Advanced Placement

U.S. History, Book 1

Pre-Columbian America to Revolution and Constitution

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Part 3: Revolution and Constitution, 1763–1800

Introduction

Advanced Placement U.S. History, Book 1 is a college-level unit for high school advanced placement students. Lessons require students to process information in order to understand continuity and change in American history. Students use a wide variety of sources to develop reasoning and critical thinking skills. Students develop an understanding of the relationships among unit themes and concepts. They analyze documents, read historical interpretations, and write thesis sentences, short essays, and document-based responses. Students use historians' skills to understand how America has changed and adapted to meet needs that emerged during various periods in the country's development.

Book 1 is divided into three parts. Part 1 provides students the opportunity to develop the skills necessary to succeed on the Advanced Placement examination: analyzing primary sources, asking relevant questions, organizing evidence, developing effective thesis statements, and writing compelling essay responses to document-based questions. Part 2 deals with the colonization of the North American continent and illustrates the impact of European settlement on the indigenous population, the establishment and evolution of colonial powers, and the formation of an independent American society over a period of 150 years. Part 3 discusses the break between Great Britain and the American colonies and the creation of a new government.

Assumptions and Goals

Basic assumptions define the core principles of social studies, while goals clarify how the basic assumptions may be supported.

1. History is evolutionary. To understand that process, students need to analyze how and why changes occur.
2. An understanding of history's recurring themes enlightens students' perspectives on specific events.
3. Developing critical thinking skills is fundamental to understanding history.
4. The discipline of history requires reading, writing, and thinking skills, including analysis and synthesis.

The following lessons provide practice leading toward mastery in each of these areas.

The historical process has evolved over time and is based on recurring concepts and themes, which are supported by the development of certain skills such as reading, writing, mapping, and critical thinking. This process has resulted in the preservation of the human experience for posterity and reflects the problems and successes people and nations have encountered.

Concepts represent things, thoughts, or actions which have certain characteristics in common and usually reflect some form of mental or physical interaction. Themes demonstrate a relationship between and among concepts. Objectives identify what behavior the student is to demonstrate and indicate a standard of acceptable performance.

Objectives

1. To acquire a conceptual knowledge of history
2. To interpret and organize factual material independently as a basis for developing higher-level thinking skills
3. To study historical events and draw conclusions about them
4. To practice skills in clear communication of ideas
5. To improve essay writing skills
6. To understand personal values and their relationship to history
7. To understand the evolution of the United States

Using the Course Materials

Advanced Placement U.S. History, Book 1 is an integral part of a four-book teaching program that presents U.S. history conceptually. Since the series is designed for advanced placement classes, lessons stress underlying causes and effects rather than mere accumulation of factual data. The authors assume that teachers will assign appropriate readings and that students have, in advance, at least a textbook understanding of the content.

This manual includes twenty-eight lessons and a variety of student handouts. Student handouts are intended as both in-class work and homework. The lessons suggest ways of using the handouts as well as answers to questions posed. Students may need additional paper to complete some handouts. The lessons are flexible, allowing adjustment according to specific educational goals, students' needs, and availability of materials and equipment. Many lessons easily lend themselves to expansion over several days of class.

The cross-reference chart on page ix facilitates evaluation of the lessons and the book as a whole. It provides an analysis of the unit's incorporation of major themes and concepts. The chart also details the lessons' development of specific critical thinking skills.

Cross-Reference Section

Concepts*

1. Accommodation
2. Acculturation
3. Assimilation
4. Civil rights
5. Compromise
6. Conflict
7. Conservatism
8. Culture
9. Democracy
10. Depression
11. Domestic policy
12. Equality
13. Expansionism
14. Feminism
15. Free enterprise
16. Historical change
17. Historical continuity
18. Historical interpretation
19. Immigration
20. Imperialism
21. Industrialization
22. Interdependence
23. Internationalism
24. Leadership
25. Migration
26. Nationalism
27. Political party
28. Reform
29. Religious diversity
30. Religious freedom
31. Science and technology
32. Sectionalism
33. Strict vs. loose interpretation
34. Third party

Themes*

1. A democratic society encourages but does not ensure equality of opportunity and equality before the law.
2. Conflict may be resolved by compromise and change; otherwise, it may lead to violence.
3. Individuals and groups tend to interpret historical events in terms of their own experiences, values, and points of view.
4. The more complex society becomes, the greater are the needs for effective leadership, human interaction, and interdependence.
5. Power can be used to achieve both constructive and destructive ends.
6. Through government and other organizations, society modifies and regulates the market economy in an effort to achieve economic justice, stability, freedom, and growth.
7. A time lag exists between the occurrence of a problem and identification of it, as well as between recognition and development of a possible solution.
8. Arts and literature generally reflect society.

*See cross-reference chart, page ix.

Skills*

1. Interpret what is read by drawing inferences
2. Distinguish between fact and opinion
3. Identify and evaluate cause-and-effect relationships
4. Recognize author bias
5. Read for a variety of purposes: to evaluate, analyze, synthesize, answer questions, form an opinion, and skim for facts
6. Define relationships among categories of information
7. Identify relevant material
8. Interpret visual reflections of history
9. Evaluate diverse sources of information
10. Ask perceptive questions
11. Challenge generalizations about history in light of specific facts
12. View events from several perspectives
13. Form a simple organization of key ideas related to a topic
14. Restate major ideas of a complex topic in concise form
15. Compare and contrast historical events and trends
16. Relate specific events to recurring themes in American history
17. Recognize values implicit in a situation and issues that flow from them
18. Develop valid thesis statements
19. Arrange supportive data in chronological order and in order of importance
20. Communicate effectively both orally and in writing
21. Write a well-developed paragraph
22. Write a well-organized and well-developed essay
23. Recognize instances in which more than one interpretation of factual material is valid

*See cross-reference chart, page ix.

Cross-Reference Chart

Lesson	Concepts	Themes	Skills
1	8, 9, 24	4, 5	1, 5, 7, 18, 20, 22
2	6, 18	3	1, 4, 5, 9, 12, 21
3	8, 22, 29, 32	4	1, 10, 13, 22
4	16, 18, 29, 30	3	1, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 20
5	8, 26	8	8, 9, 14, 20, 21
6	11, 15, 21, 22, 31, 32	4, 6, 7	1, 5, 7, 8, 9, 18, 22
7	6, 11, 24, 26, 27, 33, 34	3	1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12, 18, 20
8	8, 9, 20	8	8, 10, 17, 20, 22
9	2, 3, 6, 8, 16, 22, 25	2, 3	6, 8, 22
10	1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 16, 20	2, 3, 4	4, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 18, 20, 22
11	3, 6, 16, 22, 23, 31	4	1, 5, 8, 13
12	3, 5, 13, 16, 20, 24, 31	2, 3, 5	5, 7, 13
13	5, 8	3	5, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 18
14	4, 6, 13, 15, 20, 24, 29, 30	3, 6	1, 4, 5, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 17, 21
15	8, 13, 16, 19, 29, 30	3	1, 4, 5, 12, 16, 20
16	8, 16, 18, 22, 31	4, 6, 7	1, 3, 5, 7, 12
17	4, 6, 9, 11, 16, 18, 24, 28	1, 2, 4, 5	1, 3, 7, 9, 20, 21
18	6, 7, 12, 16, 24, 30	1	1, 5, 7, 13, 17, 20
19	8, 16, 23, 24, 28, 31	3, 6	1, 5, 10, 14, 17, 20, 21
20	6, 8, 13, 14, 15, 25, 33	1, 3	4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 17, 20
21	5, 6, 10, 13, 15, 16, 18, 22, 27, 28	1, 2, 5	1, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 20
22	5, 6, 9, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 26, 28	2, 3, 6, 7	1, 3, 5, 9, 13, 14, 18, 19, 20
23	3, 12, 20	2	5, 7, 12, 13, 14, 20, 21
24	1, 5, 6, 9, 12, 16, 17, 18, 24	2, 4	1, 5, 13, 14, 20
25	5, 6, 9, 12, 16, 17, 24, 27, 28, 33	2, 4	1, 5, 6, 7, 10, 14, 18, 20, 21
26	9, 18	1, 2, 4	1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 13, 14, 18, 20, 23
27	5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 24, 32	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8	3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17
28	6, 9, 11, 13, 16, 25, 30	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	1, 5, 7, 12, 14, 16, 17, 20, 23

AP* U.S. History Curriculum Correlations

The lessons are also correlated to the Historical Thinking Skills and Thematic Learning Objectives outlined in the College Board's framework for the AP U.S. History curriculum. You can use these correlations to target specific skills or themes you wish to emphasize to your students. The correlations are as follows:

Historical Thinking Skills

I. Chronological Reasoning
II. Comparison and Contextualization
III. Crafting Historical Arguments from Historical Evidence
IV. Historical Interpretation and Synthesis

Thematic Learning Objectives

- Identity (ID)
- Work, Exchange, and Technology (WXT)
- Peopling (PEO)
- Politics and Power (POL)
- America in the World (WOR)
- Environment and Geography - Physical and Human (ENV)
- Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture (CUL)

In addition to identifying the main skill types and themes covered in each lesson, the correlations also include specific skills and sub-themes.

Part 1

Preparing for the Document-Based Question

Students must develop a number of essential skills in order to succeed on the Advanced Placement examination. Part 1 provides practice in many of these key areas: analyzing primary sources, asking relevant questions, organizing evidence, developing effective thesis statements, and writing compelling essay responses to document-based questions.

