

Chapter 4: Chapter Outline

The following annotated chapter outline will help you review the major topics covered in this chapter.

Instructions: Review the outline to recall events and their relationships as presented in the chapter. Return to skim any sections that seem unfamiliar.

I. New England's Freehold Society

A. Farm Families: Women in the Household Economy

1. Men claimed power in the state and authority in the family; women were subordinate.
2. Women in the colonies were raised to be dutiful "helpmates" to their husbands.
3. The labor of the Puritan women was crucial to the rural household economy.
4. Bearing and rearing children were equally crucial. Most women married in their early twenties and by their early forties had given birth to six or seven children.
5. More women than men joined the churches so that their children could be baptized.
6. A gradual reduction in farm size prompted couples to have fewer children.
7. With fewer children, women had more time to enhance their families' standard of living.
8. Most New England women's lives were tightly bound by a web of legal and cultural restrictions; they were excluded from an equal role in the church and overall abided by the rule that they should be employed only in the home and only doing women's work.

B. Farm Property: Inheritance

1. Men who migrated to the colonies escaped many traditional constraints, including lack of land.
2. Parents with small farms who could not provide their sons and daughters with land placed them as indentured servants.
3. When indentures ended, some propertyless sons climbed from laborer to tenant to freeholder.
4. Children in successful farm families received a "marriage portion."
5. Parents chose their children's partners because the family's prosperity depended on it.
6. Brides relinquished ownership of their land and property to their husbands.
7. Fathers had a cultural duty to provide inheritances for their children.
8. Farmers created whole communities composed of independent property owners.

C. Freehold Society in Crisis

1. With each generation, the population of New England doubled, mostly from natural increase.
2. Parents had less land to give their children, so they had less control over their children's lives.
3. By using primitive methods of birth control, many families were able to have fewer children.
4. Families petitioned the government for land grants and hacked new farms out of the forests.
5. Land was used more productively; crops of wheat and barley were replaced with high-yielding potatoes and corn.
6. Gradually, New England changed from a grain to a livestock economy.
7. A system of community exchange helped preserve the freehold ideal.

II. Toward a New Society: The Middle Colonies, 1720–1765

A. Economic Growth and Social Inequality

1. Fertile lands and long growing seasons attracted migrants to the Middle Atlantic, and profits from grain exports financed their rapid settlement.
2. The manorial lords of New York's Hudson River Valley attracted tenants by granting long leases and the right to sell their improvements, such as barns and houses, to the next tenant.
3. Inefficient farm implements kept most tenants from saving enough to acquire freehold farmsteads.
4. Rural Pennsylvania and New Jersey were initially marked by relative economic equality.
5. The rise of the wheat trade and an influx of poor settlers created social divisions, resulting in a new class of agricultural capitalists.
6. By the 1760s, one-half of all white men in the Middle Atlantic owned no property.
7. Merchants and artisans took advantage of the supply of labor and organized an "out-work" manufacturing system.
8. As colonies became crowded and socially divided, farm families feared a return to peasant status.

B. Cultural Diversity

1. The middle colonies were a patchwork of ethnically and religiously diverse communities.
2. Migrants tried to preserve their cultural identities by marrying within their own ethnic groups or maintaining the customs of their native lands.
3. Quakers, the dominant social group in Pennsylvania, were pacifists who dealt peaceably with Native Americans and condemned slavery.
4. The Quaker vision attracted many Germans who were fleeing war, religious persecution, and poverty.
5. Germans guarded their language and cultural heritage, encouraging their children to marry within the community.
6. Emigrants from Ireland formed the largest group of incoming Europeans.
7. Most were Presbyterian Scots-Irish who had faced discrimination and economic regulation in Ireland.
8. Thousands of Scots-Irish sailed for Philadelphia beginning in the 1720s, first moving to central Pennsylvania and southward down the Shenandoah Valley into Maryland and Virginia.
9. The Scots-Irish also preserved their culture, holding firm to the Presbyterian faith.

C. Religious Identity and Political Conflict

1. German ministers criticized the separation of church and state in Pennsylvania, believing the church needed legal power to enforce morality.
2. Religious sects in Pennsylvania enforced moral behavior through communal self-discipline.
3. Communal sanctions sustained a self-contained and prosperous Quaker community.
4. In the 1740s, the Scots-Irish Presbyterians challenged Quaker political dominance by demanding a more aggressive Indian policy.
5. Many German migrants opposed the Quakers because they were denied fair representation in the Assembly and wanted laws that respected their inheritance customs.
6. The region's cultural and religious diversity prefigured the ethnic and social conflicts that would characterize much of American society in the centuries to come.

