. The British Navy tried to impede the flow of munitions and other goods from Europe to the Americans, by way of islands in the Caribbean. The armies fighting in North America were parts of vast and complex networks of logistics which made the Atlantic Ocean both a highway and a battlefield. In this contest, Britain failed. Americans kept their armies in the field until the North administration abandoned its effort to defeat rebellion.

The historical atlas which places the American Revolution in its broadest context—chronologically, geographically, culturally—best serves those readers seeking an introduction to the history of the period and those who use the atlas as a work of reference.

Professor Charles Royster  
Louisiana State University

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

# The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America.

When in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation. — We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. — That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, — That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. — Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. — But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. — The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. — To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world. — He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. — He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. — He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only. — He has called together legislative Bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures. — He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people. — He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within. — He has endeavoured to prevent the Population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Law for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands. — He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers. — He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries. — He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance. — He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our Legislatures. — He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power. — He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation: — For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us: — For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States: — For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world: — For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent: — For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury: — For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences: — For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to under it at once an example for introducing a new absolute rule into these Colonies: — For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments: — For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever. — He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us. — He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people. — He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty, and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation. — He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands. — He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the Inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions. — In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered by repeated injury. — All this being, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people. — Nor have We been wanting in attention to our British Brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their Legislature to extend an unwarrantable Jurisdiction over us. — We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. — We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. — They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. — We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends. — We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. — And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

Button Gwinnett  
Lyman Hall  
Geo Walton.

Geo Hooper  
Joseph Hewes  
John Penn

Edmund Rutledge

Thos Heyward Jr  
Arthur Middleton

Francis Pickens  
Carter Braxton

Samuel Chase  
Wm Paca  
Thos Stone  
Charles Carroll of Maryland

George Wythe  
Richard Henry Lee  
Th Jefferson  
Pam Harrison  
Th Nelson Jr  
Francis Pickens  
Carter Braxton

John Hancock  
Rob Morris  
Benjamin Rush  
Ben Franklin  
John Morton  
Geo Clymer  
Jas Smith

James Wilson  
Gt Mop  
Benjamin Franklin  
Thomson

Elbridge Gerry  
John Livingston  
Sam Adams  
David Morris

Rich Anderson  
Jas Dickinson  
Th Hopkins  
Wm Ross  
Abra Clark

Josiah Bartlett  
Wm Whipple  
Sam Adams  
John Adams  
Robert Treat Paine  
Elbridge Gerry  
Step Hopkins

William Ellery  
Roger Sherman  
John Huntington  
Th Williams  
Oliver Wolcott  
Nathaniel Torrey

# Introduction

To celebrate Thanksgiving and the Fourth of July is to commemorate, first, the survival of a new society built upon the Mayflower Compact, an early form of the social contract and a social and political innovation. Second, the Declaration of Independence set in motion events leading to the 1787 Constitution, a document rooted in the Enlightenment with a separation of powers between the executive, legislative, and judiciary. Inspired in part by Montesquieu's *L'Esprit des Lois*, the American experience certainly affected and stimulated ideas in France, with the “comparable” Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen, one basis for the French Revolution. The American Constitution has ever since occasioned debate around the world, and many liberal political thinkers in Great Britain admire the notion of a Bill of Rights, rather than the current British situation, which allows subjects—notice, not citizens—the right to do anything not covered by the law. In Britain, Parliament is sovereign, not the law, and people can be subjected to political control and disenfranchisement by the dominant party's political whim. For example, the Greater London Council, established in 1965, was abolished in 1986 after acrimonious disputes between its leader, Ken Livingstone, and the Conservative government. Ironically, this man is now the new Mayor of London. In 1991, the population of Greater London was approximately 6,680,000. Hence in 1986, a slightly smaller number lost their electoral vote for local government. How many U.S. states have a population of this size? Taking a long historical view, Americans fought for rights, in the War of Independence, that British subjects have not yet fully gained, and criticisms of arbitrary government and “tyranny” can still be levelled at the British political system.

This Atlas seeks to open up these important issues by considering the background causes of the American Revolution together with some historiographical debates in American history. Editorial constraints mean that immense detail, discussion, and cartographic coverage are impossible. Thus, the resultant work is selective and is intended as an introduction to a dynamic period of American history. To American citizens, new developments in cartographic techniques will introduce novel, exciting three-dimensional maps which will embellish existing understanding of the Revolution. Hopefully, this will whet the appetites of non-Americans and kindle an interest in an important and interesting set of events—a period that has since proved to be an outstandingly important one for the growth of political ideas and concepts of freedom and citizenship, and introducing the world to a country that has become the most significant and powerful state in the world.

History recounts how the early New England colonies were based upon people with dissenting religious ideas outside the remit of the orthodox and state-founded Church of England. The Atlas demonstrates the importance of the Church as a religious, social, and political forum but also points out a debate suggesting that religious influence did decline and became less significant than previously thought. The economic importance of the colonies suggests that they rapidly became linked into patterns of existing world trade and helped develop the wealth of the metropolitan state by constructing an Atlantic economy. A symbiotic relationship between the American colonies and Great Britain grew to such an

extent that the severing of such ties would damage the interlocking economies. Consideration is given to the impact of Europeans meeting Native Americans and the consequences in terms of death by disease, enslavement, and colonial–Indian wars. The feelings and mood of the Native Americans are introduced and become a constant theme throughout the Atlas and provide a basis for a reader’s later personal exploration of this example of “ethnic cleansing,” an experience that devastated Europe during the Second World War and more recently during the war in Yugoslavia and Kosovo.

