An Overview

In a very real sense, all of the peoples who came to live in what is now the United States were immigrants—although we quite properly describe those who came first as First Americans, Earliest Americans, or Native Americans. The latter is today by far the most widely used name, and the one used in this book.

All those who came to the Americas have shared an essential fact: that they have been fully formed modern humans, that is, *Homo sapiens.* All evolved elsewhere, in some part of the "Old World," where there were forerunners and variant branches of humanity. It is quite clear that all those who came to the Americas were indeed immigrants, who arrived at different times and developed different civilizations, while simultaneously being part of a worldwide human society.

Earliest Americans

When humans migrated from the Old World and where they migrated from have long been disputed matters. Almost all archaeologists and historians agree that by at least 11,000 B.C., Asian hunter-gatherers had migrated across the then-dry Bering Land Bridge between northeast Asia and Alaska. However, a substantial minority are convinced that settlement of the Americas began long before that. Some have based their views on finds at a wide range of 14,000- to 40,000-year-old archaeological sites scattered throughout the Americas, most notably in northeastern Brazil and the American Southwest. Most notable so far are southern Chile's Monte Verde site, verifiably dated at 12,000 to 11,500 B.C.; and the Meadowcroft site, near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, verifiably dated at 10,000 B.C. The dating of the latter is very controversial, however, for some claim it as proof of settlement dating back to 18,000 to 17,000 B.C.

There have also long been unverifiable claims about early peoples from East Asia and the South Pacific making sea voyages of thousands of miles to make landfall on South America's west coast, and others traversing the Atlantic from east to west, riding the same great east-west South Atlantic currents that would later take Columbus to America. Farther afield, some people are convinced that the Americas were settled by people who came from the legendary "lost" continents of Atlantis and Mu. However, no adequately reliable evidence has so far supported any of these more speculative theories.

In sum, there are great problems associated with dating the settlement of the Americas earlier than perhaps 12,000 to 14,000 B.C.—and that may take it back a bit farther than most archaeologists are so far willing to go. There is another problem as well: the earliest verifiable settlers of the Americas seem to have come from northeast Asia across the Bering Land Bridge. However, there is no known evidence that people lived in northeast Asia much earlier than 20,000 to 15,000 B.C. These are generally accepted to be the Asian hunter-gatherers who had been spreading into northeastern Asia as glacial ice sheets receded, following the mammoths, reindeer, and other large animals that were their primary food sources.

With the end of the final stage of the Wisconsin Glaciation came a major warming trend that caused the massive glaciers covering much of the Northern Hemisphere to recede, releasing huge quantities of water that raised sea levels as much as several hundred feet. One result was the flooding of the Bering Land Bridge, in approximately 8000 B.C., to form the modern Bering Strait and Aleutian Islands. By then, the Bridge had served as an Asia-to-North America migration route for at least 5,000 to 6,000 years.

So far, archaeological finds indicate that the main migrations to North America took place in two major waves, with those who became the "Indian" peoples of the Americas migrating out of Asia 13,000 to 14,000 years ago, and those who became the Inuit and Aleut peoples arriving more recently, by land near the end of the glaciation, or perhaps island-hopping across the Aleutian chain after the flooding of the land bridge.

The earlier of these two main migrations out of Asia was the genesis of the Native American peoples of the Americas, among them the earliest peoples in what would become the United States. For at least 13,000 years before the European conquest, they would spread and develop into hundreds of separate peoples and many cultures. Their long and complex course of development spans a period fully as long as the whole course of known Old World history, from Mesopotamian, Egyptian, and East Asian beginnings until now, and is far beyond the purposes of this work on American immigration history. Nor were they immigrants after the flooding of the Bering Land Bridge; rather, in all their diversity, they had become the Native Americans whose lands and cultures were conquered by European invaders starting in 1492 (see also "Native Americans and Immigration" on p. 73).

Other Early Contacts

Before Columbus arrived in 1492, other peoples from various continents at least visited North America. Most of these contacts have not been verified, but some may have validity. *The Great Chinese Encyclopedia*, a substantial historical work published early in the sixth century A.D., describes the sea journey of a group of Chinese Buddhist priests led by Hui Shen across the Pacific to the west coast of what may be North America, followed by a coastwise voyage south to what is now Mexico. Their name for the country they found was *Fusang*. In that period, Chinese seafarers might very well have achieved such a trip—and the great Chinese historians must be heard, as they are some of the most notable scholars in world history. It was also in that period that Polynesian seafarers, probably from the Marquesas, settled in Hawaii.

