On August 4, 1701, the Governor General of New France, delegates from the Iroquois Nations and those of thirty First Nations allied with the French ratified a peace treaty that is recognized today as a political, diplomatic and military event of great importance in the history of North America. A supreme triumph of French colonial diplomacy in this part of the New World during the colonial era, the Montreal Peace Treaty ended almost a century of warfare between the signatories of the treaty and initiated an unprecedented era of political non-interference by the First Nations signatories during the century that followed. The Aboriginal peoples benefited greatly from an economic standpoint because the treaty settled most of their long-standing quarrels over the use of traditional hunting and trapping lands, while the French benefited by gaining the right to found Detroit in Iroquois territory. The signatories agreed as well to free all captives and return them to their nation of origin.

The Montreal Peace Treaty was the fruit of lengthy diplomatic negotiations that took place primarily between 1699 and 1701. These often difficult and sensitive talks were conducted in accordance with Aboriginal rules and the political traditions of the participating First Nations. They brought together nations that had forged and broken alliances throughout the previous century with regard to the fur trade, the rivalry between the French and the Iroquois, and the hostilities between the French, British and Dutch. The negotiations also involved an immense swath of land stretching from Acadia in the east to the western end of Lake Superior and from the sources of the Ottawa River in the north to the confluence of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers in the south. Despite these difficulties, an agreement was reached that was satisfactory to all, thanks to the extraordinary talents of two of the leading protagonists: Kondiaronk, chief of the Wyandot of Michilimackinac, and Louis-Hector de Callière, Governor General of New France.

Although the treaty of 1701 was not always easy to apply, it was of great benefit to the signatory nations and left a definite mark on the history of North America, as can be seen, for example, in the increased trade between the Great Lakes Aboriginal nations and Albany, and in the establishment of French trading posts in the West. Throughout the 18th century, even after the fall of the French empire in America, the Montreal Peace Treaty provided a framework for relations between the signatory Aboriginal nations and its terms remained fresh in their collective memory. The chiefs of these nations often had occasion to evoke the terms of the treaty, even at the very end of the century, and recall all the advantages that it had bestowed.

Elaborate celebrations that extended over more than two weeks accompanied the ratification of the Montreal Peace Treaty. French dignitaries, some 1300 Aboriginal chiefs and delegates, and a host of spectators, both Aboriginal and French, took part in the colourful celebrations, embellished with ritual ceremonies and long metaphorical speeches in accordance with the rules of Aboriginal oratory. The magnificent splendour of this ceremony highlighted the importance of this treaty, which has become one of the great pages in the history of Canada, the First Nations, and North America.
**Articles of Confederation (1777)** [From the *Outline of U.S. History*, (1995)]
The struggle with England had done much to change colonial attitudes. Local assemblies had rejected the Albany Plan of Union in 1754, refusing to surrender even the smallest part of their autonomy to any other body, even one they themselves had elected. But in the course of the Revolution, mutual aid had proved effective, and the fear of relinquishing individual authority had lessened to a large degree.

John Dickinson produced the "Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union" in 1776. The Continental Congress adopted them in November 1777, and they went into effect in 1781, having been ratified by all the states. Reflecting the fragility of a nascent sense of nationhood, the Articles provided only for a very loose union. The national government lacked the authority to set up tariffs, to regulate commerce, and to levy taxes. It possessed scant control of international relations: A number of states had begun their own negotiations with foreign countries. Nine states had their own armies, several their own navies. In the absence of a sound common currency, the new nation conducted its commerce with a curious hodgepodge of coins and a bewildering variety of state and national paper bills, all fast depreciating in value.

Economic difficulties after the war prompted calls for change. The end of the war had a severe effect on merchants who supplied the armies of both sides and who had lost the advantages deriving from participation in the British mercantile system. The states gave preference to American goods in their tariff policies, but these were inconsistent, leading to the demand for a stronger central government to implement a uniform policy.

**Treaty of Greeneville (1795)** [From *Ohio History Central*]
On August 20, 1794, an American army commanded by General Anthony Wayne defeated an American Indian force led by Blue Jacket of the Shawnee at the Battle of Fallen Timbers. With this victory, American Indians living in the western portion of modern-day Ohio knew that they had to sue for peace. In January 1795, representatives from the various tribes met with Wayne at Fort Greene Ville. The Anglo-American settlers and American Indians spent the next eight months negotiating a treaty. It became known as the Treaty of Greeneville.

On August 3, 1795, leaders of the Wyandot, Delaware, Shawnee, Ottawa, Miami, Eel River, Wea, Chippewa, Potawatomi, Kickapoo, Piankashaw, and Kaskaskia nations formally signed the treaty. The American Indians who became signatories agreed to relinquish all claims to land south and east of a boundary that began roughly at the mouth of the Cuyahoga River. It ran southward to Fort Laurens and then turned westward to Fort Loramie and Fort Recovery. It then turned southward to the Ohio River. The Indians, however, could still hunt on the land that they ceded. The whites agreed to relinquish their claims to land north and west of the line, although the American Indians permitted the Americans to establish several trading posts in their territory. The United States also provided the Indians with $20,000 worth of goods for signing the treaty. The American government also agreed to give Ohio's American Indian signatories $9,500 every year in goods. The American Indians were to decide how the goods would be divided among them.

Many American Indians refused to honor the agreement. White settlers continued to move onto the contested land. Violence continued between these two peoples. American Indian leaders like Tecumseh and the Prophet would emerge in the early 1800s to carry on the American Indian struggle to regain their lost land.