Early British colonization of North America is placed within the context of a global European imperial growth. Spain, France, the Netherlands, and Sweden all founded colonies, the most important being the Spanish possessions in Florida and Mexico and the French in Mississippi and Canada. The Swedish experience on the Delaware was brief while the Dutch are known for a series of wars with Native Americans: Kieft’s War (1639–45), the Peach War (1655–57), and the Esopus Wars (1659–60 and 1663–64). More important, New Amsterdam became New York and was ceded to Britain in 1674 by the Treaty of Westminster. A remaining tie between New York and the Dutch heritage is Brooklyn and its early equivalent little bridge over a canal in Amsterdam. Conflict between the European powers led to a series of colonial wars between Britain and France; the American theater of war was just one battleground in a worldwide series of operations. These wars continued for a hundred years, involved Native Americans on each side, and were characterized by violence and mutual butchery. Eventually, the British preponderance in terms of population transcended internal divisions and overcame the more centralized French colonial regime and Britain acquired Canada in 1763.

The Atlas points out the debate over whether Americans were Englishmen abroad or, alternatively, Americans, and what this concept meant. Here, the migrant ethnic mix is shown, as is the religious upheaval known as the Great Awakening between 1720 and 1740. The consequent internecine religious divisions led to a greater religious plurality, tolerance, and democracy and stimulated a feeling of independence which fuelled the fervor initiating and sustaining the American Revolution. The notion of democracy is highly significant because colonial societies practically ruled themselves and acquired “democratic” institutions which were decentralized away from the British Parliament. The ideas of independence, self-confidence, and democracy were vital ingredients in combatting Britain, and the various introductory essays in the Atlas develop these ideas.

The Atlas outlines the general causes of the American Revolution and Britain’s desire for the colonies to pay for their own defense. Consequently, the Stamp Act and Coercive Acts form a logical continuum from the 17th-century Navigation Acts, and their significance is assessed. The detested Québec Act receives treatment, as do colonial responses in terms of settling Indian Territory and the Boston Tea Party. The subsequent British attempts to punish Massachusetts are evaluated as a stage in the drift to war.

The outbreak of war in 1775 introduces a series of maps and accompanying texts which explain the military campaigns and battles of the War of Independence. The texts assess the skills or otherwise of contending military commanders and their accompanying strategic plans and battle tactics. This series of maps show the chaos and fog of war and displays the fortitude of Washington and his regular Continental troops. Foreign aid in terms of technical help from Marquis Marie Joseph de Lafayette and Frederick William von Steuben is assessed, as is the involvement of French troops on American soil. The campaigns are divided into the Northern and Southern states' experience. Considerable interest is shown in the campaigns and generalship of Nathaniel Greene who, despite defeats in battle, so weakened the British forces that the British had to withdraw from the interior of the Carolinas with many troops eventually incarcerating themselves in Yorktown.

The War of Independence is examined as a civil war between Patriots and Tories and the Battle of King's Mountain, North Carolina, in October 1780, receives a map of its own. The oceanic dimension of the American revolutionary war was linked with European conflicts being fought in the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean, the Caribbean, and Central America, together with struggles on the Spanish-Florida frontier. War on the frontier with Native Americans is given considerable prominence and the subsequent experience of Native Americans after the U. S. victory is shown as precursor events to Native Clearances and the Trail of Tears.

The aftermath of the war is demonstrated in terms of writing a constitution and its ratification together with the growth of political parties and the first constitutional amendments. Early foreign policy is explored, especially unsatisfactory American-British relations whereby Britain refused to withdraw from outposts on the Great Lakes. Spanish-American relations are considered, as are those with France, including the Quasi War and the Louisiana Purchase. The opening of the West and initial territorial expansion are placed in the context of further warfare against Native Americans and of the Lewis and Clark expeditions.

The Atlas ends with two significant developments. First, American-British relations reached a low point in the War of 1812–14. This unnecessary and unfortunate conflict had benefits in that the two states afterwards learned to co-exist; British overall maritime power was recognized, but British respect grew for American naval gunnery after several ship-to-ship frigate actions in which British ships were taken. The second, more important, result was the realization that mutual economic ties were essential and beneficial, especially as the exploitation of cotton was tied to British manufacturing. The Atlas examines in sum, the origins, events, and outcomes of the War of Independence, so let the maps speak for themselves.

Dr Ian Barnes

# Chronology

- 1584** Colony founded at Roanoke Island (North Carolina) under Sir Walter Raleigh; the colony failed.
- 1606** London and Plymouth Companies established to send settlers to North America.
- 1607** May, Jamestown Colony, Virginia, founded by Captain John Smith.
- 1612** Tobacco cultivation began in Virginia.
- 1620** November. Arrival of the Pilgrim Fathers in the *Mayflower* at Cape Cod; colonists sign the Mayflower Compact, an early political constitution to ensure the new colony's welfare.
- 1622** Opechancanough, Chief of the Powhatan Indian Confederacy attacked Virginian towns.
- 1629** March. Massachusetts Bay Company chartered. John Winthrop governor of the Massachusetts Colony. Towns built at Boston, Mystic, Watertown, Roxbury, Lynn, and Dorchester by 1630. By 1634, a representative system of government was established.
- 1630–42** The Great Migration brought 16,000 settlers from England to Massachusetts.
- 1632** Maryland Charter granted. St. Mary's colony founded (1634)—a Roman Catholic sanctuary.
- 1636** Rhode Island founded at Providence by Roger Williams.  
  