Until the "Little Ice Age" of the 12th through the 16th centuries, the easiest way by far to reach the Americas was by way of the North Atlantic. It is only about 200 miles from Bergen, Norway, to the Shetlands; another 200 miles from the Shetlands to the Faeroes; 400 more to Iceland; and only 200 more to Greenland and the Americas. In those warmer centuries, there was during the summer little of the kind of subsurface ice that would in a later day sink even the *Titanic,* a massive steel ship. Sailing out of the Irish Sea past the Shetland Islands, or from the Norwegian coast past the Orkney Islands, off Scotland, seafarers could island-hop to the Faeroe Islands, to Iceland, and then on to Greenland and North America.

That is precisely what they did. Irish sea rovers moving out into the Atlantic settled in Iceland in the seventh and eighth centuries. Norse ships reached Iceland in the middle of the ninth century, and were followed by the first wave of immigrants in the 870s. By 900, the estimated Norse population of Iceland was 20,000; it reached 40,000 in 930.

In the 980s Erik the Red founded the first Norse Greenland colony, though he was not the first Norse seafarer to reach Greenland. He founded their second settlement a few years after that, in southeastern Greenland. A few years later, his son, Leif Eriksson, made the first recorded Norse landing on the mainland of North America, probably reaching the coast of Newfoundland, which the Norse called Vinland, after the grapevines they found there. The first known American-born child of European ancestry was a boy named Snorri, who was reportedly born in Vinland during the winter of 1003–1004.

A Norse settlement dating back to the 11th century, L'Anse aux Meadows, was discovered in 1960 on the northern tip of Newfoundland, at the entrance to the Strait of Belle Isle. The nature of the artifacts found there indicates that this was a ship repair and reprovisioning site, which implies that the Norse could and probably did explore considerably to the south on the North American coast, more than four centuries before Columbus.

Greenland's Norse settlements lasted at least 400 years, with peak populations in the 5,000–10,000 range. They may have lasted in much diminished form all the way into the mid-16th century. The advent and worsening of the "Little Ice Age" made travel and trade in the North Atlantic far more difficult, however. The Greenland settlements eventually ended, although the Iceland settlements went on without a break.

There was little, if any, pause in European contact with North America during the decades before Columbus "discovered" the New World. Portuguese vessels were probably fishing on the Grand Banks, off Newfoundland, in the final decades of the 15th century, and were soon joined by Basque, British, and Breton ships. Some vessels reportedly made landfall on what was probably Newfoundland; certainly those fishing in those waters were familiar with the Norse settlements on Iceland, and perhaps with those on Greenland as well. Like fishers throughout history, however, these visitors kept secret their favorite fishing grounds—and therefore most of what they knew about the lands they visited.

The Beginning of the European Invasion

Had it not been for the icing of the northern seas, European penetration of the New World might well have continued to come by the short, island-hopping route across the North Atlantic, to Greenland and Newfoundland and then south. As it was, an entirely different set of circumstances led to the European penetration and conquest of the Americas.

In 1453, Ottoman Turkish forces finally took Constantinople, after centuries of attacks on the failing Byzantine Empire. The Turks then blocked the major Asian-European trade routes, spurring new European efforts to find alternate trade routes to Asia. The Portuguese, who had been inching their way south along Africa's west coast since early in the 15th century, responded by accelerating their African explorations. Bartolomeu Dias rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1487, while Vasco da Gama reached India in 1498, beginning the long European attack on and partial conquest of south and east Asia.

Spain responded by turning west. On August 3, 1492, Spanish-sponsored Italian seafarer Christopher Columbus sailed south out of Palos, Spain, caught the westbound winds and current at the Canary Islands, and rode them to the Caribbean, making landfall on San Salvador, in the Bahamas, on October 12, 1492. During this first visit, he took hostages, beginning the long European assault on the peoples of the Americas. He later made landfall on Cuba and Hispaniola (Santo Domingo), on the latter founding Navidad, the first post-Columbian European settlement in the Americas. At Navidad, the European conquest of the Americas can be said to have begun.