In this section, students review a number of key topics in early American history. They compare and contrast the colonial political structures of Massachusetts, the Delaware Valley, and the backcountry of Virginia and the Carolinas. Students also analyze the similarities and differences among the New England, Middle, and Southern colonies. They examine primary sources from the American Revolution, the First Great Awakening, the Enlightenment, and the Second Great Awakening. Students are challenged to evaluate examples of American literature and art in order to understand better how the arts reflect the eras in which they were created. Additional topics include the growth of nationalism, the impact of immigration, and the causes and effects of increasing regionalism. Students assess the results of key areas of reform during the 1830s and 1840s. They hone their thesis-writing skills by considering the political philosophy of the Whigs.

Lesson 1

The Historian's Craft: Exploring English Folkways

Objectives

- To define the structures that characterized the political makeup of four areas of colonial America
- To compare and contrast those structures

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison
Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-1: Analyze the factors behind competition, cooperation, and conflict among different societies and social groups in North America during the colonial period

Notes to the Teacher

The study of history is the art of interpretation. This skill should be the focus of an Advanced Placement course. To reach this level of sophistication, students must become discriminatory readers capable of organizing information. This lesson provides a model for the study of historical writings. The method can be used regularly to evaluate assigned material.

During the early years of settlement in America, structures of local government which had their roots in England were established. Town meetings, selectmen, county sheriffs, justices, surveyors, coroners, property requirements for voting, tax regulation, rules of inheritance, and other structures came to the colonies from England. Each geographical section of the coastal colonies adopted a singularly distinctive form of government. The structure of the Delaware Valley (Pennsylvania) was heavily influenced by the principles of the Quakers who first settled there. The town meetings, selectmen, and town covenants of Massachusetts traced their roots to East Anglia, where the same structures existed for centuries. The oligarchies of Virginia, with their exacting property requirements for voting and formal class structure, regarded themselves as more independent of English control. The Piedmont backcountry of Virginia and the Carolinas emphasized personal loyalty and charismatic leadership in its loosely structured politics. Each existed separate and independent from the other, but after the American War for Independence, they came

together to formulate a new national government, one that retained many of the characteristics of the colonial era.

In this lesson, students read and analyze four selections from *Albion's Seed: Four British Folkways in America* by David Hackett Fischer and complete a comparative chart. Students conclude by writing an essay comparing and contrasting the colonial political structures of Massachusetts, Virginia, the Delaware Valley, and the backcountry of Virginia and the Carolinas.

Procedure

1. Display a map of the American colonies, and have students indicate the location of the following areas:
   - Massachusetts
   - Pennsylvania
   - Virginia
   - Piedmont backcountry of Virginia and the Carolinas

   Ask how these areas were different. (The many small towns of Massachusetts were linked by common geography and Puritan roots; Pennsylvania, settled by Quakers, was founded on the principles of religious freedom and the responsibility to maintain good government; Virginia, originally founded by the Virginia Company, was largely agricultural; the Piedmont backcountry was the frontier.)
2. Introduce the selection in **Handout 1** by explaining that David Hackett Fischer, the author of the excerpts on the handout, examined the application of English folkways in America. He analyzed four different geographic areas, the same areas students discussed in the first procedure. Explain that his writing was rooted in the new social history that developed beginning in the 1960s, when historians began to draw upon many types of evidence, documents, statistics, and physical artifacts to create a more interdisciplinary approach to history. Tell students they are going to read about and analyze one of the folkways Fischer wrote about, the power way. He examines attitudes toward authority and power and patterns of political participation.
3. Distribute **Handout 1**, and have students read the selections. Point out that they should look for differences and similarities.
4. Distribute **Handout 2**, and have students complete the chart using the information in **Handout 1**. Review responses.

Suggested Responses

Massachusetts

Roots—East Anglia

Characteristics—town meeting and selectmen; list of fundamental laws which stressed rules of inheritance, determined a process of law and self-government, and created bylaws for

building, farming, and animal-keeping; town covenants and town records were important; rule by consensus rather than majority vote

Participation Rate—low participation with surges of high turnout depending on the issue to be decided

Virginia

Roots—parish and county structure of England

Characteristics—parish and vestry system in hands of closed oligarchy of country gentlemen; vestry looked after church and secular affairs; sheriff, justices, and surveyors were principal officers of the county and were controlled by the gentlemen; structure of power was based on class; assembly, council, and royal governor above oligarchies; House of Burgesses regarded as Virginia's Parliament; popular elections held for county burgesses; many free whites, servants, and slaves disenfranchised by property qualifications

Participation Rate—higher on average than Massachusetts but without the sudden surges of participation

Delaware Valley

Roots—Quaker religious beliefs

Characteristics—principles of religion had to be applied to public affairs; political parties developed; different ethnic groups led to politics of ethnicity and political pluralism; structure in local institutions included system based on English county and county justices, which later evolved into county commissioner system; commissioners were at first appointed and then elected; they had the power to tax; little political conformity because there was no local institution to enforce it; frequent popular elections; minimal taxes; no legally established militia

Participation Rate—higher than Massachusetts but lower than Virginia

Piedmont Backcountry

Roots—Scottish borderlands

Characteristics—highly personal without deference to social rank; no strong political institutions; little formal structure to local government; emphasized strong personal leadership based on interest or influence; stressed personal loyalty; no ethnic politics; highly permissive voting qualifications

Participation Rate—lowest in British America

5. Have students use the chart they developed to answer the following essay question:

   How were the power structures of Massachusetts, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and the Piedmont different?

The Power Ways

Directions: Read the following passages about power ways in colonial America, and be prepared for class discussion.

Massachusetts Power Ways: The Politics of Town Meeting Government

Within a few years of settlement, a unique system of government by town meetings and selectmen took form in Massachusetts. . . .

A part of the New England polity was a set of fundamental documents that functioned very much like a written constitution. . . . This document laid down the rules of inheritance, . . . described the processes of law and self-government in that community, and included by-laws for building, farming, and animal keeping such as were commonly covered by manorial customals throughout England during the early decades of the seventeenth century. . . .

Every East Anglian town had its own customs; no two were ever exactly the same and most changed through time. The word *town* itself altered its meaning in this period—slowly beginning to be used in a new sense to describe small urban centers. . . .

When the Puritans came to America, this ancient system of government by town meetings, selectmen and fundamental laws became the basis of local government in New England. . . . Throughout the smaller communities of New England, these institutions have remained remarkably stable for many generations. The institutional building blocks were town meetings, town selectmen, town covenants and town records. . . .

. . . [T]he traditional pattern of very low participation, punctuated by sudden surges of very high turnout, has been characteristic of New England town government for three centuries—and very different as we shall see from voting patterns in other American regions. . . .

Town meeting government in early New England was not really democratic in our majoritarian sense. The object was not rule by majority, but by consensus. The purpose of a town meeting was to achieve that consensual goal by discussion, persuasion and mutual adjustment of differences. The numbers of votes were rarely counted, but merely recorded as the "will of the town." This system was unique to New England, and nearly universal within it. It was the combined product of East Anglian experiences, Puritan ideas, and the American environment.[1]

Virginia Power Ways: The Politics of Court and Vestry Government

. . . In this Virginia polity, the leading local institutions were the parish and county. Both were dominated by self-perpetuating oligarchies of country gentlemen—the parish through its vestry, and the country through its court. . . .

The vestry system was established by law in 1643, shortly after Governor [William] Berkeley arrived in Virginia. A law passed in that year required every parish to have a vestry. By 1665 or earlier, these vestries had become closed oligarchies, and control was securely in the hands of a small group of "the most selected and sufficient men." Their responsibilities extended far beyond the affairs of the parish church itself, to include the administration of the poor law, and much other secular business. By 1670, there were approximately forty parishes in the colony. Each vestry looked after a population of about two or three hundred families.

[1]David Hackett Fischer, *Albion's Seed: Four British Folkways in America* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989), 196–99. Internal footnotes omitted.

. . . The vestry was an imposition from above; the town was an emanation from below. By the seventeenth century, these two institutions tended to blur into one another in some parts of England. But they were distinctly different in their origins, and they were put to very different uses in Massachusetts and Virginia.

Another unit of local government in Virginia was the county. Its principal officers were the county justices, the county sheriff and the county surveyor, who was nominally appointed from above rather than elected from below. In practice they were controlled by the county gentry, who regarded these offices as a species of property which they passed on to one another. . . .

On court days a large part of the county came together in a great gathering which captured both the spirit and substance of Virginia politics. The courthouse in Middlesex County had two doors which symbolized the structure power in that society—a narrow door at one end of the building for the gentry, and a broad double door at the other for ordinary folk. . . .

These county oligarchies were not sovereign bodies. Above them sat the Assembly, Council and Royal Governor. The status of these institutions was in dispute until the American War of Independence. The Assembly was understood by Imperial officials as the colonial equivalent of the municipal council in England. They called it the House of Burgesses, a name which brought to mind the Burgesses of Bristol and other British towns. But Virginians had a different idea of their Assembly. In 1687, William Fitzhugh called it "our Parliament here," a representative body which knew no sovereign except the King himself.

Whatever their parliamentary standing, the Assembly represented not the people at large, but the county oligarchies who really ran Virginia. Most of its members had served for many years in public office, rising slowly through the vestries and courts of their counties.

At the pinnacle of this system was the royal governor.

Popular elections were a part of this system, just as they had been in England. From time to time, the "freeholders" were invited to choose their county burgesses in elections that resembled those in the south and west of England. The electors voted for men rather than measures, picking the most congenial gentleman-candidate from several who "stood" for election.

. . . The pattern of participation differed from New England town meetings. Average levels of turnout tended to be higher on the average in Virginia than in Massachusetts, but without the sudden surges of participation that occurred in New England town meetings when controversial questions were introduced.

Many free whites, and all servants and slaves, were disenfranchised by property qualifications. . . . Before 1776, the only elections in Virginia were those for Burgesses, which occurred at very infrequent intervals. . . .

