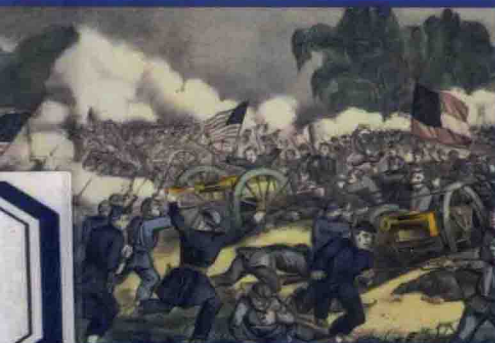


ALMANAC OF American Military History



Volume I

1000–1830



SPENCER C. TUCKER

Almanac of American Military History

Volume I
1000-1830

Spencer C. Tucker



 ABC-CLIO

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For Major Wilson C. Tucker, ARNG

PREFACE

I have chosen to begin the almanac with the European voyages of discovery, including the early trips to the Caribbean and South America as well as to North America. While not strictly military in nature, they established trading rivalries and efforts to secure territory that directly affected all that follows. Apart from some well-known military exploits, including Englishman Francis Drake's attacks on the Spanish Main and his circumnavigation of the globe, which had implications for America as well as sketching certain major European developments that impacted events in North America, I have then concentrated primarily on North American developments and especially the struggle between the French and English for control of the continent.

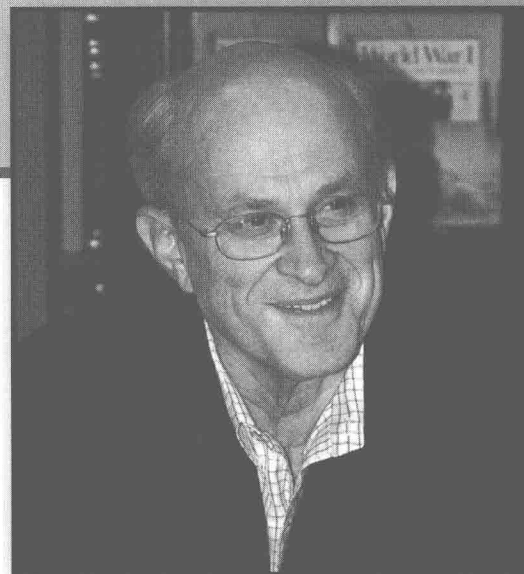
Beginning with the English victory over the French in the Seven Years' War of 1756–1763, the chronological narrative is devoted almost exclusively to the military history of the area that would become the United States and the military operations involving its inhabitants. Although I do attempt to list major military events outside of North America, I have endeavored to provide detailed entries only on those non-North American events that specifically impact the future United States. Thus, with but few exceptions, I do include the major engagements in the West Indies during the American Revolutionary War as well as important naval battles in European waters but not fighting in the Pacific. I also include the Mukden Incident of 1931, which led to the Second Sino-Japanese War and to reinforcement of U.S. forces in China and confrontation between the United States and Japan.

I have included in the basic chronology instances of armed rebellion and some political events that have direct bearing on military developments. Also included are events involving Americans overseas, such as filibuster William Walker in Nicaragua and adventurer Frederick Townsend Ward in China.

Rather than simply list every possible event in a sentence, I have chosen to omit many small engagements involving only a few men and have tried to present a more complete picture of principal battles and engagements, especially in the American Indian Wars.

I have endeavored to use new style dates throughout. This has not always been successful, even with cross-checking. During the period up to 1752 and the shift over to the Julian calendar, there is a difference of 10–11 days depending on the century. Old style is indicated by O.S.

In ships' armaments for the Age of Fighting Sail, in order to convey true strength, I have tried to indicate the actual number of guns carried (this does usually not include smaller weapons, such as swivel guns or howitzers). These numbers were generally in excess of the given rating for a ship. Thus, a ship rated at



Spencer C. Tucker

44 guns might actually carry as many as 55 guns. I have included boat howitzers in the armament figures, which is perhaps a bit misleading, but during the American Civil War they were the principal armament of most smaller riverine craft. Because of the increasing numbers of ships and the complexity of their armaments, I generally omit these figures after 1870.