A second major event in the history of the Americas—and of Africa—also occurred on Hispaniola. In 1501, the first African slaves were brought to the island, beginning the east-west portion of the transatlantic slave trade, which was to cost millions of African lives (see "The Slave Trade" on p. 321). The Atlantic slave trade had begun 60 years earlier, in 1441, when the Portuguese had brought their first 10 black African slaves back to Portugal.

On the eve of the European invasion and conquest of the Americas, the Native American population of the Americas was probably in the 20 million to 25 million range. Of these, an estimated 1 million to 3 million lived in what would later become the United States. However, estimates vary widely, and no consensus exists as to preconquest populations.

A major and unknown factor is the number of Native Americans killed by plague during the conquest. The coming of the Europeans was marked by devastating plagues that apparently killed millions of Native Americans throughout the Americas, including at least some hundreds of thousands in what would become the United States. The Native Americans had no resistance to the diseases carried by the peoples of the Old World, for the Native Americans had developed largely in isolation since the flooding of the Bering Land Bridge 9,000 to 10,000 years before Columbus.

Early Europeans in the New World

The first European seafarer of his day known to have reached the North American mainland was Italian sailor John Cabot (Giovanni Caboto), who captained an English ship that reached Newfoundland and possibly Nova Scotia's Cape Bre-

Authors' Archives

This is an early artist's fanciful view of the arrival of Christopher Columbus's three ships in the Americas.

ton Island in 1497. He was followed by his son, Sebastian Cabot, who sailed an English ship into the approaches to Hudson Bay in 1509.

Juan Ponce de León was the first of the Spanish conquerors to reach North America, in 1513. This marked the beginning of the European conquest of North America, although settlement did not follow until mid-century. European penetration, though not settlement, also soon came in the north. Giovanni da Verrazano, another Italian leading an English expedition, explored the Newfoundland and Belle Isle coasts, as well as Narragansett and New York Bays, in 1524.

Ten years later, in 1534, Jacques Cartier led the first major French expedition to the New World, landing at Chaleur Bay, on the coast of New Brunswick. Cartier entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence through the Strait of Belle Isle, between Newfoundland and the Quebec mainland, and landed on New Brunswick's Gaspé Peninsula at Chaleur Bay. He returned to Canada in 1535 and this time sailed into the interior of North America, up the St. Lawrence River to the Native American village of Hochelaga, later the site of Quebec City, and farther on to the Lichine Rapids, later the site of Montreal.

Strong Spanish penetration into the North American mainland began with Hernando de Soto's 1539 expedition, which landed in Florida and traveled throughout the Southeast and mid-South, all the way to the Mississippi River in 1541. The de Soto expedition brought with it diseases that devastated many Native American

tribes, among them the Mandans of the Mississippi basin, a highly cultured farming people.

Francisco Vásquez de Coronado led another Spanish expedition in 1540. This one went north out of Mexico into what would become the American Southwest. In July 1540, Coronado's forces took Zuni Pueblo and—with Native American guides—went on to reach the Grand Canyon. Of tremendous significance was Coronado's introduction of the horse to North America. With the horse came enormous changes in the lives of the Native American peoples of the Great Plains. In later centuries, these peoples would be joined by many other Native Americans from the eastern woodlands, as they were pushed farther west by the conquering Europeans, who by then had themselves become Americans.

Spanish seafarers also explored the Pacific coast of North America. Juan Cabrillo led the way, in 1542 exploring that coast from Navidad, near Acapulco, to Oregon. However, substantial European settlement of the Pacific coast would not come until the 1770s, and would become heavy only with the California Gold Rush of 1849.

These explorers—and the lands they claimed for their countries—laid the basis for the long European imperial contest for the Americas. Major players in the fight for North America would include Britain, France, the Netherlands, Spain, Russia, and later the United States, Mexico, and Canada.

Authors' Archives

The Mandan people who lived in the Mississippi Valley were largely destroyed by epidemics of diseases inadvertently introduced into the region by the de Soto expedition in 1541.

On the mainland of eastern North America, the European contest began in 1564, with France's establishment of Fort Caroline, on Florida's St. Johns River. Stung by the French initiative, Spanish forces took Fort Caroline in 1565, while Spanish settlers in that year also founded Florida's St. Augustine, the first permanent European settlement in what would later become the United States.