III. The Enlightenment and the Great Awakening, 1720–1765

A. The Enlightenment in America

1. Many early Americans believed in folk wisdom, while others relied on a religion that believed the earth was the center of the universe and that God intervened directly and continuously in all kinds of human affairs.
2. In the century between Newton's *Principia Mathematica* (1687) and the French Revolution in 1789, the philosophers of the European Enlightenment used empirical research and scientific reasoning to study all aspects of life, including social institutions and human behavior.
3. Enlightenment thinkers advanced four fundamental principles: the order of the natural world, the power of human reason, the natural rights of individuals (including the right to self-government), and the progressive improvement of society.
4. John Locke proposed that human lives were not fixed but could be changed through education and purposeful action.
5. In Locke's *Two Treatises on Government*, he advanced the theory that political authority was not divinely ordained but rather sprang from social compacts people made to preserve their natural rights to life, liberty, and property.
6. European Enlightenment ideas began to affect colonists' beliefs about science, religion, and politics.
7. Some influential colonists, including inventor and printer Benjamin Franklin, turned to **deism**, the belief that God had created the world to run in accordance with the laws of nature and natural reason, without His intervention.
8. The Enlightenment added a secular dimension to colonial intellectual life.

B. American Pietism and the Great Awakening

1. While educated Americans turned to deism, other colonists turned to Pietism, which came to America with German migrants in the 1720s and sparked a religious **revival**.
2. Pietism emphasized pious behavior, religious emotion, and the striving for a mystical union with God.
3. In Pennsylvania and New Jersey, the Dutch minister Theodore Jacob Frelinghuysen preached rousing, emotional sermons to German settlers; in New England, Jonathan Edwards did the same for Congregational churches in the Connecticut River Valley.
4. In the 1730s, the strict Calvinist New England minister Jonathan Edwards restored Christian zeal to Congregational churches in the Connecticut River Valley and helped to influence Enlightenment thought by agreeing with Locke that ideas are the product of experience.
5. Beginning in 1739, the compelling George Whitefield, a follower of John Wesley's preaching style, transformed local revivals into a "Great Awakening."
6. Hundreds of colonists felt the "new light" of God's grace and were eager to spread Whitefield's message throughout their communities.

C. Religious Upheaval in the North

1. Conservative, or Old Light, ministers condemned the preaching of traveling New Light ministers for their emotionalism and for allowing women to speak in public.
2. In Connecticut, traveling preachers were prohibited from speaking to established congregations without the ministers' consent.
3. Some farmers, women, and artisans condemned the Old Lights as "unconverted" sinners.
4. The Awakening undermined support of traditional churches and challenged their tax-supported

status; “separatist” churches were founded that favored the separation of church and state.

5. The Awakening gave a new sense of religious authority to many colonists through its challenge to the authority of ministers and reaffirmed communal values as it questioned the pursuit of wealth.
6. One tangible and lasting product of the Awakening was the founding of colleges—such as Princeton, Rutgers, Columbia, and Brown—to train ministers for various denominations.
7. The true intellectual legacy of the Awakening was not education for the few but a new sense of religious—and ultimately political—authority among the many.

D. Social and Religious Conflict in the South

1. The Great Awakening in the South challenged both the dominance of the Church of England and the planter elite.
2. The social authority of the Virginia gentry was threatened as freeholders left the established church for New Light revivals.
3. Religious pluralism threatened the government’s ability to impose taxes to support the established church.
4. Anglicans closed down Presbyterian meeting houses to prevent the spread of the New Light doctrine.
5. During the 1760s, many poorer Virginians were drawn to enthusiastic Baptist revivals, where even slaves were welcome.
6. The gentry reacted violently to the Baptist threat to their social authority and way of life, though Baptist congregations continued to multiply.
7. The revival in the Chesapeake did not bring radical changes to the social order; Baptist men kept church authority in the hands of “free born male members.”
8. As Baptist ministers spread Christianity among slaves, the revival helped to shrink the cultural gulf between blacks and whites, undermining one justification for slavery and giving blacks a new religious identity.