This system of government developed in Virginia by a process of prescription. As early as the year 1679 it was spoken of as "the constitution of the country," in the traditional British sense of unwritten customs and established institutions, rather than the future American sense of fundamental written law. This "constitution" was radically different from the polity of Massachusetts. But the gentleman oligarchs of Virginia thought of it as the ordinary and natural way in which English-speaking people ordered their political affairs.[2]

[2]Fischer, *Albion's Seed,* 405–10. Internal footnotes omitted.

Delaware Power Ways: The Politics of Commission Government

. . . The English Quakers brought to America a habit of intense public activity, and a highly developed set of political principles. . . .

In William Penn's words, the Quakers believed that politics was "a part of religion itself, a thing sacred in its institution and its end." The Philadelphia yearly meeting repeatedly reminded its members that they were bound by the principles of their religion in public affairs as well as private business. . . .

. . . The ideology of Quakerism justified political opposition in a way that was not the case in other English cultures. The political culture of Pennsylvania was defined not only by Quaker principles themselves, but also by a prolonged quarrel over their purposeful application.

One consequence was the emergence of political parties in Pennsylvania at an early date. By 1701, two stable parties were functioning in that province. Both consisted mainly of Quakers. The Country party found its following mainly among farmers and artisans in the counties. The Proprietary party was closely linked to the Penn family . . . in alliance with leading Quaker merchants in the city of Philadelphia.

These parties nominated candidates, contested elections, issued manifestos, recruited stable followings and defended positions of high principle. The major issues that divided them would be the classical constitutional questions of American politics: the powers of the Proprietor and the Assembly, the relative importance of property rights and personal liberties, the control of the judiciary. . . .

After the death of William Penn in 1718 this first American party system disintegrated. A brief period of partisan inactivity followed. By the mid-1720s Pennsylvania politics were dominated by two new parties, called the Quaker party and the Gentlemen's party. . . . These parties also nominated candidates and contested elections for many years. Altogether, the first and second party systems of colonial Pennsylvania lasted longer than either the first or second party systems in American national politics.

Another part of this political culture was the politics of ethnicity. This rose among the Quakers as early as the 1680s in tensions between Welsh and English Quakers. So suspicious were these two groups of one another that the English majority deliberately drew the county boundaries of Pennsylvania so as to split the Welsh settlements. . . . This was done to keep the Welsh Quakers from controlling an entire county—the earliest instance of gerrymandering in American history.

. . . The legitimacy of ethnic pluralism was recognized by the Quakers, many of whom thought of themselves as "dissenters in their own land." This idea encouraged the rapid development of political pluralism in Pennsylvania.

Another part of the Quaker legacy was a special set of local institutions. The founders of Pennsylvania drew selectively upon traditional English institutions in ways which were consistent with their Quaker principles. For purposes of local government, they abolished the Anglican parish, but preserved the English county and adapted it to their own goals. At first, the founders placed most local administration into the hands of county justices who were appointed by higher authority.

This system did not last very long, for it was unacceptable to the Country party. In a series of statutes (1718, 1725, 1728) the Assembly created a new system of local government by county commissions. These officers were at first appointed by the legislature, and after 1725 chosen by the people. Every county had three commissioners, one of whom was elected each fall, together with nominees for sheriff and coroner. The power to tax was vested in the county commission, in conjunction with county assessors who were annually elected.

Pennsylvania's system of county commissions worked very differently from New England's town meetings and Virginia's government by court and vestry. The polity of Pennsylvania lacked

the institutional machinery to enforce conformity as in New England. It also did not develop the strong oligarchical tendencies of Virginia's politics. Popular elections occurred very frequently in Pennsylvania. By 1775, voters were being asked to cast their ballots as often as five times a year. The result was a culture where "residents were actively and constantly involved in the political process" in a way that differed from other colonies.

Turnouts of taxable adult white males in Pennsylvania tended to be lower than in Virginia, but higher than in New England on the average. Rates of participation fluctuated from year to year. . . . But on the whole, participation was comparatively stable, with nothing like the . . . surge and decline that happened in small New England towns. . . .

Elements of this [Whig] ideology came to be shared widely throughout the American colonies. But in Pennsylvania it took a special form. Among its features were a unicameral legislature, and annual assemblies which met upon their own adjournment. . . . To this idea was added minimal taxes, which tended to be lighter in Pennsylvania than in most other colonies. . . .

The idea of minimal government was carried further in Pennsylvania than in any other colony. There was no legally established militia until after the 1750s. In one period, when interest from a land bank provided an alternative source of revenue, there were nearly no taxes at all. The legislature of Pennsylvania passed fewer laws before 1750 than any other assembly in British America, and its courts were less active in the work of enforcement than most provinces. In each of these practices the Quaker colonies differed from most other parts of British America.

This system of institutionalized dissent, organized parties, political pluralism, commission government, light taxes, and minimal government was firmly constructed before 1740. It was the work of Quakers, and the combined product of their Christian beliefs, English traditions and generational experiences in the late seventeenth century. In 1756 many leading Quakers withdrew from politics, and nominal control of the colony passed into other hands. But the political culture which they created still flourishes. It is one of the Quakers' enduring legacies to the American Republic.[3]

Backcountry Power Ways: The Politics of Personal Government

This system of order [in the backcountry] gave rise to a special style of backcountry politics which was far removed from classical ideas of democracy and aristocracy. . . . This system . . . was a structure of highly personal politics without deference to social rank. In that respect it was very different from Virginia. . . . It was also a polity without strong political institutions, and in that regard very far removed from New England. There was comparatively little formal structure to local government—no town meetings, no vestries, no commissions, and courts of uncertain authority. But within the same broad tradition of self-government common to all English-speaking people, the borders of North Britain easily improvised their own politics. . . .

Another feature . . . was strong personal leadership. The politics of the back settlements were dominated by leaders who possessed a quality called "influence" or "interest." . . .

These "men of influence" could be found in most parts of the backcountry. They tended to be large landowners, magistrates, merchants, surveyors, millers and speculators—often all at once. But the "influence" and "interest" of these men had narrow limits. The authority of office or rank counted for very little. . . .

Men who rose to positions of leadership in this culture commonly did so by bold and decisive acts. . . .

[3]Fischer, *Albion's Seed,* 590–95. Internal footnotes omitted.

The politics of the backcountry consisted mainly of charismatic leaders and personal followings, cemented by strong and forceful acts. . . . The rhetoric that these leaders used sometimes sounded democratic, but it was easily misunderstood by those who were not part of this folk culture. The Jacksonian movement was a case in point. To easterners, Andrew Jackson looked and sounded like a Democrat. But in his own culture, his rhetoric had a very different function. Historian Thomas Abernethy observes that Andrew Jackson never championed the cause of the people; he merely invited the people to champion him. This was a style of politics which placed heavy premium upon personal loyalty. In the American backcountry, as on the British borders, loyalty was the most powerful cement of political relationships. Disloyalty was the primary political sin.

There were many different ethnic groups in the backcountry. But it is interesting that this region never developed anything like the ethnic politics of Pennsylvania. For many generations, backcountry politics were mainly a collision of highly personal factions and followings, rather than ethnic blocs or ideological parties or social classes. Charismatic appeals carried elections, which tended to be decided on questions of personal style.

Voting qualifications were highly permissive in this region, and even more permissively enforced. . . . Turnout, however, tended to be low. In those parts of the Virginia backcountry where elections were held, participation was commonly in the range of 15 to 25 percent—the lowest in British America before 1776.

This polity was in part the consequence of frontier conditions—of sparse settlements and a new territory. But is also reflected a political spirit which had existed in the borders of North Britain.[4]

[4]Fischer, *Albion's Seed,* 773–76. Internal footnotes omitted.

 Name:

Four Power Ways

Directions: Complete the chart based on the readings in **Handout 1**.

Location	Roots	Characteristics	Participation Rate
Massachusetts			
Virginia			

 Name:

Location	Roots	Characteristics	Participation Rate
Delaware Valley			
Piedmont Backcountry			

Lesson 2

The American Revolution: Diaries and Journals

Objectives

- To interpret and analyze primary source documents
- To examine the beginnings of the American Revolution through diaries and journals

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Skill Type IV

Skill 8: Interpretation

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-2: Explain how the exchange of ideas among different parts of the Atlantic World shaped belief systems and independence movements into the early 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

Letters, diaries, and journals are rich sources for historians. Often these diaries and journals, written as the events were happening or soon after, provide a snapshot of history through the eyes of those experiencing it. A renewed interest in the use of primary sources in the teaching of history, easy access to library and historical society collections through the Internet, and a desire to look at a historical event as viewed by its contemporary observers have all resulted in a broader and more fully realized study of history. Historians are not confined to looking at historical events from a political or military perspective but may now observe them through the eyes of the common person.

In this lesson, students read and analyze three entries from journals and diaries written during the American Revolution and place them within historical context. They choose a historical event contemporary to their own life and write a diary or journal account of it to share with the class.

Procedure

1. Ask students the following questions:
   - Why is it important to have access to eyewitness accounts of historical events? (Fresh accounts of an event are always best because the details and observations of participants may become distorted over time.)

- Why are diaries and journals important sources? (They provide personal accounts which can be relayed only by the persons experiencing the events.)
- How do diaries and journals sometimes differ from official accounts? (Official accounts are usually written by officials and have little, if any, information from the viewpoint of bystanders.)

Remind students that not all observers of events are literate. Diaries and journals written by common people during America's early history were often not preserved and are rare.

2. Distribute **Handout 3**. Have students read and analyze the documents as directed. Stress to students that none of the diarists and journalists were writing for mass consumption. These entries were personal and probably were intended to be shared with only a few people.