I have tried to select individuals for biographical sketches on the basis of their impact as well as notoriety. Regarding weapons, I have sought to include pivotal systems as well as important individual weapons, such as particular ships, vehicles, and aircraft.

In putting together the almanac, I am especially grateful to three key individuals. Dr. Paul G. Pierpaoli Jr., my good right-hand man in so many ABC-CLIO endeavors, assembled the documents and provided the introductions to them. Major General AUS (ret) David T. Zabecki, PhD, is another close friend and collaborator; we have worked together on a number of projects. General Zabecki has provided a comprehensive discussion of U.S. military decorations and medals and U.S. military ranks. Finally, I must thank Associate Librarian Matthew J. Wayman at Pennsylvania State University Abington. He has also compiled comprehensive bibliographies for a number of my ABC-CLIO encyclopedias and here put together shorter bibliographies of the leading works for the individual wars.

The almanac includes some 25 charts, 30 maps, and 197 illustrations. It is my great hope that the almanac will be widely utilized by scholars and students of American military history.

SPENCER C. TUCKER

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CONFLICT IN COLONIAL AMERICA

Settlers, Indians, and European Intrigues in the New World, 1000–1769

OVERVIEW

This summary provides both background and context to the entries and essays that follow. It is difficult, if not impossible, to cover linkages and interconnections among the numerous events, places, and themes in the separate entries of a chronologically arranged encyclopedia. On the other hand, the many entries that follow provide both details and nuances that cannot be covered here.

The Clash of Cultures

The colonial period, from the 16th century until the beginning of the American Revolutionary War in 1775, involved the conflicts of the many peoples in North America, principally in what is now the eastern United States and eastern Canada. In earlier decades, those conflicts were often between Native Americans and European explorers, settlers, and soldiers. Equally important were the conflicts among the various groups of Native Americans, who did not begin to see themselves as a single people or even as a group of peoples with related interests until the mid-18th century. Conflicts between Europeans and American Indians often included some Native American groups on both sides, and the interests being defended or advanced were an evolving combination of settler and native goals.

Conflicts among Europeans occurred in this earlier period, but they were relatively rare and quick. After 1689, conflicts among Europeans increasingly predominated, at least in the European perspective. These struggles usually involved the colonies of



Major General Louis Joseph, Marquis de Montcalm, commander of French forces in Canada, tries in vain to avert the massacre of British soldiers by French-allied Huron Indians on August 10, 1757. The attack occurred after the British surrender of Fort William Henry during the French and Indian War. (Library of Congress)

France and Great Britain, with an occasional clash with Spanish Florida. Prior to 1754, these conflicts were generally extensions of wars begun in Europe, fought for European reasons, and then concluded with European interests in mind.

North American colonists, especially British settlers, gave the wars different names, reflecting their ignorance of or indifference to the official *casus belli*. Even the accepted chronologies reflect their European origins. For example, the Seven Years' War, which actually had roots in the New World, officially began in 1756 and ended in 1763, but the fighting in North America, where the conflict was known as the French and Indian War, commenced in 1754 and for all intents and purposes concluded in 1760.

Settlers, colonial governments, and Indian nations grafted their own perceptions, experiences,

and interests onto those of the European powers. Conflicts between colonies, between Native Americans and settlers, and among Native Americans were all superimposed on the European-based pattern.

The Establishment of European Colonies

European sovereigns of the 15th to 17th centuries had no qualms about claiming jurisdiction over any lands encountered by their navigators, as long as no other “Christian prince” had claimed them. They assumed that the newly discovered lands would somehow further the power, wealth, and well-being of the mother country. The European powers, already engaged in long-term rivalries at home, tended to be jealous of one another’s gains, including their colonial gains, and fearful of advantages that might accrue to their rivals from them.