Connecticut founded, comprising towns of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield.  
  
Harvard College founded at New Towne (Cambridge).
- 1637** Pequot tribe destroyed by colonists and Narragansett allies.
- 1638** New Haven theocratic colony established by John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton.
- 1644** Powhatan Indians assault Virginia again killing 500 settlers. Opechancanough captured and murdered while a prisoner in Jamestown.
- 1651–73** Navigation Acts passed to protect British trade.
- 1663** Carolina granted to eight proprietors, separation into North and South by 1713.
- 1664** New Netherlands seized from the Dutch and New Amsterdam becomes New York.  
  
Connecticut and New Haven established a union lest the latter was taken by New York.
- 1672** Royal Africa Company chartered. Slave trade developed.
- 1676** Bacon's rebellion in Virginia against Governor's failure to prevent Indian raids.
- 1681** Charter of Pennsylvania signed and Philadelphia laid out in 1682.
- 1689–97** King William's War.
- 1690** 11 May. Port Royal captured by Sir William Phips, French and Indians raid and kill colonists at Schenectady, Salmon Falls, and Casco Bay. Attack on Quebec fails.
- 1697** Treaty of Ryswick failed to address Franco-British issues in America.
- 1702–13** Queen Anne's War.
- 1704** French and Indian attacks in Connecticut Valley.
- 1707** British expedition against Port Royal failed.
- 1710** Colonists with British ships seize Acadia and Port Royal.
- 1711–13** Tuscarora War, after defeat, many Tuscarora fled to the Iroquois.
- 1713** Treaty of Utrecht. Britain secures Acadia and Newfoundland.
- 1715** Yamasee War. South Carolina severely damaged. Start of the Creek threat.
- 1732** 22 February. George Washington born.
- 1733** Georgia founded.
- 1743–48** King George's War.
- 1745** 16 June. Capture of Louisbourg by troops from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Connecticut led by William Pepperell.
- 1748** Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle failed to delineate American and French- Canadian border.
- 1752** *Sanderson* voyages from Rhode Island, to West Africa, Barbados, and home.
- 1754** 3 July. Washington surrenders Fort Necessity marching out with honors of war.
- 1754–63** French and Indian War.
- 1755** 19 June. Bay of Fundy expedition captures Forts St. John and Beausejour.  
  
9 July. Battle of the Monongahela. General Braddock defeated.  
  
8 September. Battle of Lake George. Johnson defeated a French, Canadian, and Indian force and built Fort William Henry.
- 1756** Seven Years' War commenced in Europe.
- 1757** 9 August. Montcalm took Fort William Henry. Indians massacre many British soldiers.
- 1758** 8 July. Abercrombie defeated by Montcalm in Battle of Fort Ticonderoga.

- 27 July. Louisbourg captured by Amherst opening the St. Lawrence.
- 27 August. Fort Frontenac seized by Colonel John Bradstreet.
- 1759** 26 July. Fort Ticonderoga captured, the day following capture of Fort Niagara.
- 13 September. Battle of the Plains of Abraham; Montcalm and Wolfe mortally wounded in British victory.
- 1760** 8 September. Canada surrendered thereby ending French control of Canada.
- 1763** 10 February. Treaty of Paris gave Britain Canada and New France east of the Mississippi except for New Orleans.
- May–November. Pontiac’s uprising.
- Proclamation of Indian territory.
- 1764** Sugar and Currency Acts.
- 1765** Stamp Act.
- 1766** Stamp Act repealed. Declaratory Act.
- 1770** March. Boston Massacre.
- 1773** 16 December. Boston Tea Party.
- 1774** Administration of Justice Act. Quartering Act. Québec Act.
- 5 September. First Continental Congress.
- 1775** 19 April. Battles of Lexington and Concord.
- 10 May. Ethan Allen’s Green Mountain Boys capture Fort Ticonderoga.
- 12 May. Crown Point taken by American forces.
- 15 June. Washington given command of the Continental Army by the Second Continental Congress.
- 17 June. Battle of Bunker (Breed’s) Hill, a tactical, Pyrrhic British victory.
- 3 July. Birth of the Continental Army.
- 31 December. Benedict Arnold fails in assault on Québec.
- 1775–76** Siege of Boston.
- 1776** 17 February. Captain Hopkins’ American squadron attacked New Providence, in the Bahamas.
- 27 February. Battle of Moores Creek. North Carolina patriots defeat Tories.
- 17 March. Howe evacuated Boston and sailed to Halifax.
- 28 June. Battle of Sullivan’s Island. Clinton persuaded to abandon designs on Charleston and Carolinas, left in peace from Britain for two years.
- June–July. American retreat from Canada.
- 4 July. American Declaration of Independence.
- July–August. Howe concentrated British and mercenary forces on Staten Island.
- 27 August. Battle of Long Island.
- 6–7 September. “American Turtle” submarine used off Staten Island.
- 12 September. Washington abandoned New York.
- 16 September. Battle of Harlem Heights.
- 11 October. Battle of Valcour Island.
- 28 October. Battle of White Plains.
- 16 November. Fort Washington captured by British.
- 20 November. Americans evacuate Fort Lee.
- November–December. Washington retreated through New Jersey to Pennsylvania.
- 26 December. Battle of Trenton.
- 1777** 2 January. Washington secretly leaves Trenton after facing Cornwallis.
- 3 January. Battle of Princeton.
- 5 July. British capture Fort Ticonderoga.
- 7 July. Battle of Hubbardton.
- 23 July. Howe sailed from New York to the Chesapeake to attack Philadelphia.
- 6 August. Battle of Oriskany.
- 16 August. Battle of Bennington.
- 23 August. Benedict Arnold relieves Fort Stanwix.
- 11 September. Battle of the Brandywine.
- 19 September. Battle of Freeman’s Farm.
- 21 September. Night action at Paoli. Anthony Wayne’s brigade routed.
- 26 September. Philadelphia occupied by Howe.
- 4 October. Battle of Germantown.
- 7 October. Battle of Bemis Heights.
- 17 October. Burgoyne surrenders to an American army at Saratoga.
- 1777–78** Americans suffer poor winter quarters at Valley Forge.