Nuevo Mexico

It was in the Southwest, however, that the main Spanish push into North America came. Spanish penetration roughly followed the course of North America's greatest migration route, the Old North Trail, which ran from northern Canada all the way to Chile along the eastern slope of the long chain of mountains that includes the Rockies and the Andes.

For the earliest Asian immigrants, who had crossed the Bering Land Bridge more than 10,000 years before, the Old North Trail had been the main route south. From approximately A.D. 300 until the early 15th century, the area that later became the American Southwest was home to some of North America's highest cultures. Among them were peoples called the Anasazi (Old Ones). They were so named by nomadic raiders from the north, whom the Anasazi called Apaches (Enemies). By the time of the Spanish conquest of the southwest, the Anasazi had all but disappeared. The peaceful Pueblo peoples were unable to resist the Spanish invaders, who enslaved them. Many other Native American peoples would continue to resist the invaders, however. In northern Mexico, they would fight a series of very substantial wars against Spain and Mexico all the way into the early 20th century. Apaches and Comanches also resisted Mexican and later U.S. forces, some late into the 19th century.

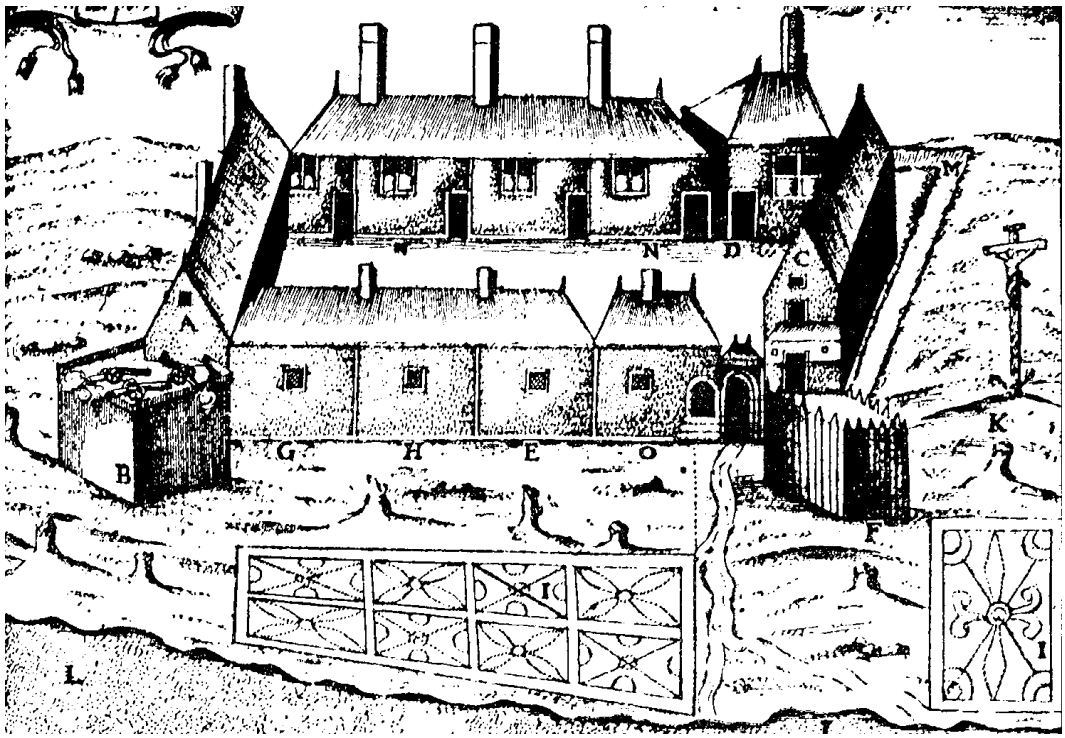
In August 1519, a little less than 27 years after Columbus made landfall on San Salvador, a Spanish force of only 600, led by Hernán Cortés, attacked and took Tenochtitlán (Mexico City). In 1521, after losing the city to an Aztec insurrection, they and local allies retook the city and killed Aztec emperor Montezuma. Spain then went on to take the entire Aztec empire and all of central America. By the 1580s, Spanish exploring and raiding expeditions had reached the Rio Grande.