The legal basis for monarchs’ initial claims was the right of discovery, although the claims generally extended well beyond lands that the discoverers had actually seen. Prudent sovereigns ordered the establishment of forts, trading posts, or settlements to strengthen their claims on the basis of the right of occupation. In practical terms, the claims were also based on their possession of long-distance sailing vessels, professional armies, firearms, and horses, all of which were new to America and, with the exception of horses, relatively recent innovations in Europe.

From the European perspective, the presence of a non-Christian population did nothing to weaken claims, although for some it created a moral obligation to bring the “savages” to the “true religion.” The lives and cultures of the native peoples—termed “Indians” by the discoverers, who rather seriously miscalculated where they were—would be profoundly changed in endless ways. Novel European trade goods, such as iron cooking implements, knives, cloth, firearms, and alcohol, transformed the lifestyles of the Native Americans, who quickly formed a previously unknown dependency on outside suppliers.

To acquire trade goods, Native Americans devoted their lives to trapping and the accumulation of animal

furs and skins to an unprecedented degree, and they engaged one another in wars over hunting grounds and trading rights. Their own sense of identity was changed as they converted to new religions or formed new confederations in self-defense. Some linguistic groups (and sometimes even unrelated groups) became self-conscious nations for the first time. Finally, untold multitudes died from wars and even more from contagious European and African diseases to which they had no immunity.

The settlers’ treatment of the Native Americans—and the Native Americans’ treatment of the settlers—varied from place to place and from time to time. Early contact was often accompanied by mutual caution and suspicion, if not immediate hostility. At some point, relations generally involved large-scale violence.

Although settlers initially feared incursions by European rivals, most of the early conflict occurred between settlers and Native Americans. Often this began with an alliance between a settler group and one Native American nation or confederation against the latter’s rivals. (In a twist, Powhatan, the leader of the Powhatan Confederation, apparently tricked the settlers of Virginia into attacking the Chickahominy in 1616, then used the attack as evidence of a threat in order to convince the Chickahominy to subordinate themselves to his confederation.)

Normally the colonists provided valued European trade goods and military technology; the Native Americans provided manpower, intelligence of the local terrain and inhabitants, and emergency food supplies, which generally meant the difference between survival and extinction for a new colony. On other occasions, however, conflict came as a reaction to offensives or abuses, real or perceived, or out of fear that the other side was preparing to attack. Assaults against Native Americans by the English, in particular, were often preceded by rumors of Indian conspiracies and impending assaults, for which substantiation was rarely provided. New England Puritans often accompanied their attacks with denunciations of the Indians’ “degenerate” and “heathen” ways.

With time, demographic pressures and the expanding vale of settlement, especially in the British

colonies, fueled further conflict as the Indians saw themselves displaced from their native territories. Each side saw its own needs, ambitions, and cultural practices as the more legitimate and the other side's offenses as the more egregious. Eventually most colonial authorities, although not all, assumed that Native Americans were both capricious and hostile and that intimidation was the most effective way to deal with them. The precise causes of war, however, especially in the earliest decades, have often been obscured by incomplete, contradictory, and self-serving reports.

The European advantage in weaponry was of greatest utility on open fields or in fights over the control of fixed positions, such as villages or forts. This advantage was greatly mitigated in densely wooded areas, where Native American warriors used the tactics of encirclement and surprise (ambush) to great effect. The European technological edge was lessened by the sale of firearms to Indians; although the latter remained dependent on Europeans for arms and ammunition, they could often rely on the colonies of rival European powers. Colonial forces gradually adapted to ambushes and other Indian tactics, sometimes by mimicking them, other times by countering them, dispersing their forces and paying close attention to their surroundings (frequently with the aid of Indian scouts from rival nations) while seeking to maintain the advantages of European military discipline and organization.

It is worth noting that the so-called Indian style of fighting was itself a recent innovation. When Samuel de Champlain first encountered members of the Iroquois Confederation in 1609, for example, the Mohawk warriors fought in the open, in massed formation, wearing wooden armor. Their development of new tactics was a response to European firearms.