- 1778** January–June. Von Steuben instills tactics, drill, and discipline into Continentals.
- 6 February. Franco-American treaties.
- April–May. John Paul Jones in USS *Ranger* harrassed Irish Sea and took HMS *Drake*.
- 17 June. France and Britain go to war.
- 18 June. British evacuate Philadelphia and march toward New York.
- 28 June. Battle of Monmouth.
- 3 July. Wyoming Valley Massacre.
- 4–9 July. George Rogers Clarke takes French Western towns, Kaskaskai and Cahokia.
- 27 July. First Battle of Ushant, indecisive French-British naval action.
- August. An American-French amphibious operation at Newport failed after battle for Rhode Island.
- 11 November. Cherry Valley Massacre.
- 29 December. Clinton captures Savannah.
- 1779** 14 February. Andrew Pickens defeated Tory force at Kettle Creek.
- 25 February. George Rogers Clarke captured Vincennes.
- 3 March. Americans defeated at Briar Creek, thus attempt to retake Augusta stopped.
- 21 June. Spain declares war on Britain.
- 15–16 July. Wayne captures Stony Point.
- 19 August. Lee captures Paulus Point.
- August–September. Sullivan, James Clinton, and Daniel Brodhead campaigned against the Iroquois in northwestern New York destroying villages and crops.
- 3 September–28 October. Franco-American siege of Savannah failed after French left.
- 7–30 September. Spanish forces under Bernardo de Galvez captured British West Florida posts at Manchac, Baton Rouge, and Natchez.
- 23 September. Battle of Flamborough Head. John Paul Jones in USS *Bonhomme Richard* captured HMS *Serapis* despite his own ship sinking.
- 26 December. Clinton sailed from New York to attack Charleston.
- 1780** 16 January. British Admiral Rodney's naval victory over Spanish squadron in the "Moonlight Battle."
- 11 February–12 May. Siege of Charleston ended with Lincoln's surrender.
- 28 February. Russia inaugurates League of Armed Neutrality.
- 14 March. Galvez took Mobile, capital of British West Florida.
- April. Three indecisive naval actions between Rodney and French Admiral de Guichen.
- 29 May. Banastre Tarkenton's Tories massacred an American force at Waxhaw Creek.
- May–August. American guerrilla activity against British in the South.
- 1 June. USS *Trumbell* fought a drawn engagement with HMS *Watt*.
- 16 August. Battle of Camden.
- 18 August. Action of Fishing Creek. Sumter's guerrillas broken by Tarleton.
- September. Rodney seizes Dutch smuggling islands of St. Eustatius and St. Martin.
- 23 September. Benedict Arnold's treason discovered.
- 7 October. Battle of King's Mountain destroys large Tory unit.
- 20 December. Britain declares war on the Dutch.
- 30 December–26 March 1781. Arnold fights for British in Virginia.
- 1781** January. Galvez launches raid capturing Fort St. Joseph on Lake Michigan.
- 17 January. Battle of Cowpens.
- January–February. Greene and Morgan retreat to the Dan.
- 15 March. Battle of Guilford Courthouse leads Cornwallis to march north to Virginia.
- 19 April. Battle of Hobkirk's Mill.
- 29 April. Lafayette arrived in Virginia from New York.
- 9 May. Campbells surrenders Fort St. George, near Pensacola to Spanish forces.
- 22 May–19 June. Siege of Fort Ninety-six was unsuccessful and Greene retreated.
- 29 May. USS *Alliance* takes British sloops, HMS *Atlanta* and HMS *Trepassy*.
- May–July. Lafayette and Cornwallis march and countermarch around Virginia.
- 4 August. Cornwallis enters Yorktown.