The first successful major Spanish incursion into what would become the American Southwest occurred in 1598, when Don Juan de Oñate led a party of 200 settlers north on New Spain's El Camino Real (the Royal Road) on the main direct route north, reaching the Rio Grande (Río Bravo) south of El Paso (the Pass). The settlement survived its difficult early years; its capital, Santa Fe (Holy Faith), was founded in 1610. However, in 1680, a successful Pueblo insurrection drove out the Spanish colonists, who by then numbered 3,600. Spanish control was reestablished in 1693, with the area becoming the province of Nuevo México (New Mexico). The region would remain under Spanish and then Mexican control until 1848; then, after the Mexican War, the United States annexed the region, along with Texas, the rest of the American Southwest, and California.

Rivalry for Eastern North America

In the 17th century, European immigration to eastern North America began in earnest, spurred in part by imperial rivalries, and also by major European religious, political, and commercial developments. Within a single decade, France, England, and the Netherlands founded settlements that would grow into full-scale colonies.

Following the path taken by Cartier more than half a century earlier, French explorer Samuel de Champlain entered the interior of North America in 1603 via the St. Lawrence River, exploring south on the river as far as the Lichine Rapids. The first of the great French explorers of North America, he would reach Lake Huron in 1615. Jean Nicolet would reach Green Bay in 1634, and René-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, would travel through the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley all the way to the mouth of the Mississippi in 1682. Together, these French explorers entirely opened up the interior of the conti-



Authors' Archives

The French made their first permanent settlement in the Americas at the Habitation, at Port Royal (Annapolis), in what is now Nova Scotia, in 1605.

nent to European conquest. However, New Orleans would not be founded until 1718, and then from the sea.

In 1605, Champlain established France's first successful Canadian settlement, the Habitation, at Port Royal (Annapolis), Nova Scotia. In 1608, Champlain founded Quebec City, which would become the center of French power in North America. French settlement in Canada would be slow until 1663, when the French government began to strongly encourage settlement.

The long English-French conflict in North America also began at Port Royal, in 1613. Only eight years after its founding, the settlement was captured and destroyed by English forces.

Early English Settlements

Meanwhile, the English were attempting to establish their own settlements. Several early colonizing attempts failed, most notably the one at Roanoke in 1587. The first successful English settlement in North America was established by London's Virginia Company in 1607 at Jamestown. The colony quickly and very lucratively turned to tobacco cultivation as its main source of income. The English took farmlands previously worked by the Powhatan confederation to form the Chesapeake Bay Tidewater plantations that became the basis of the early Greater Virginia economy. Two wars with the Powhatans resulted; the second, in 1644, featured a Powhatan massacre of some 500 English colonists, followed by an English massacre of most remaining Powhatans.

Although regarded as an addictive, cancer-causing substance in the late 20th century, tobacco was widely used in the Americas before Columbus, who encountered tobacco during his first voyage. Grown by European settlers in the Americas from the 1530s, it was introduced into continental Europe in the late 1550s and into England in 1565. Tobacco cultivation provided a staple cash crop and was a large source of profits for Virginia planters, spurring the growth of the southern English colonies after the difficult early years of the Virginia colony.

Tobacco cultivation also provided the prototype for the plantation system that was to play such a major role in the history of the American South. While drawing planters to the colonies, it also drew substantial numbers of indentured servants, immigrants who would work off their passage money over a period of years to win their freedom (see "The Journey" on p. 53).

The plantation system was also applicable to other labor-intensive crops, most notably cotton, and played a major role in the development of slavery in the American South. In 1619, the first 20 of 400,000 to 500,000 imported black African slaves arrived at Jamestown (see "The Slave Trade" on p. 321).

Motives for Migration

Much of the early English migration to the new North American colonies was generated by straightforward economic motives, as land, cash crops, and trade beckoned. Some English immigrants, especially in the southern colonies, came as large-scale farmers, who employed substantial numbers of poor English immigrants as indentured servants. There were many indentured servants in the northern colonies as well, though most English immigrants in the north came as small-scale farmers and businesspeople who largely worked their own lands and businesses.

English imperial motives also played a major role. England had just become a world power. After defeating the Spanish Armada in 1588, it turned to the worldwide seaborne expansion that would create the massive British empire. Imperial policy was to encourage colonization of the North American mainland, and in the process to take as much territory as possible.

Other substantial factors spurred migration to the English colonies. One major set of events, which had a great impact on the transatlantic migration, was the English "plantation" of Ireland, which greatly contributed to centuries of instability in Ireland and helped generate a long series of Irish-English wars.