Suggested Responses

Document 1

1. Thomas Sullivan, a sergeant in the 49th Regiment of the British army, wrote the document during the winter of 1776.
2. It is a diary entry written to record Sergeant Sullivan's observations about his time in America.
3. Food was scarce and expensive; soldiers were bored and frustrated; the river had frozen, and supplies could not be brought into the city; soldiers were cruel to inhabitants in retaliation for what occurred at Concord; property was destroyed to provide wood for fires and batteries; many soldiers were ill from brackish water.

Document 2

1. Margaret Hill Morris, a Quaker woman living in New Jersey, wrote the diary during the winter of 1776. Morris was writing an account of events that occurred in the Philadelphia area in 1776.
2. It is a diary written to her friend.
3. Some people planned to burn the city of Philadelphia, but they were ordered not to by the Continental Congress; Washington was trying to evacuate his troops from Philadelphia into New Jersey; there are accounts of battles between American soldiers and Hessians; boats were kept on the river to help with an evacuation; Washington had engaged the Hessians at Trenton on Christmas Eve.

Document 3

1. Albigence Waldo, a doctor with the Continental Army at Valley Forge in 1777, wrote the document.
2. It is a diary. It was very common for doctors to keep journals.
3. Men were often ill but were not discouraged and usually were in good spirits; Dr. Waldo, on the other hand, was sick and discontented. He did not like the poor food and lodging, cold weather, and fatigue. A young soldier who was walking in the snow in his bare feet cried out in despair.

3. Ask students to give an example of a historical event that they have experienced. Have them write a short journal or diary entry relating to that event. Have them share their entries with the class and explain why they believe that event is historically significant.

Through Participants' Eyes

Directions: Read each selection, and answer the questions. Be prepared for class discussion.

Document 1

Thomas Sullivan was an Irish sergeant in the 49th Regiment of the British army. In 1776, he was in Boston, where the army endured months of idleness and frustration. Supplies became short, and discipline was difficult to maintain. Floggings and executions were common. General Howe did not have enough ships to evacuate his troops and was unable to bring large quantities of supplies into the city.

> Upon our first coming into Boston Provisions were very cheap . . . very good beef 2d. [pence] a pound . . . a gallon of West India Rum 2 s.[shillings], Brandy half a doller or 2s. 3d. per gallon. . . . Spruce Beer commonly a halfpenny a Quart. But now 'all very expensive' . . . and the water very brackish which was very destructive to the troops, giving them (it was supposed) the Flux, and good many of the Inhabitants as well. . . . And after the first engagement what happened on a Common at a place called Concord, the troops grew more cruel against the Inhabitants, so that they began in most parts of the town to pull down the fences . . . around the houses [which] are about two thirds built of wood; and one third of Brick, notwithstanding the repeated orders of the Commander-in-Chief [Howe] issued to the contrary. . . . When the troops went into winter Quarters the General gave Orders that all the Old houses in every part of the town should be pulled down for firing [firewood] for the Army, the river being (that time) almost frozen so that the Shipping could not get out of the Harbour to bring timber from other Parts. . . . The one-fourth part of the town was either pulled down for firing in that manner or otherwise destroyed in making Batteries; so that the most-part of the houses that was damaged were Irrepairable.

1. Who wrote the document, and when was it written?

2. What type of document is it, and what is its purpose?

3. What does the document tell us about Sergeant Sullivan's experiences in Boston during the winter of 1776?

Source: Diary of Thomas Sullivan, in *Redcoats and Rebels: The American Revolution through British Eyes,* Christopher Hibbert (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1990), 73.

Document 2

Margaret Hill Morris, a Quaker, lived in New Brunswick, New Jersey, during the early years of the war. Her diary, written to her friend, Milcah Martha (Patty) Moore, recounts events leading to the battle of Trenton.

December 6, 1776: Being on a visit to Haddonfield, I was preparing to return to my family, when a person from Philadelphia told us the people were in a great commotion, that the English fleet was in the [Delaware] river, and hourly expected to sail up to the city [and stop the escape of the American army under the command of George Washington]; that the inhabitants were removing into the country; and that several persons of considerable repute had been discovered to have formed a design of setting fire to the city, and were summoned before the congress and strictly enjoined to drop the horrid purpose. . . .

Dec. 23: This day twelve gondolas came up the river again, but we know not as yet the occasion of their coming. The [American] troops at Mount Holly went out again and engaged the Hessians near the same place where they met yesterday; 'tis reported we lost ten men and that our troops are totally routed and the Hessians in possession of Mount Holly. This evening a little alarm in our neighbourhood; a report reaching us that 3000 troops now at Bristol are to cross over in the night (and to land on our Bank) in order to join the routed party of yesterday. . . . We conjecture the gondolas are to lie here [on the New Jersey side of the river] in readiness to receive our men should they be put to flight. Be that as it may, we don't like to see them so near us, and wish for another snow storm to drive them away.

Dec. 24: The gondolas have all gone out of sight—but whether up or down the river we know not. This morning we are told of a fearful alarm which was spread through the town last night: that the gondolas had orders to fire on it in the night, as it was said the Hessians were expected to come in after the rout of yesterday, and take possession here as they had done at Mount Holly. . . . We hear the Hessians are still at Holly, and our troops in possession of Church Hill, a little beyond. The account of twenty-one killed the first day of the engagement, and ten the next, is not to be depended on, as the Hessians say our men ran so fast they had not the opportunity of killing any of them. Several Hessians in town today. . . . We hear that two houses in the skirts of the town were broken open and pillaged by the Hessians. . . . A pretty heavy firing was heard up the river today, but no account yet received of the occasion, or where it was. . . .

Dec. 27: A letter from Gen. Reed to his brother, informing him that Washington had had an engagement with the regulars on the 25th early in the morning [Battle of Trenton], taking them by surprise; killed 50 and took 900 prisoners. The loss on our side is not known, or if known, not suffered to be public. It seems this heavy loss to the regulars was owning to the prevailing custom among the Hessians of getting drunk on the eve of that great day which brought peace on earth and good will to men. . . . This evening, the 27th, about 3000 of the Pennsylvania militia and other troops landed in the neck, and marched into town with artillery, baggage, and all, and were quartered on the inhabitants. . . .

Source: Diary of Margaret Hill Morris, in *Weathering the Storm: Women of the American Revolution,* Elizabeth Evans (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1975), 77, 90–91.

1. Who wrote the document, and when was it written?

2. What type of document is it, and what is its purpose?

3. What does the document tell us about Margaret's experiences in the Philadelphia area during the winter of 1776?

Document 3

Albigence Waldo was a surgeon at the Valley Forge encampment of the Continental Army during the horrible winter of 1777.

December 14

Prisoners & Deserters are continually coming in. The Army which has been surprisingly healthy hitherto, now begins to grow sickly from the continued fatigues they have suffered this Campaign. Yet they still show a spirit of Alacrity and Contentment not to be expected from so young Troops. I am Sick—discontented—and out of humour. Poor food—hard lodging—Cold Weather—fatigue—Nasty Cloaths—nasty Cookery—Vomit half my time—smoak'd out of my senses—the Devil's in't—I can't Endure it—Why are we sent here to starve and Freeze. . . . A pox on my bad luck. There comes a bowl of beef soup—full of burnt leaves and dirt, sickish enough to make a Hector spue—away with it Boys—I'll live like the Chameleon upon Air. Poh! Poh! crys Patience within me—you talk like a fool. . . . But harkee Patience, a moment—There comes a Soldier, his bare feet are seen thro' his worn out Shoes, his legs nearly naked from the tatter'd remains of an only pair of stockings, his Breeches not sufficient to cover his nakedness, his Shirt hanging in Strings, his hair dishevell'd, his face meagre; his whole appearance pictures a person forsaken and discouraged. He comes, and crys with an air of wretchedness and despair, I am Sick, my feet lame, my legs are sore, my body cover'd with this tormenting Itch—my Cloaths are worn out, my Constitution is broken, my former Activity is exhausted by fatigue, hunger, & Cold. . . .

1. Who wrote the document, and when was it written?

2. What type of document is it, and what is its purpose?

3. What does the document tell us about Dr. Waldo's experiences at Valley Forge during the winter of 1777?

Source: "Albigence Waldo: Diary, December 11–29, 1777," in *The American Revolution: Writings from the War of Independence,* ed. John Rhodehamel (New York: Library of America, 2001), 401–2.

Lesson 3

Colonial Sections: Forming an American Society

Objective

- To understand both the differences that distinguished sections of the colonies and the similarities that united them

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-1: Analyze how competing conceptions of national identity were expressed in the development of political institutions and cultural values from the late colonial through the antebellum periods

Notes to the Teacher

Although most early settlers in the American colonies came from England, many non-English people began to arrive as the economy of the colonies developed. As the new environment modified English civilization, differences between England and the colonies emerged. At the same time, the colonies developed differently from one section to another. Equally important, by the eve of the Revolution, several common features united the sections, and colonials began to think of themselves as Americans.

This lesson provides practice in two skills essential for success in Advanced Placement testing: asking relevant questions to arrive at a comprehensive response to an essay question and brainstorming a possible organization for the essay. Doing the second part of the lesson as a whole-group activity gives students an opportunity to practice the process of constructing good essays.

In this lesson, students study three maps and draw inferences about the similarities and differences among the New England, Middle, and Southern colonies. As a group, the class then records questions to which they need answers before they can develop an adequate response in a suggested short paper on the lesson theme. Finally, students determine how such an essay might be organized.