New Spain

Spanish colonizers concentrated their attention on the larger Caribbean islands and what would become Latin America, especially Mexico and Peru, where they found the gold and silver they needed to finance a rich court life and powerful fleets and armies in Europe. Spanish expeditions explored parts of North America in the early 16th century, but they concluded

that the precious metals were too scarce and the natives too hostile to warrant further interest.

Spanish treasure fleets from the New World became strategic targets for rival European navies. The treasure ships exited the Caribbean through the Straits of Florida, creating a strategic vulnerability in this narrow passage between that peninsula and the Bahamas. France, seeking outposts from which to strike at the Spanish fleets, was the first colonial power to establish small coastal settlements to the north, at Port Royal (Parris Island, South Carolina) in 1562 and Fort Caroline (Jacksonville, Florida) in 1564. Port Royal—not unlike a Spanish outpost on Virginia's York River in the 1570s and English outposts on Newfoundland Island and at Roanoke, Virginia, in the 1580s—failed in part because of hostilities with the local population. Spain responded to Fort Caroline in 1565 by sending an expedition there, wiping out the colony, and founded their own outpost, St. Augustine (San Agustín), on the Florida coast.

The Spanish remained at St. Augustine, the first permanent European settlement in what is today the United States, to ensure control of the straits and to serve as a warning to its rivals. Further Spanish expansion into the present southeastern United States was modest, consisting primarily of Indian missions in northern Florida and coastal Georgia intended in part to supply food and an outer defensive perimeter for St. Augustine. Later the Spanish built a second military stronghold, at Pensacola. Settlers were few and consisted above all of soldiers and missionaries. Economic development was limited.

Spain also had outposts in the present southwestern United States. These had few encounters with the other European powers, whose presence was initially limited to the East Coast, but they engaged in protracted conflicts with the Indian population, especially in New Mexico.

The Spanish Empire, in decline by the end of the 16th century, began to make seemingly small concessions. In treaties with England (1604) and the Netherlands (1609), Spain required that its monopoly in America be respected only where it maintained effective occupation. Vast stretches of territory now lay open to them, and rival European powers began

snatching up the smaller Caribbean islands and establishing colonies on the North American mainland (and even on parts of the South American coast).

Acadia and New France

France, having paused after the failure of the Carolina and Florida colonies, turned its attention north to Canada, far from any effective Spanish occupation. There, the French successfully exploited the rich fishing banks of the North Atlantic and the fur-bearing animals of the Canadian forests. French colonists, while more numerous than the Spanish in Florida, were still relatively few in number, and most were soldiers, former soldiers, or missionaries. Nonetheless, the colonizers collaborated with a network of Indian nations to create a vast fur-trading empire that extended from the Atlantic coast through the Great Lakes region to Hudson Bay in the North and the Dakotas in the Midwest.

The French were perhaps the most successful in the long-term management of relations with the Native American population. From the time of the settlement of Acadia (1604) and New France (1608) by Champlain, the French made an effort to seek the Native Americans out; to establish missions, forts, and trading posts among them; to assign people to learn their languages and customs; to engage regularly (from the 1640s) in ritualized diplomatic conferences and gift-giving ceremonies; and to keep track of the internal politics and the intertribal relations of the various Indian nations. Having a small population, New France did not strain relations with the American Indians by sending out ever-larger waves of settlers demanding ever-larger swaths of Indian land. In 1627, for example, Virginia had roughly 2,000 European settlers, whereas New France and Acadia combined had 107. By 1740 the British colonies had more than 900,000 settlers; Canada had fewer than 44,000. French Protestants, known as Huguenots, who were a potential source of large-scale migration, were actually forbidden to settle in New France after 1632 for fear of them disrupting the missionary efforts of the Jesuits. France used its colonies as commercial enterprises and relied heavily on the Native American population to staff the fur trade and to provide much

of the military might to secure it, in return for trade goods. Missionaries, in addition to pursuing religious goals for their own sake, were expected to help tie the Native American population to the French cause.