IV. The Midcentury Challenge: War, Trade, and Social Conflict, 1750–1765

A. The French and Indian War

1. Indians, who in 1750 still controlled the interior of North America, used their control of the fur trade to bargain with both the British and the French.
2. The Iroquois strategy of playing off the French against the British was breaking down as European resentment of the costs of “gifts” of arms and money rose.
3. Indian alliances crumbled in the face of escalating Anglo-American demands for land.
4. The Ohio Company obtained a royal grant of 200,000 acres along the upper Ohio River—land controlled by Indians.
5. To counter Britain’s movement into the Ohio Valley, the French set up a series of forts.
6. The French seized George Washington and his men as they tried to support the Ohio Company’s claim to the land.
7. Britain dispatched forces to America, where they joined with the colonial militia in attacking French forts.
8. In June 1755, British and New England troops captured Fort Beauséjour in Nova Scotia (Acadia) and deported 10,000 French Catholic Acadians to France, Louisiana, or the West Indies.
9. In July, General Edward Braddock and his British and colonial troops were soundly defeated by a small group of French and Indians at Fort Duquesne.

B. The Great War for Empire

1. By 1756, the fighting in America had spread to Europe, where it arrayed France, Spain, and Austria against Britain and Prussia in a conflict known as the Seven Years' War in Europe and the French and Indian War in the colonies.
2. Britain saw France as its main obstacle to further expansion in profitable overseas trading.
3. William Pitt, a committed expansionist, planned to cripple France by attacking its colonies.
4. The fall of Quebec, the heart of France's American empire, was the turning point of the war.
5. The British ousted French traders from India, seized French territory in West Africa as well as the sugar islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe, and won Cuba and the Philippines from Spain.
6. The Treaty of Paris of 1763 granted British sovereignty over half the continent of North America; French territory was reduced to a handful of islands in the West Indies and two islands off the coast of Newfoundland.
7. Britain's victory alarmed Indian peoples, who feared an influx of Anglo-American settlers.
8. In 1763, the Ottawa chief Pontiac led a group of loosely confederated tribes in a major uprising known as "Pontiac's rebellion" against the British, capturing many British garrisons and killing or capturing over 2,000 settlers.
9. The Indian alliance gradually weakened, and they accepted the British as their new political "fathers."
10. In return, the British established the Proclamation Line of 1763, barring settlers from going west of the Appalachians.

C. British Industrial Growth and the Consumer Revolution

1. Britain had unprecedented economic resources and, by 1750, its combination of strong commerce and industry made it the most powerful nation in the world.
2. The new machines and business practices of the Industrial Revolution allowed Britain to sell goods at lower prices, particularly in the mainland colonies.
3. Americans paid for British imports by increasing their exports of wheat, rice, and tobacco.
4. This increased trade resulted in a "consumer revolution" that raised the living standard of many Americans.
5. The first American spending binge landed many colonists in debt.
6. The loss of military subsidies prompted an economic recession.
7. Americans had become dependent on overseas creditors and international economic conditions.

D. The Struggle for Land in the East

1. The growth of the colonial population caused conflicts over land, particularly in Pennsylvania and Connecticut; settlers from the two colonies asserted their claims by burning down their rivals' houses and barns.
2. Wappinger Indians, Massachusetts migrants, and Dutch settlers all tried to claim manor lands in the Hudson River Valley; mob violence erupted but was quashed by British general Thomas Gage, whose men joined local sheriffs and bailiffs.
3. English aristocrats in New Jersey and the southern colonies successfully asserted legal claims to land based on outdated charters.
4. Proprietary power increased the resemblance between rural societies in Europe and America.
5. Tenants and freeholders looked westward for cheap freehold land near the Appalachian Mountains.

E. Western Rebels and Regulators

1. Movement to the western frontier created new disputes over Indian policy, political representation, and debts.
2. In Pennsylvania, Scots-Irish demands for the expulsion of Indians and the ensuing massacre led by the Paxton Boys left a legacy of racial hatred and political resentment.
3. In 1763, landowning vigilantes known as the North Carolina Regulators demanded greater political rights, local courts, and fairer taxes.
4. In 1766, a more radical Regulator movement arose in the backcountry of North Carolina, caused by plummeting tobacco prices that forced debt-ridden farmers into court.
5. To save their farms, debtors joined with the Regulators to intimidate judges, close courts, and free their comrades from jail.
6. The royal governor mobilized the eastern militia against the Regulator force, which resulted in the defeat of the Regulators and the execution of their leaders.
7. Tied to Britain, yet growing resistant toward its control, America had the potential for independent existence.