Procedure

1. Explain that it is important to understand the differences and similarities that distinguished the sections of the colonies. Ask students to name the main factors that determined how the colonies were divided (geography and economy). Ask students to give examples of industries that formed the basis of the colonial economy in different areas (fishing and whaling, shipbuilding, agriculture, trapping, lumber products, naval stores, iron production, trading and shipping, rum distilleries). Explain that while the English initially settled the early Atlantic seaboard colonies, by the middle of the eighteenth century, immigrants from other European countries had also come to America. Ask for examples (Swedes, Dutch, Germans). Explain that colonists brought Africans to America as slaves, and these slaves came to represent a large percentage of the population along the southern Atlantic seaboard. Mention that the colonies were religiously diverse.
2. Divide the class into small groups of three or four students. Distribute **Handout 4**. Have students examine the maps and complete part A. Stress that students must answer the multiple-choice questions and provide supporting evidence for each answer. Review responses in a large-group session.

Suggested Responses

1. c; The national origins map shows that the English comprised 60.1 percent of all colonists and were distributed throughout all the colonies.
2. a; The colonial industries and colonial agriculture maps show that the South had the natural resources of the forest and the land as well as one major port for shipment of goods, but no manufacturing or fishing.
3. b; The religious denominations map shows that the Middle colonies had strong concentrations of all religious groups except for Congregationalists and Baptists.
4. b; The map of religious denominations and the map of national origins show or imply a greater variety of languages in the Middle colonies; the diversity of religions implies cultural differences.
5. c; Language was the factor that best tied the colonists together, as English was spoken in all sections of the colonies.
6. a; The religious denominations map shows the Anglican Church had a strong influence in each section.
7. c; Evidence on both the national origins map and the religious denominations map suggests ethnic diversity.
8. a; The South's only city was Charleston.

3. Assign part B to be completed as a large-group activity.

Suggested Responses

1.
   - English was the only nationality found in all sections of colonial America.
   - An absolute majority of colonists in America were of English descent; from this, one might infer the use of English as the dominant language and the transfer of other English institutions to America.
   - The Anglican Church, or Church of England, existed throughout all three sections of the colonies.
   - Agriculture was common to all three sections of the colonies.
2.
   - The colonies included a striking variety of religious groups.
   - The colonies came to include many ethnic groups.
   - The colonies included a variety of economic activities, but they were not uniformly distributed throughout the sections of colonial America.
   - Slavery was almost entirely confined to the South.
   - All the cities, except Charleston, were located in the New England or Middle colonies.
3. The maps give relevant information regarding the economy, religious, and ethnic backgrounds of people in different sections. Students might mention the need to know about local and colonial governments, education, the role and status of slave and indentured labor, trade among the sections, shared attitudes toward England, the role and status of women, relations with Native Americans, contact and cooperation among ethnic groups, and cultural development, to name a few possibilities.

4. Discuss in a general way the organization of a paper on the assigned topic. What theses are possible? How can evidence be presented to show pertinent data on both sides of the issue? How might one conclude the paper to show the significance of the topic in view of the approaching break with England?

Interpreting Maps:
The Colonial Economy and Religious and Ethnic Diversity

Part A.

Directions: Study the accompanying maps to answer the following questions. In each instance, write the letter of the correct response, identify the map (or maps) containing the information, and cite specific evidence that supports the answer.

_____ 1. Which nationality was the most common in all the colonies?
- a. German
- b. Scotch-Irish
- c. English
- d. African

_____ 2. Which colonial section had the least variety of economic activity?
- a. South
- b. Middle colonies
- c. New England

_____ 3. Which colonial section had the most diversity of religions?
- a. New England
- b. Middle Colonies
- c. South

_____ 4. Which section had the widest range of languages and cultures?
- a. New England
- b. Middle colonies
- c. South
- d. Frontier

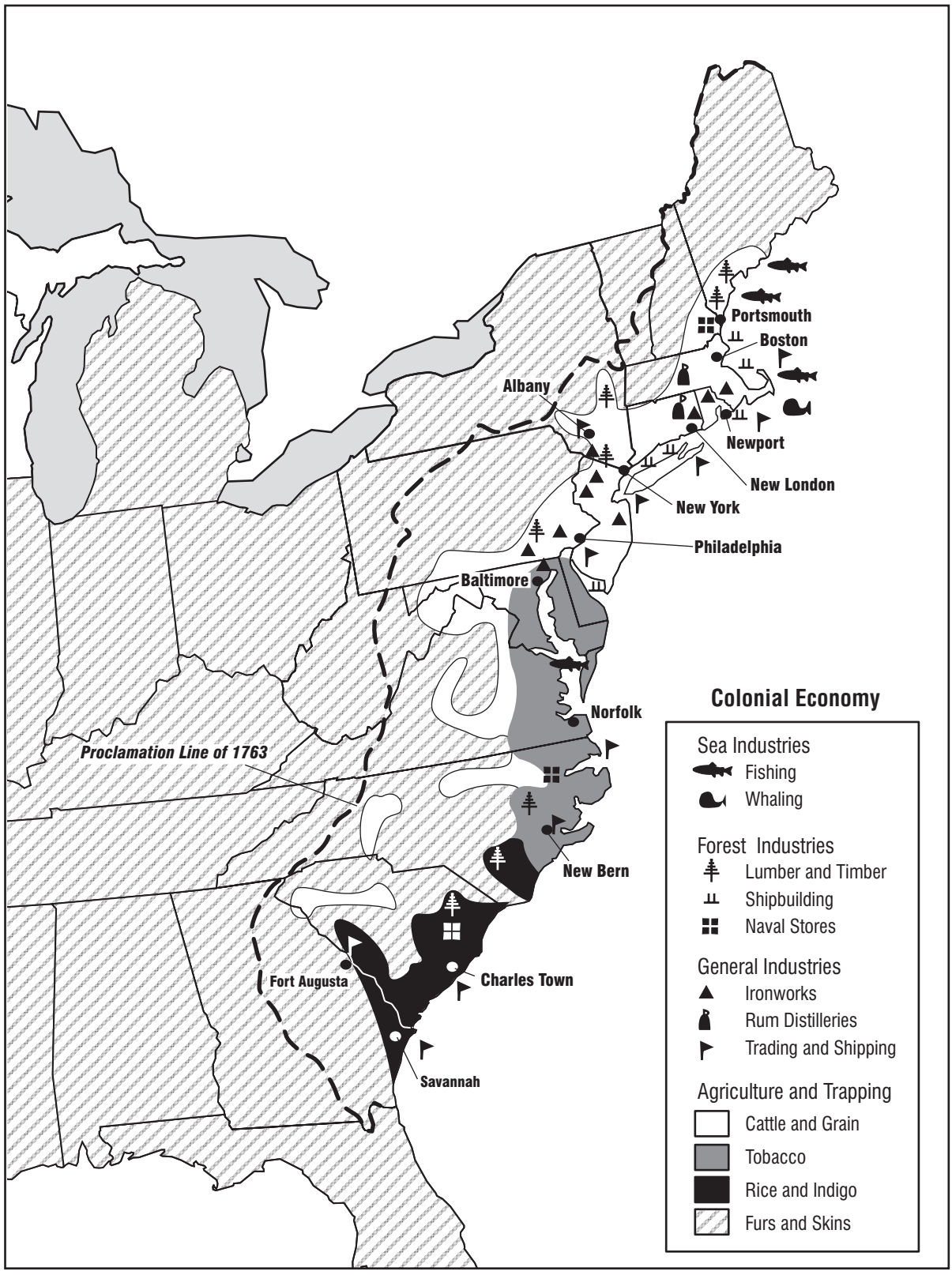
_____ 5. Which of the following factors best tied the colonists together?
- a. religion
- b. trade
- c. language

_____ 6. Which of the following best reflected the presence of England in all sections of the colonies?
- a. Anglican Church
- b. slavery
- c. fishing

_____ 7. Which colonial section best reflected the melting pot of nationalities?
- a. South
- b. New England
- c. Middle colonies

_____ 8. Which section of the colonies had the least urban development?
- a. South
- b. Middle colonies
- c. New England

Name:



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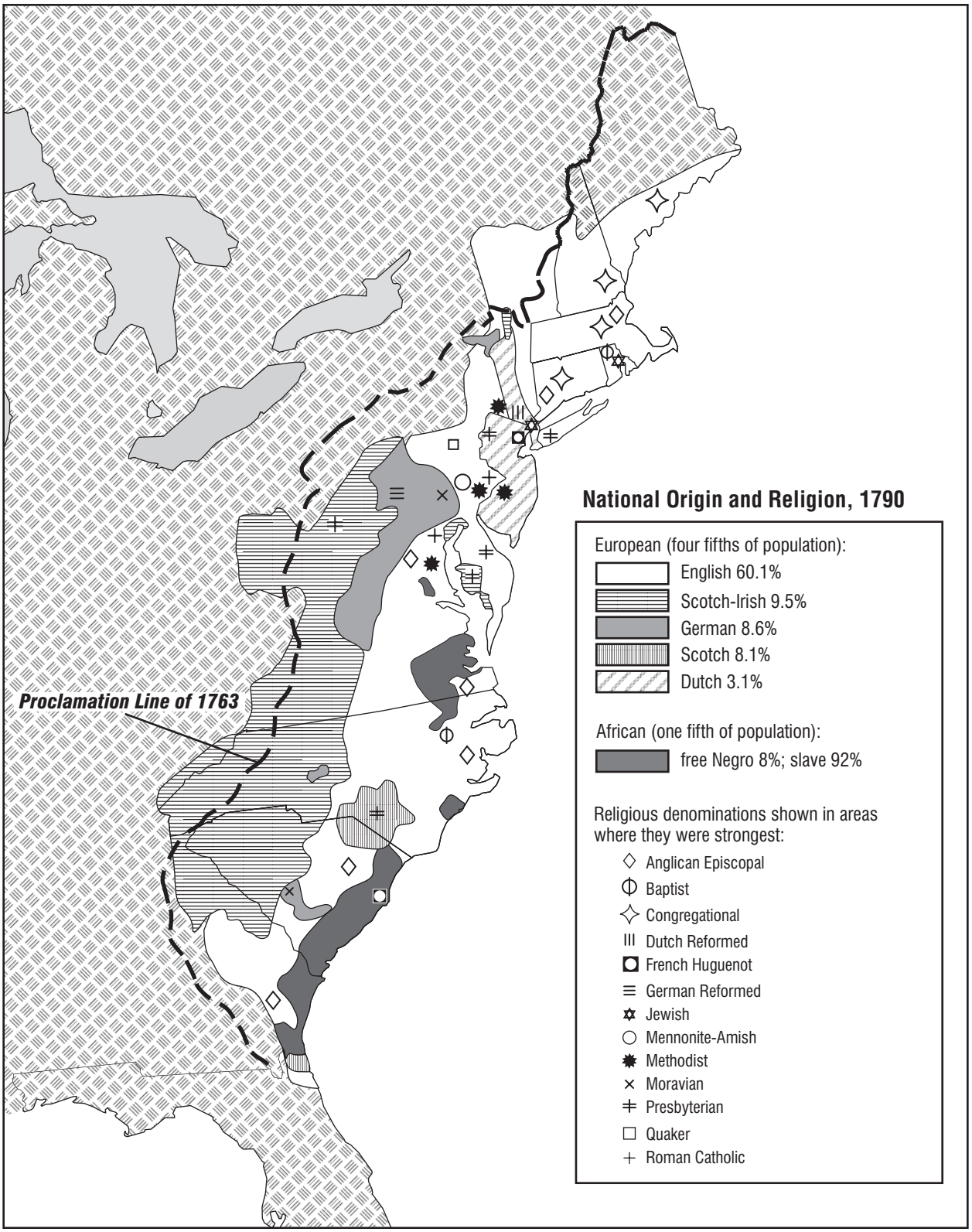