The French thus formed long-lasting alliances with the peoples of Acadia, the St. Lawrence Valley, the Ottawa Valley, and the Great Lakes: the Micmacs, the Montagnais, the Algonquins, the Nippisings, the Hurons, the Ojibwas (Chippewas), the Ottawas, the Potawatomis, and so on. The Abenakis of what is now southern Quebec and northern New England were also a frequent ally. The Abenaki alliance, shaky at first, was reinforced by the increasingly frequent clashes between the Abenakis and the expanding New England colonies and by the equally frequent wars between the Abenakis and the Iroquois. Factions often formed within these nations over the relative wisdom of allying with the French, forging an accommodation with the English, or seeking a neutral stance. In the case of these nations, the pro-French argument generally held the day.

Often the French were called upon to manage or settle disputes among their allies, and they frequently succeeded. In the process, however, the French and their new allies became entangled in a series of wars with the Iroquois Confederation. The Iroquois were longtime adversaries of several of France's Native American allies and also rivaled France itself for control of the fur trade.

Between 1640 and 1701, New France and the Iroquois Confederation were at war much of the time. There were occasional truces, especially when the Iroquois were simultaneously fighting the Susquehannocks to their south or the Mahicans and Abenakis to their east. During the more prolonged truces (1653–1658, 1667–1682), the Iroquois permitted the Jesuits to establish missions in their villages. In 1676 the French established Caughnawaga (now also spelled Kahnawake) in the St. Lawrence Valley, the first village built for Iroquois Catholic converts. These converts, mostly Mohawks, proved to be enduring allies for the French but they continued a surreptitious trade with Albany and would rarely fight other Iroquois. Much of the politics among Iroquois factions during this period focused on the attitude for

the confederation regarding the French and the British. Starting in 1680, however, the Iroquois initiated a series of raids against the Illinois, a recent French ally in the West, driving the latter further into the arms of the French. This eventually resulted in a return to warfare and the expulsion of the Jesuits.

The 1680s also witnessed the introduction of the *Troupes de la Marine*, a regular military force that, like the colonies themselves, was subordinated to the Ministry of the Navy. This force was initially raised in France and stationed in Canada. Many of its soldiers eventually settled there, and replacements were recruited locally. The unit evolved into a force that was more professional than the normal colonial militia, although arguably less so than regular French Army troops (*Troupes de Terre*). *Troupes de la Marine* were adept at Indian-style forest warfare (known as the skulking way of war).

The so-called Beaver Wars with the Iroquois did not always go well for the French and their allies, especially at midcentury. Iroquois raids became especially effective after the 1640s, when the Iroquois gained access to large numbers of Dutch firearms. The Iroquois reduced the once-mighty Hurons to the status of a wandering refugee band. Some remnants of the defeated (especially related Iroquoian groups, such as the Hurons, the Petuns, and the Neutrals) were adopted into Iroquois tribes and settled in special villages; others were dispersed. The Eries essentially disappeared from the historical record. The wars left present-day Ohio and Indiana virtually depopulated for half a century or more. Needless to say, New France suffered as well, and recruiting new settlers became exceedingly difficult during this period.

As a result of their own actions, however, the Iroquois generated the enduring animosity of many peoples over an enormous territorial expanse. The attack launched by the Marquis de Denonville against the Seneca villages in 1687—with 832 *Troupes de la Marine*, 1,030 militia, and 300 Native American allies from the East, joined by 160 *coureurs de bois* and nearly 400 Native Americans from the Midwest—was New France's largest military operation until the French and Indian War. Yet it was the Ojibwas and the Ottawas of the western Great Lakes who played

the largest role in finally pushing the Iroquois back into their home territory south of Lake Ontario in the 1690s.