- 5 August. Battle of the Dogger Bank. British naval victory over the Dutch.
- 13 August. French Admiral de Grasse sails from West Indies to the Chesapeake.
- 21 August. Washington marched south to join de Grasse and Lafayette.
- 30 August. De Grasse arrives off Yorktown and lands French troops.
- 5–9 September. Battle of the Capes leaves French in control of Chesapeake.
- 8 September. Battle of Eutaw Springs.
- 14–26 September. Washington and Rochambeau arrive with troops at Williamsburg.
- September–October. Siege of Yorktown.
- 19 October. Cornwallis surrenders at Yorktown.
- November. Washington returned to New York.
- 12 December. Second Battle of Ushant. British naval victory over France.
- 1781–82** Greene besieged Charleston and pacified Georgia.
- 1782** February–April 1783. Suffren's operations in the Indian Ocean.
- March. Gnadenhutten Massacre of Moravian Delawares in Pennsylvania.
- 12 April. Battle of the Saintes. British naval victory over France.
- May. Bahamas handed to Spain.
- 13–14 September. Franco-Spanish attack on Gibraltar failed in this siege from 1779 to 1783.
- 30 November. Treaty of Paris. U.S. Independence recognized.
- 1783** Treaty of August.
- 15 April. Congress ratified the Treaty of Paris.
- 25 November. British evacuated New York.
- 1784–87** Northwest Ordinances.
- 1787** 25 May. Constitutional Convention begins.
- 17 September. Constitution signed.
- December–1790. Constitutional ratification.
- 1789** 4 March. First Congress met in New York.
- 30 April. Washington inaugurated as President.
- 1790** 18–22 October. General Harmar entered the Ohio Valley to punish Indians for raiding and was defeated by Miami war chief Little Turtle, near Fort Wayne, Indiana.
- 1791** 4 November. General St. Clair defeated by Little Turtle who led a coalition of Wyandots, Iroquois, Shawnees, Miami, Delawares, Ojibwas, and Potawatomis.
- December. Bill of Rights amendments to the Constitution.
- 1794** 20 August. Battle of Fallen Timbers. General Wayne defeats the Maumees.
- 19 November. Jay Treaty with Britain.
- 1795** 3 August. Treaty of Greenville assured peace in Ohio Valley.
- 27 October. Pinckney Treaty with Spain.
- 1797** 4 March. John Adams becomes President.
- 1798** Naturalization Act. Alien Act. Sedition Act. Alien Enemies Act.
- 1798–1800** Quasi War with France. U.S. navy engaged various French vessels with success.
- 1800** Thomas Jefferson becomes President.
- Gabriel's Rebellion.
- 1803** 30 April. Louisiana Purchase from France.
- 1803–04** Decatur blockaded Tripoli.
- 1804–06** Lewis and Clark Expedition up the Missouri to reach the Pacific via the Columbia River.
- 1807** Embargo Act.
- 1809** Non-Intercourse Act.
- 1811** 7 November. Battle of Tippecanoe against the Shawnee.
- 1812–14** War of 1812 with Britain.
- 1813** 5 October. Battle of the Thames, Ontario. Tecumseh killed.
- 1814** 27 March. Battle of Horseshoe Bend. Jackson defeated the Creeks, allies of Britain.
- 9 August. Treaty of Fort Jackson with Creeks.
- 24 December. Battle of New Orleans. Treaty of Ghent ended War of 1812.
- 1816–18** First Seminole War.
- 1819** Florida ceded by Spain to the United States.
- 1820** 3 March. Missouri Compromise.

# Chapter One

## British North America

**“We do by these presents solemnly and mutually in the presence of God and one of another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a Civil Body Politic, for our better ordering and preservation....” Mayflower Compact, 1620.**

England's first attempt (1584) to colonize Virginia failed under Raleigh and the next effort was made in 1606. Other colonies were founded in Massachusetts, first at Plymouth (1620) and then

Winthrop established a covenant, an agreement for the new settlement to live under God's law.

Between 1630 and 1642, the Great Migration to Massachusetts Bay Colony brought in some 22,000 immigrants enabling the establishment of other towns such as Boston, Dorchester, and Roxbury. The new settlements pursued similar patterns of politics and administration, each possessing a meeting house and a large measure of autonomy. The family constituted the major social



**British North America**  
1775

■ Britain and its North American Empire

elsewhere in that colony, followed by settlements in Maryland (1632), Rhode Island (1636), and Connecticut (1636). Migrants from Massachusetts moved to New Haven (1638) and New Hampshire (1638). The background to this rash of foundations can best be explained by differences in religious and economic behavior. A major Royal Charter was granted to the Massachusetts Bay Company (1629), and John Winthrop was elected governor. On the *Arabella*, during the voyage to America, Winthrop stressed the communal character of the postulated North American colony, setting out the submission of the individual to the collective good. Charity and amity were to be pillars of the community and

unit, but the distribution of land was inequalitarian. The best and largest sections of pasture, field, and woodland were given to the most important people, including the minister. The New England communities developed into: interior agricultural regions; coastal towns, such as Boston and Salem, seaports and entry points for newcomers; while, areas such as the Connecticut Valley commercialized agriculture, selling a food surplus onwards. Some settlers, such as William Pynchon, became immensely wealthy, while others like John Harvard bequeathed cash and books to a college founded in 1636. Massachusetts Bay was governed by a General Court held at Boston and no one



could be admitted to the corporation lest they were a member of a church in the colony. After 1634, a representative system grew up at the Court because the demographic growth prevented the attendance of all freemen.