Part B.

Directions: Respond to the following items.

1. List at least four similarities among the three sections of colonial America.

2. List at least four differences among the three sections of colonial America.

3. A society is characterized by similar values, mutual interests, shared institutions, and a common culture. Consider the following question: To what extent would it be accurate to say that the New England, Middle, and Southern colonies had merged to create a single American society by the outbreak of the Revolution? Assume that your teacher has asked you to write a four-page paper on this question. Brainstorm questions for which you need answers in order to formulate a carefully considered response.

Lesson 4

From the First to the Second Great Awakening

Objective

- To determine how documents written by the Founding Fathers shaped the religious ideals of America from 1730 to 1840

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-4: Analyze how changing religious ideals, Enlightenment beliefs, and republican thought shaped the politics, culture, and society of the colonial era through the early republic

Notes to the Teacher

Often we ask students to read primary source documents. Teachers want students to think about the documents, analyze them, and determine how they can use the documents to formulate a thesis statement in preparation for responding to the document-based question. Students should immediately recognize some similarities among different groups of documents. It is important for students to understand there was an almost circular evolution of political and philosophical ideas between 1730 and 1840. The First Great Awakening focused on maintaining order and held that the role of the church within society was to lead souls in the right direction; however, a few documents warned about the dangers of this movement. The Enlightenment focused on the role of the individual and held that a democratic society must grant freedom to all individuals, regardless of religious affiliation. There was an emphasis on the role of reason and rationality. The Second Great Awakening was a reaction to the direction of American society due to the influence of Enlightenment ideals. Students should see some similarities in the documents; however, there was a growing tension. In addition, an element of pragmatism emerged. The Second Great Awakening spawned a number of reform movements involving education, temperance, slavery, and women's rights.

In this lesson, students examine and analyze documents from each of the following periods: the First Great Awakening, the Enlightenment, and the Second Great Awakening. Students analyze the documents and defend their positions.

Procedure

1. Ask students to list the major religious movements that developed in America between 1730 and 1840 (the First Great Awakening, the Enlightenment, and the Second Great Awakening).
2. Divide the class into three groups, and distribute a different set of documents (**Handouts 5, 6,** and **7**) to each group. Allow students time to read and analyze the documents assigned to their group. Have groups share information with the entire class, defend their responses, and invite both discussion and debate.

Suggested Responses

Handout 5

Document 1—Revivals helped people lead more religious lives and socialize better with others. Revivals led to salvation. Jonathan Edwards promotes the idea of faith.

Document 2—Everyone has a duty to spread the word of God. The document promotes the idea of faith.

Document 3—Since revivals cause people to reject reason, they are a danger to society. Charles Chauncy promotes the idea of faith and encourages belief in religious freedom.

Document 4—Blindly following the revivalists is dangerous. The document promotes the idea of a free society based on reason and rationality.

Handout 6

Document 1—There is a difference between religion and society. Governments can compel obedience, while religion cannot. When the two are combined, bad consequences result. Isaac Backus promotes the idea of freedom.

Document 2—All are equal and are endowed with natural rights that are shared in common; these rights have been given and are discoverable by all according to the laws of nature and reason. The Declaration promotes the idea of freedom.

Document 3—Religion is left to the individual; people should be free to worship as they please. This responsibility comes before any duties to society. James Madison promotes the idea of freedom and emphasizes the notion of individual faith.

Handout 7

Document 1—Religion is the work and duty of mankind. Revivals help promote religion and create excitement which leads to obedience to the dictates of God. Charles G. Finney promotes the idea of faith and points out the benefits of that to society.

Document 2—Revivals need to do more to engage individuals in action. This is an implicit argument in favor of reform movements. Finney promotes the notion of faith but also emphasizes pragmatic elements.

Document 3—Because of dangers of foreign influences, all religious thought and arguments must be subject to scrutiny. Samuel F. B. Morse puts an emphasis on the notion of protecting the status quo.

3. Write the following prompt on the chalkboard:

   Based on your knowledge of the periods and the documents given, assess the validity of this statement: "During America's beginnings (1730 to 1840), the country's founders, who were men of great faith, wanted to establish a society based on religious freedom and toleration."

   Ask students to brainstorm their initial reactions. Some might argue that the country's founders most definitely intended to establish a society in which maximum religious freedom would coexist with all the other freedoms. Others might argue that there was a mixed message sent from the country's founders. On the one hand, many of them fled to America for religious reasons, but once they established themselves in America, they did not extend the same privileges and rights they sought to others. This created some hostility within American society, especially during the Enlightenment.

4. Have students discuss how the prompt can be answered. Have them develop thesis statements. The following sentences could be an example: "Because America's first colonists emigrated in search of religious freedom, many of the founding documents promote a progressive agenda designed to maximize religious freedom. A society based on toleration was clearly established at America's birth."

Documents of the First Great Awakening

Directions: Read each passage carefully. In two or three sentences, summarize the content of the document. Then articulate the basic idea or belief the selection promotes.

Document 1

Jonathan Edwards, On the Revival in Northampton (1734)

These awakenings, when they have first seized on persons, have had two effects: one was, that they have brought them immediately to quit their sinful practices, and the looser sort have been brought to forsake and dread their former vices and extravagancies. When once the Spirit of God began to be so wonderfully poured out in a general way through the town, people had soon done with their old quarrels, backbitings, and intermeddling with other men's matters; the tavern was soon left empty, and persons kept very much at home. . . . [T]he other effect was, that it put them on ernest application to the means of salvation, reading, prayer, meditation, the ordinances of God's house, and private conference; their cry was, *What shall we do to be saved?*

Document 2

The Testimony and Advice of an Assembly of Pastors of Churches in New England (1743)

If it is the duty of every one capable of observation and reflection, to take a constant religious notice of what occurs in the daily course of common providence; how much more is it expected that those events in the divine economy, wherein there is a signal display of the power, grace and mercy of God in behalf of the church, should be observed with sacred wonder, pleasure, and gratitude! Nor should the people of God content themselves with a silent notice, but publish with the voice of thanksgiving, and tell of all his wondrous works.

Document 3

Charles Chauncy, Enthusiasm Described and Cautioned Against (1742)

But in nothing does the *enthusiasm* of these persons discover it self more, than in the disregard they express to the Dictates of *reason*. They are above the force of argument, beyond conviction from a calm and sober address to their understandings. . . . They feel the hand of God moving them within, and the impulses of his Spirit; and cannot be mistaken in what they feel. Thus they support themselves, and are sure reason hath nothing to do with what they see and feel. . . . And in vain will you endeavour to convince such persons of any mistakes they are fallen into. They are certainly in the right, and know themselves to be so. They have the Spirit opening their understandings and revealing the truth to them. They believe only as he has taught them: and to suspect they are in the wrong is to do dishonour to the Spirit; 'tis to oppose his dictates, to set up their own wisdom in opposition to his, and shut their eyes against that light with which he has shined into their souls. They are not therefore capable of being argued with; you had as good reason with the wind. . . .

This is the nature of *Enthusiasm*, and this its operation, in a less or greater degree, in all who are under the influence of it. 'Tis a kind of religious Phrenzy, and evidently discovers it self to be so, whenever it rises to any great height.

Document 4

The Testimony of the President, Professors, Tutors and Hebrew Instructors of Harvard College in Cambridge, Against the Reverend Mr. George Whitefield, and His Conduct (1744)

And in what Condition must that People be, who stand ready to be led by a Man that conducts himself according to his Dreams, or some ridiculous and unaccountable Impulses and Impressions on his Mind?

Documents of the Enlightenment

Directions: Read each passage carefully. In two or three sentences, summarize the content of the document. Then articulate the basic idea or belief the selection promotes.