Chesapeake Bay and New England

In the first half of the 17th century, Europe was disrupted by major wars, particularly the religion-inspired conflicts of central Europe (the Thirty Years' War [1618–1648]) and the long Dutch war of independence against Spain (the Eighty Years' War [1568–1648], a wide-ranging conflict that extended even to Brazil). England took advantage of the continental warfare to establish several colonies along the Atlantic coastline between the territories of France and Spain. The earliest centered on Chesapeake Bay (Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607) and New England (Plymouth, Massachusetts, in 1620). The English settlers found few precious metals or other exploitable resources apart from furs and deerskins. In the end, however, the English established settler colonies with far larger populations than those of France and Spain. The rapid growth resulted from both high birthrates and large-scale migration, including the migration of dissidents and foreigners: English Puritans, Quakers, and Catholics; the Scots and the Irish; and French and German Protestants. Among 18th-century immigrants, both Scots and Germans outnumbered the English.

There were also many unfree settlers: indentured servants, convicts, and, increasingly, African slaves. Enslaved Africans were to be found to some extent in all the colonies, north as well as south. One colony, Georgia, did attempt to prohibit slavery at its inception, but the ban lasted less than two decades.

As with other colonies, the early English settlements often depended on assistance from the local population to survive an initial starving time. Once they were established, however, their larger numbers made the English settlers less dependent on the Native Americans than were the French for the success of their enterprise. This was particularly true of plantation colonies, for which the Indians were mere obstacles and rival claimants to valuable lands. (Fur-trading colonies still had use for Native American allies.) Perhaps for this reason, the English colonists

made less effort to understand the local peoples. When war broke out, some settlers proved singularly unable or unwilling to distinguish among enemy, neutral, and even allied tribes, indiscriminately attacking or retaliating against all Indians.

The early Chesapeake colonists quickly formed an alliance with Powhatan, leader of the powerful Powhatan Confederation, against other Native American groups. Within two years, however, the dispersal of starving colonists looking for food and attempting to establish scattered self-sufficient settlements led to armed clashes with many local tribes (1609–1614). Relations quickly deteriorated again after Powhatan's death in 1618. Disputes over access to the James River, the appropriation of land for tobacco cultivation, common murders, and the question of proper reciprocal relations—which side was the suzerain and which the vassal—all added to accumulating tensions. The loss of thousands of settlers to epidemics increased the uncertainty of the situation. (In this instance, disease appears to have taken more settlers than Native Americans.)

Warriors of the Powhatan Confederation launched an attack in March 1622 that killed more than a quarter of the settler population in a single day. The Virginians surprised their attackers by fighting back instead of leaving, despite further heavy losses due to attack, starvation, and disease. Reciprocal acts of revenge were conducted with comparable ferocity. The devastation brought by the Anglo-Powhatan Wars brought about the bankruptcy of the Virginia Company and the establishment of Virginia as England's first royal colony in 1624.

A truce of sorts took hold by 1632, but fighting continued on and off until 1646. The Powhatans attempted to take advantage of the rivalry between Virginia and the new colony of Maryland but failed. Maryland, chartered in 1632, was founded by Catholics but attracted few Catholic settlers; as a result, its Catholic elite ruled over Protestant farmers and indentured servants. The colony got on relatively well with the Native American population but was occasionally attacked in the 17th century by anti-Catholic Virginians. By the end of the conflict, mutual hostility between cultures was a basic assumption, physical

separation was ingrained as a norm, and Native American prisoners were routinely sold into slavery in the West Indies.

By the 1670s the Susquehannocks—allies of Maryland who had been engaged in war with the Iroquois Confederation—began expanding from the Susquehanna and Delaware Valleys toward areas previously abandoned by the Powhatans. At the same time, tensions were mounting between Virginia frontiersmen on the one hand and the colonial government and the emerging planter elite on the other. The government viewed the frontier settlers, who were also moving into Powhatan lands, as abusive of the Native American population and too quick to start fights they could not win. The frontiersmen complained that the government and the elite were too interested in monopolizing the Indian trade, levying excessive taxes to build ineffective forts, and keeping the common folk in the position of indentured servants and tenant farmers rather than freeholders.