Another major source of transatlantic migration was the growth of religious dissent and political disaffection in England itself, together with the English defeat of Scotland and the English Civil War. Linked to this was the long set of Protestant-Catholic religious wars in France, which resulted in the flight of scores of thousands of French Protestant Huguenots during the 16th and 17th centuries. Some Huguenots fled to England and later arrived in Britain's American colonies, while others went directly to North America. A greater, continent-wide, largely Catholic-Protestant conflict was the Thirty Years War (1618–1648), which cost an estimated 8 million lives, and triggered the first major migration of central Europeans, most of them Germans, to the new American colonies.

Plymouth and Freedom

It was religious dissent that spurred the first successful English settlement in New England, at Plymouth, in what later became Massachusetts, founded by the 101 Puritan dissenters who arrived aboard the *Mayflower*. They reached the tip of Cape Cod, at what is now Provincetown, on November 21, 1620, and settled at Plymouth Harbor a month later.

These English dissenters and earliest New Englanders brought with them something quite unusual—an idea of political equality that would permeate the further American experience. It was embodied in their Mayflower Compact, signed by all the able-bodied male immigrants in the party at Provincetown. The Compact provided for political equality only among the male colonists, leaving out the women in the party and thereby half of humanity. Its signers also did not address the issues of

slavery, religious freedom, or several of the other freedoms that would be established by the Bill of Rights and later constitutional guarantees. They did, however, make a very substantial start on the ideas of freedom and equality, which with material prosperity would become central motives for the tens of millions of immigrants who would follow them to what would become the United States.

Early Dutch Settlements

At the turn of the 17th century, the Netherlands became a major player in the European invasion and partial conquest of south and east Asia, contesting Portuguese trading monopolies there and battling against the Portuguese in many areas. The Dutch soon began to move toward what would become control of the huge Indonesian archipelago, and with it domination of the lucrative spice trade.

In the same period, the Dutch also became a presence in the European contest for the New World, establishing colonies and contesting with Portuguese forces in Brazil, the Caribbean, and Central America, and planting a substantial settlement on North America's east coast.

In 1609, a Dutch expedition led by Henry Hudson sailed into what would become New York harbor and traveled some distance up the Hudson River, the natural mid-Atlantic gateway to North America. In 1612 the Dutch returned to establish the New Netherlands colony in the Hudson Valley, within two years moving north in the valley as far as the eastern end of the Mohawk Valley. In 1614 they established Fort Nassau, near modern Albany.

New Amsterdam (New York) was established in 1626 on Manhattan Island and began to grow into the major entry port it would later become. The colony did not receive the kind of imperial encouragement given to the French and English North American colonies, however, for the major Dutch imperial focus continued to be on the riches of Asia. The Dutch were also involved in the long series of Catholic-Protestant wars that enveloped most of Europe, and in three Anglo-Dutch wars between 1652 and 1674, all of them connected with worldwide imperial rivalries.

Fort Christina

Sweden emerged as a major European power during the early 17th century and remained a powerful military force well into the 18th century. For a short time, the Swedes developed imperial ambitions in North America, and in 1638 established Fort Christina on the Delaware River.

Sweden's main focus during this period, however, was on a series of major European wars, including the Thirty Years War and wars against Russia and Poland. The Swedish presence in North America was a minor focus. In 1655 Dutch forces from New Amsterdam took Fort Christina, ending Sweden's involvement in the colonization of North America.

English Ascendancy

In 1664, during the Second Anglo-Dutch War, English forces took New Amsterdam and the entire New Netherlands colony, renaming it New York. Eight years later, in 1672, during the Third Anglo-Dutch war, the Dutch retook the city and colony, but then returned it permanently to the English in the worldwide Dutch-English settlement that was the Treaty of Westminster. The new English colony then became a fast-growing and central link in the chain of English North American colonies.

To the north and west, France held what would become Canada, and had outposts west of the Appalachians and settlements from New Orleans some distance north in the Mississippi basin. Spain held lightly populated settlements in Florida, Texas, the Southwest, and California.

The territories of the three remaining colonial powers would shift dramatically in the 18th century, after the Seven Years War (1756–1763), which was called in North America the French and Indian War (1754–1763). France lost Canada and all its territories east of the Mississippi except part of Louisiana to England. Spain took the rest of the North American mainland

territories, including New Orleans and the rest of Louisiana, while transferring Florida to English rule.