Document 1

Isaac Backus, An Appeal to the Public for Religious Liberty (1773)

It is often pleaded, that magistrates ought to do their duty in religious as well as civil affairs. That is readily granted; but what is their duty therein? . . . In all civil governments some are appointed to judge for others, and have power to compel others to submit to their judgment: but our Lord has most plainly forbidden us, either to assume or submit to any such thing in religion. . . . And it appears to us that the true difference and exact limits between ecclesiastical and civil government is this, That the church is armed with *light and truth,* to pull down the strongholds of iniquity, and to gain souls to Christ, and into his church, to be governed by his rules therein; and again to exclude such from their communion, who will not be so governed; while the state is armed with the *sword* to guard the peace, and the civil rights of all persons and societies, and to punish those who violate the same. And where these two kinds of government, and the weapons which belong to them, are well distinguished, and improved according to the true nature and end of their institution, the effects are happy, and they do not at all interfere with each other: but where they have been confounded together, no tongue nor pen can fully describe the mischiefs that have ensued.

Document 2

Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776)

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them. . . .

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.

Document 3

James Madison, A Memorial and Remonstrance (1785)

The Religion then of every man must be left to the conviction and conscience of every man; and it is the right of every man to exercise it as these may dictate. This right is in its nature an unalienable right. It is unalienable, because the opinions of men, depending only on the evidence contemplated by their own minds cannot follow the dictates of other men: It is unalienable also, because what is here a right towards men, is a duty towards the Creator. It is the duty of every man to render to the Creator such homage and such only as he believes to be acceptable to him. This duty is precedent, both in order of time and in degree of obligation, to the claims of Civil Society.

Documents of the Second Great Awakening

Directions: Read each passage carefully. In two or three sentences, summarize the content of the document. Then articulate the basic idea or belief the selection promotes.

Document 1

Charles G. Finney, Lectures on Revivals of Religion (1835)

Religion is the work of man. It is something for man to do. It consists in obeying God. It is man's duty. It is true, God induces him to do it. He influences him by his Spirit, because of his great wickedness and reluctance to obey. If it were not necessary for God to influence men—if men were disposed to obey God, there would be no occasion to pray, "O Lord, revive thy work." The ground of necessity for such a prayer is, that men are wholly indisposed to obey; and unless God interpose the influence of his Spirit, not a man on earth will ever obey the commands of God.

A "Revival of Religion" presupposed a declension. Almost all the religion in the world has been produced by revivals. God has found it necessary to take advantage of the excitability there is in mankind, to produce powerful excitements among them, before he can lead them to obey. Men are so sluggish, there are so many things to lead their minds off from religion, and to oppose the influence of the gospel, that it is necessary to raise an excitement among them, till the tide rises so high as to sweep away the opposing obstacles. They must be so excited that they will break over these counteracting influences, before they will obey God.

Document 2

Charles G. Finney, Lectures on Revivals of Religion (1835)

There must be much greater efforts for the cause of missions, and education, and the Bible, and all the other branches of religious enterprise, or the church will displease God. Look at it. Think of the mercies we have received, of the wealth, numbers, and prosperity of the church. Have we rendered unto God according to the benefits we have received, so as to show that the church is bountiful and willing to give their money and to work for God? No. Far from it. Have we multiplied our means and enlarged our plans, in proportion as the church has increased? Is God satisfied with what has been done, or has he reason to be? Such a revival as has been enjoyed by the churches of America for the last ten years! We ought to have done ten times as much as we have for missions, Bibles, education, tracts, free churches, and in all the ways designed to promote religion and save souls. If the churches do not wake upon this subject, and lay themselves out on a larger scale, they may expect that the revival in the United States will cease.

Document 3

Samuel F. B. Morse, *Imminent Dangers* (1835)

I have set forth in a very brief and imperfect manner the evil, the great and increasing evil, that threatens our free institutions from *foreign interference*. . . . It is a fact, that in this age the subject of civil and religious liberty agitates in the most intense manner the various European governments. . . . It is a fact, that the influence of American free institutions in subverting European despotic institutions is greater now than it has ever been, from the fact of the greater maturity, and long-tried character, of the American form of government. . . . It is a fact, that Popery is opposed in its very nature to Democratic Republicanism; and it is, therefore, as a political system, as well as religious, opposed to civil and religious liberty, and consequently to our form of government. . . . It is a fact, that Roman Catholic Priests have interfered to influence our elections. . . . It is a fact, that politicians on both sides have propitiated these priests, to obtain the votes of their people. . . . If foreign powers, hostile to the principles of this government, have combined to spread any religious creed, no matter of what denomination, that creed does by that very act become a subject of political interest to all citizens, and must and will be thoroughly scrutinized.

Lesson 5

Coming Together: Nationalism Ascendant

Objective

- To understand how emerging nationalism brought Americans together and created a national identity

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-1: Analyze how competing conceptions of national identity were expressed in the development of political institutions and cultural values from the late colonial through the antebellum periods

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-2: Analyze how Emerging conceptions of national identity and democratic ideals shaped value systems, gender roles, and cultural movements in the late 18th and 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

A nation-state is one in which supreme political authority rests upon the will of the people. Citizens must have a feeling of belonging and a sense that the government is their government. The more elements that a people have in common, such as language, law, religion, ethnicity, and culture, the more binding is the nation-state. Nationalism, the doctrine that furnishes the desire to achieve and maintain the nation-state, became a secular religion and major goal of people on the Continent during the nineteenth century. Its American counterpart resulted in a surge of nation building and an emerging sense of natural cohesion in the years after 1800.

In several critical dimensions of American life—political, economic, social, and cultural—forces of nationalism helped to create that sense of shared identity necessary to forge strong bonds of national unity. In fields ranging from war, politics, economics, and foreign policy to the arts, new directions gave Americans a sense of pride in their accomplishment and a sense of the permanency of their new nation.

In this lesson, students chronicle this great surge of nation-building after 1800. They interpret the significance of a nation unified in thought and action. In light of threats to its existence after the midcentury, this unity served as a foundation for survival.

Procedure

1. Ask students to define the term *nation-state* (a political structure in which the supreme authority rests upon the will of the people). Ask what elements the people of nation-states have in common (language, religion, law, ethnicity, and culture). Explain that nationalism grows out of the development of a nation-state. Ask students to identify the aim of nationalism (to achieve and maintain the nation-state).

2. Ask the following questions:
   - In what areas does nationalism help create a shared identity among the people? (politics, economics, society, and culture)
   - How did the growth of nationalism after the American Revolution change the way Americans felt about themselves? (gave them a new pride in their accomplishments and a sense of permanency for their nation)

3. Distribute **Handout 8,** and assign the activities as either individual or group work. Students may need several days in advance of discussion of this lesson to research information and prepare visuals.

Suggested Responses

Part A.

1. The Louisiana Purchase doubled the size of the country, led to its eventual status as a world power, and reinforced the loose interpretation of the elastic clause.
2. The embargo forced the new nation to pursue industrialization and self-sufficiency.
3. The War of 1812 made Americans feel and act as a nation and gave a sense of permanency to the new nation.
4. a. *McCulloch v. Maryland* sanctioned the federal government's use of implied powers, established the supremacy of the national government, and paved the way for a vast expansion in the future of federal power.
   b. *Dartmouth College v. Woodward* guaranteed the sanctity of contracts and promised to protect potential investments in new American businesses.
   c. *Gibbons v. Ogden* gave the federal government control over interstate trade.
5. The Adams-Onis Treaty secured Florida for the United States and eliminated potential border conflicts.
6. The Monroe Doctrine was designed to promote national interests and signified the rise of a new sense of independence and self-confidence in foreign affairs.

Part B.

The visuals should show how the first protective tariff, the rechartering of the National Bank, and Henry Clay's proposed American system would bind sections of the country economically and promote self-sufficiency.

Part C.

1. While pre-Revolutionary American artists were reluctant to portray landscapes and scenes that might suggest that Great Britain's American colonies were crude and uncivilized, nineteenth-century artists took pride in showing the beauty of American landscapes of the Hudson River Valley and the American West. Genre artists saw beauty and charm in simple scenes of everyday American life.
2. In contrast to earlier American architects who were eager to copy Georgian (English) architecture for their wealthier patrons, Thomas Jefferson looked to the grandeur of classical Greece and Rome for his inspiration for a new republican government striving to create a democracy.
3. Ralph Waldo Emerson was a lecturer and essayist who rebelled against traditional Christianity, opposed the Mexican War and slavery, and believed in the ultimate goodness of the universe.

   John Greenleaf Whittier wrote about rural life and the evils of slavery.

   Oliver Wendell Holmes attempted to free medicine from quackery and establish it as a science; despite his aristocratic tendencies, he hated all restrictions of freedom of thought.

   Henry Wadsworth Longfellow wrote poetry on themes of the nation's past, such as "Evangeline" and "The Song of Hiawatha."

   Nathaniel Hawthorne wrote on themes of Puritan depravity and, like the others, opposed slavery.

4. Discuss the value of nationalism in bringing the nation together, particularly before it faced the formidable challenges of sectionalism and the slavery issue. Encourage students to consider how Europeans might have viewed the situation differently. Have students write a short paragraph outlining their views of nationalism.

Emerging Nationalism and Its Significance

Part A.

Directions: In a brief paragraph for each, explain how the following political developments contributed to a sense of independence and nationhood.

1. Louisiana Purchase
2. Embargo
3. War of 1812
4. John Marshall's Supreme Court Decisions:
   a. *McCulloch v. Maryland*
   b. *Dartmouth College v. Woodward*
   c. *Gibbons v. Ogden*
5. Adams-Onis Treaty
6. Monroe Doctrine

Part B.

Directions: Create a visual showing how the first protective tariff, the rechartering of the National Bank, and Henry Clay's proposed American system would bind sections of the country economically and promote self-sufficiency.

Part C.

Directions: Use the following activities to explore cultural developments.