In 1638, a local dissenter, Anne Hutchinson, discussed the covenant of grace, a gift of salvation, with men and women, and believed in direct communication with God rather than through ministers. She threatened the orthodox order and the supreme role of men and was consequently banished with her followers. She settled on Aquidneck Island, later Rhode Island, and founded Portsmouth, which was followed by Newport (1639). Other Separatists, such as Roger Williams, championed Native Americans and criticized the monarch's right to give away their land and said that church and state should be separated. He founded Providence, after being banished from Salem, and the town adopted religious toleration. Other people were unhappy with the ideals of Puritanism; they preferred profits to the Bible. Some, sponsored by Lords Saye and Sele, established Fort Saybrook at the mouth of the Connecticut River; others established Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield in a search for better land. The Fundamental Order governing these three settlements, known as Connecticut, created an annual assembly or legislature with an elected governor with representatives from each town. Thus, from their origins, the New England colonies established a controversy between religious idealism and secular materialism. By the 1650s, English settlers, together with those of France, Spain, Holland, and Sweden competed on the North American Atlantic seaboard while all Europeans clashed with Native Americans using weapons or spreading disease as they settled more Indian land. The Pequot War in 1637 between the Pequots and the Connecticut towns virtually wiped out the tribe and the Narragansett suffered later.

After Massachusetts Bay Colony was founded, the monarchy issued no more charters for colonization. However, Maryland (1632) was chartered as a sanctuary for Roman Catholics and others, and further new colonies were administered and organized by proprietary charters. The inhabitants of

these new areas received certain legislative privileges, but authority over the new colonies was vested in the owners. The king gave them nearly complete freedom to construct any form of government, as well as the right to distribute, sell or gift the lands within the colony to whomever they chose. In 1663, eight noblemen, including the Earl of Clarendon, were granted the Carolinas. After the Tuscarora War (1711) and the Yamasee conflict (1715), the province was reorganized into north and south (1719–29). The British Board of Trade, after the poor showing in the last conflict, provided a royal government for both North and South Carolina.

New Netherland, a Dutch possession straddling British north-south communications, was seized in 1664, despite a final Dutch inter-regnum (1673–74), and renamed New York after its new proprietor, James, Duke of York. His annual rent was forty beaver skins to his brother, the king. Constituted out of territories originally captured by the Dutch from Sweden, New Jersey was split into East and West, the latter being settled by Quakers. Parts of the former Swedish lands around Fort

Christina founded in 1638, became part of New York, and was administered as part of Pennsylvania from 1682. After 1704, this area of Delaware possessed its own legislature. Elsewhere, in 1682, William Penn, a Quaker and son of an admiral who had served Charles II, received a charter for an ill-defined area between New York in the north and Maryland in the south. Penn promised religious toleration and guaranteed many British legal liberties (bail and trial by jury). His Frame of Government promised a representative assembly, to be elected by the colony's freeholders. A council was given the sole power of initiating legislation, the assembly being able to

*On accession to the throne in 1760, George III displayed little interest in colonial affairs but thought colonies were necessary for economic reasons and essential for great power status.*



approve or veto bills presented by the council. This form of government was changed in 1682, 1696, and 1701 witnessed a Charter of Privileges. Pennsylvania became a most dynamic colony with an expanding population, increasing from around 3,000 people in 1683 to 12,000 in 1688. Philadelphia developed as a major port, rivalling Boston, and exported food to the West Indies. The colony's very success attracted large numbers of Scots-Irish, Germans, and Swiss; many such moved to the Pennsylvania backcountry and pushed the boundaries of settlement towards the west leading to clashes with Native Americans. This boded ill for Penn's aspirations to treat Native Americans fairly by land purchase, trade regulation, and banning the sale of alcohol.

The colonies were subjected to the political vagaries of the English conflict between monarchy and parliament. Cromwellian authority over the colonies was based upon mercantilist thought and enshrined in the Navigation Acts, passed between 1651 and 1673. These required that colonial exports and imports be carried in British vessels, that certain American goods could only be sold in Britain, and foreign products could only be shipped to the colonies via England and subject to its import duties. In reality, the acts generated a trading milieu and great opportunities and wise British governments left the Americas to their own devices and ignored smuggling and other forms of illegal trade, which rapidly became accepted customs. The Dutch West Indies was soon a favorite spot, especially Curaçao, to sell listed goods and buy untaxed foreign products. When caught, smugglers tended to be treated leniently, and the customs service, finally established in 1671, had little impact on smuggling. The colonies became locked into an important trans-Atlantic web of commercial contacts and traded with the West Indies, the Madeira Islands, southern Europe, and Britain, naval stores being vitally important to the latter. Grain, wood, dried fish, livestock, tobacco, indigo, and rice were all important products with America receiving manufactured goods, slaves, molasses, and spices. Consequently, Boston, Philadelphia, Newport, New York, and,

eventually Charleston, transmuted into bustling ports and ship-building centers.