In 1675 a conflict on the Potomac River between Virginia settlers and the small Doeg tribe quickly escalated. It soon included the Susquehannocks and others, as settlers and militiamen struck various groups indiscriminately. Nathaniel Bacon, a recent arrival from England, was particularly aggressive in attacking Native American groups. His acts, in open defiance of Governor William Berkeley, multiplied the number of the colony's enemies immensely. Eventually Bacon asserted that all Native Americans were enemies. He also promised freedom and plunder to indentured servants who joined his volunteers. Berkeley declared Bacon a rebel, but Bacon's support was such that the governor had to compromise with him for a time. Eventually Bacon laid siege to the colonial government itself and burned Jamestown.

Only after the death of its leader was Bacon's Rebellion (1676–1677) suppressed. A new governor executed the rebel leaders, confiscated their lands, and extended the terms of service of indentured servants who had supported them. Class tensions among European settlers were eventually eased, largely at the expense of other groups. This was accomplished by the promise to open more Native American lands to settlement and by the shift in labor policy from white

indentured servants to African slaves. The previous militia was replaced with one based on the gentry.

In London, the Lords of Trade had reacted to the rebellion by extending its authority over both the colonial governors and the elected assemblies. For their part, the Iroquois benefited by absorbing the shattered remnants of the Susquehannocks. The Iroquois also extended their sphere of influence into the Susquehanna and Delaware River Valleys.

In New England prior to the arrival of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, there had already been two failed attempts to establish colonies on the coast of Maine. European seamen, including explorers and those who came temporarily to fish and trade for furs, had also frequented the area. As a grim consequence of those early contacts, an estimated 90 percent of the Native American population had already died from epidemics when the Pilgrims landed. That fact obviously disrupted the lives of the survivors. It also redefined power relationships among them, strengthening inland peoples such as the Narragansetts to the west and the Micmacs to the north, at the expense of coastal groups such as the Wampanoags and the Massachusetts.

At Plymouth, the Pilgrims forged an alliance with Wampanoag chief Massasoit, ostensibly against the Narragansetts. Assistance from the Wampanoags allowed the new colony to survive. Aware of fighting in Virginia, the Pilgrims anticipated trouble but were not drawn immediately into any major conflict.

By the 1630s the situation had changed. Direct and indirect rivalry among Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, New Netherland, recent settlers in the Connecticut River Valley, the Narragansetts, the Mohegans, and the Pequots over control of the Connecticut River and the wampum trade resulted in the Pequot War (1636–1637).

The Pequots, allied to the Dutch, were nearly destroyed. Those Pequots who survived the war were enslaved by the colonists, absorbed by the Narragansetts and Mohegans, or killed by the Mohawks. The new Connecticut Colony—and, temporarily at least, its Mohegan allies—benefited most from the acquisition of Pequot lands. Meanwhile, Massachusetts Bay increasingly overshadowed its smaller neighbor of Plymouth.

For a time, relations with the Native Americans improved. Land pressure was eased somewhat as a number of colonists returned to England to take up arms for the Puritan cause in the English Civil War. Conversions became more common, with so-called Praying Indians settling in designated Praying Towns. With time, however, the peace eroded. The land pressure returned with the restoration of the English monarchy in 1660. And conversion became a source of controversy among the Native Americans. Furthermore, the exhaustion of the New England fur and wampum trade undermined the economic bonds between the settlers and Native Americans. Relations deteriorated more rapidly following the death of Massasoit in 1661.

During 1675–1676, King Philip's War erupted between Plymouth and the Wampanoags. The war quickly drew in all the colonies and most of the Native American peoples of southern New England. At the same time, a separate war erupted with the Abenakis in Maine, and Bacon's Rebellion raged in the Chesapeake Bay area. In terms of the percentage of population killed on both sides, King Philip's War remains the bloodiest conflict in North American history.

New Netherland and New Sweden

Between the English settlements of the Chesapeake Bay and New England, the Dutch and the Swedes established colonies on the Hudson and Delaware Rivers, respectively. Although nominally a Dutch colony, roughly half the settler population of New Netherland consisted of Germans, Huguenots, Englishmen, Brazilian Jews, and African slaves. Unlike most colonies of the time, New Netherland relied on a professional, albeit small, military force for its defense. Eventually it increasingly supplemented this with militia forces as tensions grew with the Native Americans and New England. Perhaps most of New Sweden's settlers were Finnish, some were Dutch, and a few were disaffected Puritans from New Haven. New Sweden's early financial backers were Dutch, including disgruntled former officials of New Netherland. Peter (Pierre) Minuit, the German-born Huguenot who established New Amsterdam on Manhattan, was also the founder of New Sweden.