Less than two decades later, the American Revolution established the new United States. In 1800, France took the formerly French mainland holdings back from Spain. Then in 1803, as part of the "Louisiana Purchase," France ceded to the United States huge quantities of land from the Mississippi to the Rockies, called the Louisiana Territory. The United States took Florida from Spain in 1819. North American mainland British colonial rule was now confined to Canada, while the new United States went on to build a massive, continent-wide world power based largely on British roots.

In reality, the great mass of the North American lands transferred in all of the above war settlements and purchases were Native American lands, which had been taken by the European powers and the United States.

The Balance of Population

During the late 18th century, immigration into what became the United States meant immigration into the English seacoast colonies, by white Europeans and black African slaves (called "Negroes" in U.S. census data). Native American, French, and Spanish population shifts within North America during this period and before these areas became part of the United States are not properly treated as "immigration"; as a practical matter, they are also not adequately verifiable.

U.S. Census Bureau estimates indicate that in 1670, after the English had taken New Netherlands, the total population of the English colonies that would become the United States stood at a little less than 112,000 (not counting Native Americans). In 1780, during the American Revolution, the estimate had climbed to a little over 2,780,000. Of these, a little over 575,000, or 20.7 percent, were African Americans. The great majority of these were slaves, but some were free.

Authors' Archives

This is the earliest known view of New Amsterdam (later New York), from a book published in 1651.

The first U.S. Census, in 1790, estimated a population of 3,929,000, not counting Native Americans. Historians have later made estimates as to the ethnic origins of white Americans in this period, though not of the numbers of foreign-born whites.

The U.S. population in 1790 consisted of approximately 3,182,000 whites (81 percent) and 746,000 (19 percent) African Americans. Of the whites, a large majority (60.1 percent) were of English and Welsh origin (lumped together as English in the statistics). Within the states that in that period formed the United States, people of English-Welsh ancestry formed an absolute majority in all except two, with the highest concentration in Massachusetts, at 82 percent. The two exceptions were Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Large numbers of Germans were concentrated in Pennsylvania, along with more than average numbers of Irish and Scots. There were almost as many Germans (33.3 percent) as English-Welsh (35.3 percent) in Pennsylvania, a kind of balance that occurred

Table 1.1: Estimated Number and Percentage of Whites and Negroes in the Total White and Negro Population in the American Colonies, 1610–1780

Decade	Number of Whites and Negroes in the American Colonies	Number of Whites in the American Colonies	Percentage of Whites in the Total White and Negro Population of the American Colonies	Number of Negroes in the American Colonies	Percentage of Negroes in the Total White and Negro Population of the American Colonies
1610	350	350	100.00	0	0.00
1620	2,302	2,282	99.13	20	0.87
1630	4,646	4,586	98.71	60	1.29
1640	26,634	26,037	97.76	597	2.24
1650	50,368	48,768	96.82	1,600	2.24
1660	75,058	72,138	96.11	2,920	3.18
1670	111,935	107,400	95.95	4,535	4.05
1680	151,507	144,536	95.40	6,971	4.60
1690	210,371	193,642	92.05	16,729	7.95
1700	250,888	223,071	88.91	27,817	11.09
1710	331,711	286,845	86.47	44,866	13.53
1720	466,185	397,346	85.23	68,839	14.77
1730	629,445	538,424	85.54	91,021	14.46
1740	905,563	755,539	83.43	150,024	16.57
1750	1,170,760	934,340	79.81	236,420	20.19
1760	1,593,625	1,267,819	79.56	325,806	20.44
1770	2,148,076	1,688,254	78.59	459,822	21.41
1780	2,780,369	2,204,949	79.30	575,420	20.70

Note: Figures derived from estimates of the population of the 13 English colonies that would later become the United States, not counting Native Americans. White and Negro are the terms used in the source.

Source notes: Based on American Council of Learning Societies, "Report of Committee on Linguistic and National Stocks in the Population of the United States" (based on studies by Howard F. Barker and Marcus L. Hansen), *Annual Report of the American Historical Association*, 1931, Vol. I, Washington, D.C., 1932, p. 124. Distribution was made primarily on the basis of family names. For an explanation of the methods used, see source.

Source: Adapted from *Historical Statistics of the United States Bicentennial Edition, U.S. Bureau of the Census,* 1975, Chapter C 89–119.