Upon his restoration in 1660, King Charles II took very little interest in the colonies but his successor, brother James II (1685–88) wished to impose his style of overt control on British colonies, which led to immense resentment. The reign of William and Mary next sought to eradicate maladministration and chaos, and attempted to incrementally reduce the privileges acquired in the previous royal charters. Under Charles II, Connecticut was granted a charter in 1664 and Rhode Island and Providence in 1663, with minor adjustments to the area of Connecticut (plus New Haven, 1664). The year 1684 witnessed the annulment of the Massachusetts Charter after London traders claimed that the colony was *ultra vires* in the use of its terms. In fact, the late seventeenth century had seen most American colonists exercising much local autonomy. Town meetings in New England handled local affairs and these were attended by most free male adult residents. Elected selectmen in the north and judges of the country court in the Chesapeake ran daily affairs. The New England colonies were virtually independent politically, being outside real proprietorial or royal control. Furthermore, voting was based on a property qualification and a large proportion of males possessed the franchise even if they did not use it; estimates suggest that between 50 percent to 80 percent of adult white males had a vote. Hence, the growth of democracy in America was much in advance of England where most men were tenant-farmers or agricultural wage labourers with no hope of a voice in local political or economic affairs.

Such liberal developments in America were anathema to James II. The Navigation Acts were more vigorously enforced on the assumption that New England was a snakepit full of smugglers. To impose greater authority, James established the Dominion of New England, comprising New York, New England, and New Jersey. The assemblies were dissolved by Governor Andros, but he needed the consent of a nominated council to make laws and collect taxes. However, the Glorious Revolution of 1688 led by William of

Orange and his wife, Mary, daughter of James, overthrew this autocratic Stuart who had incensed parliament by levying taxes without its sanction. New Englanders, New Yorkers, and Marylanders overthrew their hated government, but the new monarchs wanted to enforce strict authority. Massachusetts became a royal colony, like many other provinces, with a governor and court; legislation could be vetoed by the former, but the franchise was also extended. Pennsylvania's 1701 Charter granted the lower house all legislative power, the council being appointive and advisory. Hence, despite royal interference, large measures of liberal and democratic development did exist with a strong legacy of self-rule and this situation was helped by the nature of British government. A whole range of institutions muddled and conflicted with each other, such as the Board of Trade and Plantations, which could evaluate colonial legislation and advise governments but had no real power. A variety of governors, assemblies, the customs service, and ministers for the colonies, together with army garrison commanders, all had their say. Thus, gentlemanly bedlam, decentralization, and calculated forgetfulness allowed the colonies to flourish. However, these soon faced the expense of costly Franco-British colonial wars in the Americas.

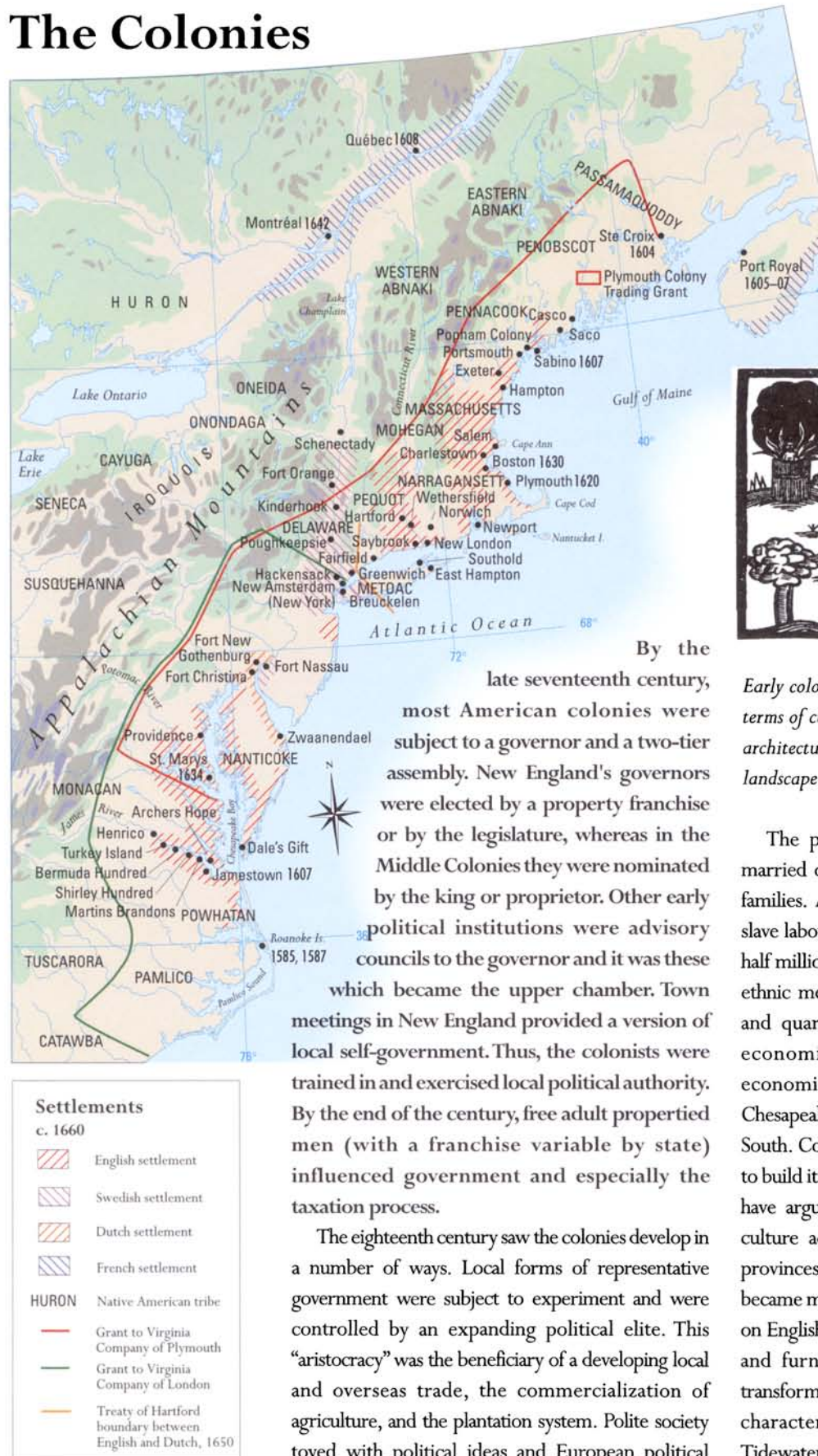
The eighteenth century witnessed extensive settlement along the entire Atlantic seaboard with New England, the Middle Colonies, and the South being differentiated in economic and trade terms. Furthermore, a large measure of similar political representation and property enfranchisement existed with the bulk of the population being American-born or recently arrived non-English speaking immigrants. In the decades preceding the Revolution, certainly Massachusetts and its Puritan mentality distrusted British institutions and evolved a tradition of independence but also of intolerance towards others. The colony constantly re-examined its charter of 1629 and claimed that William and Mary's version of 1691 had extinguished their rights and freedoms as English citizens, and this was discussed again in 1775. Massachusetts citizens looked back to the Cromwellian period of paternal neglect as a golden age of *de facto* independence and