Permanent settlement of New Netherland began in 1624. Its principal port and administrative center, New Amsterdam (present-day New York City), was founded on Manhattan in 1626. An extensive fur trade was based at Fort Orange (Albany, New York). In 1632 the Dutch established a trading post on the Connecticut River. But in the wake of the Pequot War, New Englanders migrated into that area and settled all around the Dutch outpost. In 1653 during the first Anglo-Dutch War, Captain John Underhill, a privateer who previously had fought the Native Americans of Long Island on behalf of the Dutch, seized the outpost on his own initiative. The Connecticut General Court sequestered it the following year. This appears to be the only North American action associated with that war.

New Sweden (1638–1655) spread gradually from its initial focal point, Fort Christina (Wilmington, Delaware). The colony traded with the Delawares and the Susquehannocks and had relatively few difficulties with the Native American population. However, the colony did not last very long, and its population never exceeded a few hundred people. It was also situated on territory previously claimed by the Dutch. In 1651 the Dutch constructed Fort Casimir (New Castle, Delaware), which, had it been adequately maintained and supplied, could have controlled access to the Delaware River. A newly arrived Swedish governor, reversing the largely live-and-let-live attitude that had prevailed, seized Fort Casimir in 1654. In retaliation, in 1655 New Netherland seized the entire Swedish colony. Neither of these military actions met with serious resistance.

Tensions had gradually risen between New Netherland and the Algonquian peoples of the lower Hudson Valley. Among the reasons were the invasion of Native American cornfields by colonial cattle and hogs and the subsequent killing of the livestock by the Native Americans. Director Willem Kieft exacerbated the situation when he determined that the Native American population ought to be paying taxes to the settler government. Matters quickly escalated into Kieft's War (1643–1645). This was followed later by the Peach War (1655), which broke out while Director General Petrus Stuyvesant was subduing New Sweden. That in turn was followed by

the Esopus Wars (1658–1660, 1663–1664) farther up the Hudson. The Swedes on the Delaware River, now part of New Netherland, refused to participate in the Esopus Wars, citing their previous policy of nonaggression toward the Native American population. In combination, these wars destroyed Native American power in the lower Hudson River Valley and on Long Island, yet they also left the Dutch colony exhausted and faction-ridden.

After the end of the English Civil War and the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, the English began to wonder why they had tolerated the presence of the Dutch on a territory wedged between their New England and Chesapeake Bay colonies. To make matters worse, Dutch ships based in New Amsterdam regularly violated the English Navigation Acts, which had in fact been enacted with Dutch shipping in mind. In 1664 an English fleet seized New Netherland, which was then divided in two and renamed New York and New Jersey.

This action contributed to the outbreak of the Second Anglo-Dutch War, which the Dutch won. By then, however, Dutch leaders had lost interest in North America and willingly traded their former colony for rights to Suriname, on the South American coast. The Dutch briefly reoccupied New York (1673–1674) during the Third Anglo-Dutch War but yielded it on the conclusion of peace.

Carolina, Pennsylvania, and New York

In 1670, planters from Barbados established the colony of Carolina (in 1712 it divided into North and South). They engaged local groups, such as the Yamasees, in capturing members of other Native American nations to be sold into slavery. Other colonists including the New Englanders, and even some Native Americans, had kept Native American captives as slaves. But the Carolinians appeared particularly aggressive about starting fights for that purpose. To prevent slaves' rescue by their compatriots, the Carolinians sent them to Barbados to be exchanged for African slaves. As the direct agents in this sordid business, the Yamasees absorbed much of the wrath of the other tribes. Tensions arose between Carolina and a succession of Native Americans, precipitating the Westo War