argued against the British view that colonists took no sovereign power with them to America, but Great Britain had seized sovereignty from Indian tribes and nations. Thus, parliament had acquired authority from the Native Americans by conquest, and local laws and assemblies could not alter this. By 1776, Massachusetts was demanding satisfaction of inalienable rights and government by contract. Thus, covenant theology theory became a construct through which colonials viewed British policy. Similarly, New York developed a non-conformist character as evidenced in artisan dissatisfaction and political assertion during the 1689 Leisler revolt against Andros, which led to Leisler's later death by hanging. The growth of mob politics, and socio-economic (class) cleavages became prevalent as colonial economies developed from semi-feudal, agricultural to capitalist ones during the early stages of modernization. American artisans also differed from the British variety in that labor was scarce and valuable and artisans used this as an economic and political lever to acquire higher wages, and they refused to accept a subordinate status or subscribe to British deference patterns.

Therefore, underlying American colonial growth was submerged a measure of intransigence and resentment. In political terms, local representative, actually delegative, assemblies could not pursue local interests in the face of executive power delegated to executive governors by the monarch. Governors, in turn, were relatively weak and constrained by overseas directives that limited cooperation and negotiation with local representatives. Failed or deadlocked town meetings could generate riotous action by artisans. Bacon's Rebellion, New York land riots, squatters, frontiersmen demonstrating in Philadelphia (1764), and North Carolina Regulator activity were all, arguably, instances of citizens demanding redress of grievances or solutions to problems. Hence, mob reactions against the 1765 Stamp Act followed a tradition of American political participation and radical street action and led to further arguments against the Townshend Acts. Thus, American history and development inculcated those traits which proved so formidable in laying the groundwork and legitimacy for later Revolution.



# The Colonies



philosophers, such as John Locke and Montesquieu, were debated. This elite became progressively well-educated after higher education expanded with the foundation of Harvard in 1636, the College of William and Mary (1693), Yale (1701), through to Rutgers in 1766.



*Early colonists brought English values to America in terms of customs, dress, agricultural techniques, and architecture, thereby changing the American landscape.*

By the late seventeenth century, most American colonies were subject to a governor and a two-tier assembly. New England's governors were elected by a property franchise or by the legislature, whereas in the Middle Colonies they were nominated by the king or proprietor. Other early political institutions were advisory councils to the governor and it was these which became the upper chamber. Town meetings in New England provided a version of local self-government. Thus, the colonists were trained in and exercised local political authority. By the end of the century, free adult propertied men (with a franchise variable by state) influenced government and especially the taxation process.

The eighteenth century saw the colonies develop in a number of ways. Local forms of representative government were subject to experiment and were controlled by an expanding political elite. This "aristocracy" was the beneficiary of a developing local and overseas trade, the commercialization of agriculture, and the plantation system. Polite society toyed with political ideas and European political

The population expanded rapidly as settlers married out of economic necessity and bred large families. An influx of non-English Europeans and slave labor expanded colonial numbers to one and a half million people in 1750. Rather than creating an ethnic melting pot, the colonies became disunited and quarrelsome. Increasing diversity followed economic development with four regional economies being created: New England, the Chesapeake, the Middle Colonies and the Lower South. Combined with the ethnic mix, America had to build its own culture and identity. Some historians have argued that English settlers took an English culture across the Atlantic to make the colonies provinces of England. However, over time they became more self-sufficient despite being dependent on English imports in the form of, items like, books and furniture. In reality, early colonists were transformed into colonials and assumed different characteristics to their English counterparts. Tidewater aristocrats occupied mansions similar to