1. Art
   Find copies of at least two examples of each of the following, and write a brief statement about each grouping to indicate how it illustrates the theme of nationalism.
   - Hudson River School (Thomas Cole or Asher Durand, for example)
   - Rocky Mountain School (Thomas Moran or Albert Bierstadt, for example)
   - Genre Artists (William Sydney Mount or John Quidor, for example)
2. Architecture
   Find copies of at least two examples of Thomas Jefferson's architectural designs (Monticello, University of Virginia, Virginia Capitol, for example), and explain why Jefferson believed Classical Revival was a more appropriate style than Georgian for public buildings in the new United States.
3. Literature
   Select any three of the following writers. For each one, identify one of his writings, its theme, and how it illustrates the theme of your project.
   - Ralph Waldo Emerson
   - John Greenleaf Whittier
   - Oliver Wendell Holmes
   - Henry Wadsworth Longfellow
   - Nathaniel Hawthorne

Lesson 6

The Transportation Revolution and the Creation of a Market Economy

Objectives

- To review the nature of economic growth and change in different regions of the United States from 1815 to 1860
- To write an essay about economic change and growing regionalism

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison
Skill 5: Contextualization

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation
Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-5: Analyze the role of economic, political, social, and ethnic factors on the formation of regional identities in what would become the United States from the colonial period through the 19th century

Thematic Learning Objective: Work, Exchange, and Technology

WXT-2: Analyze how innovations in markets, transportation, and technology affected the economy and the different regions of North America from the colonial period through the end of the Civil War

Notes to the Teacher

The War of 1812 convinced Americans of both Federalist and Jeffersonian leanings that the United States was vulnerable in wartime if the nation could not become self-sufficient. European nations could too easily boycott or attack American shipping. Thus a major program of expansion in manufacturing, transportation, and banking was undertaken. The sense of freedom engendered by the American Revolution and the generous abundance of land and raw materials in North America underlay this expansion. The historian John Lauritz Larson has noted also the tradition of pioneering, the spirit of innovation, and the existence of slavery as important factors.[1]

Henry Clay called his proposals for a national bank, protective tariffs, and internal improvements the "American system." Congress chartered the

[1]John Lauritz Larson, "The Market Revolution in Early America: An Introduction," *Magazine of History* 19, no. 3 (May 2005): 4–7.

Second National Bank in 1816 and undertook the creation of a national currency. In the same year, protectionist feeling in Congress produced the first of a series of tariffs designed to protect new industries in the United States; such tariffs were popular in the Northeast and West, less so in the South. The national government was wary about the constitutionality of funding internal improvements, but the states stepped in to charter and underwrite roadway, railroad, and canal projects that greatly improved domestic transportation. John Marshall's Supreme Court support for implied powers in the Constitution paved the way for increased activity by the national government.

The Transportation Revolution was marked by the following factors: the completion of the National Road between the Potomac and Ohio Rivers; the Lancaster Turnpike from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh; the invention of the steamboat; New York's Erie Canal; and the laying of thirty thousand miles of railroad track by 1860. Getting goods to market thus became both faster and cheaper.

The differentiation of American economic regions (with the concomitant social and political differentiation) accelerated. In New England, commercialized livestock production replaced subsistence farming in rural areas and was supplemented by the manufacture of shoes and textiles in the cities. Excess New England labor headed for the new cities and rich farmland of the Midwest, where they continued the market-oriented farming of livestock and wheat. Urban areas in both New England and the Midwest were transformed as factories and shops grew in number; factories were staffed by surplus local labor, including young women in the cotton mills, but eventually, immigrants who worked more cheaply were employed. Entrepreneurial and management classes grew to keep pace with the increased level of industrialization.

The slave system established in the Old South spread westward as new crops became feasible and new lands opened up. The invention of the cotton gin made the growing of short-staple cotton profitable, and sugar became an important crop in Louisiana. These crops were exported by ship down Southern rivers to ports along the coast and then to New York, Boston, and Europe in exchange for manufactured goods; therefore, what railroad development occurred was primarily shorter lines running to the coast; the use of inconsistent track gauges made connecting rail lines difficult in the South. Slavery (and its defense) continued to dominate the economy and culture of much of the South, although in mountainous areas like the Appalachians the "peculiar institution" had little direct effect. At the beginning of this time period, the South was willing to tolerate a tariff on manufactures; however, it grew increasingly hostile to the concept as an unfair burden on its economic welfare.

The opening activity requires several kinds of fruits, vegetables, and canned goods from different regions. The lesson provides an opportunity for students to review their knowledge about Clay's American system, the transportation revolution, and the market economy. The second part of

the lesson asks them to respond to a document-based question to show the relationship between these developments and the increasing degree of regional specialization in the antebellum United States.

Procedure

1. Bring in a bag of groceries. As you unpack it, ask students to guess the origin of each item. Check labels, and list the places of origin on the board. Point out that a modern grocery market sells goods from all over the country and even from other places in the world. Ask students whether that was the case in the early years of the United States. (No, most Americans depended on subsistence agriculture or at least regional agriculture, balanced with limited trade.) Explain that in this lesson students are going to look at how the United States moved from a basic level of local food, clothing, and other goods to having a broad-based economy.
2. Distribute **Handout 9**, and have students review the topics listed in preparation for responding to a document-based question.

Suggested Responses

1. The American System

   Henry Clay—nationalist leader from Kentucky who headed the movement for internal improvements, protective tariffs to encourage infant industries, and a strong national bank

   Second Bank of the United States—chartered by Congress in 1816 to provide a national currency; headquartered in Philadelphia

   National currency—bank notes issued by the Second Bank of the United States which became the only currency that could be used throughout the nation; created tensions with state banks because of requirement that all state bank currencies used in transactions with the federal government had to be redeemable in gold

   Protectionism—belief of neo-Federalists that raising tariffs would encourage manufacturing in the United States by raising the price of imported goods

   Tariff—a tax placed on imported goods; traditionally used for revenue, but in nineteenth century was used to encourage local manufactures and discourage imports

   Tariff of Abominations (1828)—enacted for political reasons; benefited Northern manufacturing and Western commercial agriculture at the expense of the agrarian South; led to Nullification Crisis

2. The Transportation Revolution

   Robert Fulton—launched a steamboat capable of navigating long distances on American rivers (1807)

   National Road—smooth crushed-rock roadway that ran from the Potomac River to Wheeling, West Virginia; finished in 1818

   Erie Canal—connected the Hudson River with the Great Lakes, thus opening up the Midwest for easier settlement and trade (1825)

   Main Line Canal—connected Philadelphia and Pittsburgh through a series of canals and some railway (1835)

   John Bull Locomotive—first steam locomotive in the United States; built in England but assembled in New Jersey

   Baltimore and Ohio Railroad—connected port of Baltimore with Wheeling, West Virginia, on the Ohio River

3. Economic Change in the Northeast

   Subsistence agriculture—farming to raise crops and livestock to feed and clothe one's family; practiced in colonial and early national period in New England

   Commercialization of agriculture—shift to raising livestock and marketing produce and dairy products to urban areas in exchange for manufactured goods and cash

   Samuel Slater—created first spinning mill in New England from British model

   Factory towns: The Rhode Island system—villages built in the countryside with houses rented to families who worked in the mills under close supervision

   Francis Cabot Lowell—combined spinning and weaving functions under one factory roof

   Factory towns: The Waltham system—mills operated by a labor force of unskilled young women from New England farms; later the women were replaced by immigrants

   Elias Howe and Isaac Singer—invented and improved the sewing machine, which made factory production of clothing cheap and simple

   Eli Whitney and interchangeable parts—his use of interchangeable parts for musket production led to streamlining in many manufactures

4. Economic Change in the Midwest

   Cyrus McCormick—inventor of the mechanized reaper, which facilitated harvesting of grain

John Deere—inventor of steel plow, which made wheat planting possible on the prairie

Commercialization of agriculture—wheat and livestock farming for commercial markets in urban areas and in the Northeast

Urbanization in the Midwest—growth of cities, usually along navigable waterways; Chicago and Cincinnati, for example

Indian removal—clearance of land for agriculture by conquest and removal of Indian tribes to reservations further west on undesirable land; Cherokee "Trail of Tears," for example

Immigration—influx of European settlers, especially German and Scandinavian, on farms of the Midwest and upper Great Plains

5. Economic Change in the South

Cotton gin—invention by Eli Whitney which made separation of short-staple cotton seed from fiber economically feasible; greatly increased demand for cotton and revitalized slave system

Cotton kingdom—large area of the South where cotton was raised, from Georgia west to Mississippi, Louisiana, and East Texas; more suited to large-scale plantation slavery than tobacco culture of colonial period

Plantation system—use of slave labor to produce crops like sugar, cotton, rice, and tobacco for export (Not all Southern whites were slaveholders; only a minority of slaveholders had large plantations.)

Slave trade—Importation of slaves from overseas was abolished in 1808; domestic slave trade continued until Civil War despite attempts to discourage it.

Urban slavery in Upper South—Slaves who had their master's permission could rent themselves out and keep part of their earnings; slaves often became skilled workers; common practice in Baltimore and other urban areas

John C. Calhoun—at first a nationalist who supported the American system; later one of its biggest critics and a leader of South Carolina during the Nullification Crisis

3. Distribute **Handout 10**. Allow students fifteen minutes to read it and plan their essays.
4. Allow forty-five minutes for students to write their essays.
5. Collect and assess students' essays.

The Changing American Economy, 1815–1860

Directions: Review the significance of each of the following people, places, and topics in preparation for a document-based question on the Market Revolution.

1. The American System
   - Henry Clay
   - Second Bank of the United States
   - National currency
   - Protectionism
   - Tariff
   - Tariff of Abominations (1828)

2. The Transportation Revolution
   - Robert Fulton
   - National Road
   - Erie Canal
   - Main Line Canal
   - John Bull Locomotive
   - Baltimore and Ohio Railroad

3. Economic Change in the Northeast
   - Subsistence agriculture
   - Commercialization of agriculture
   - Samuel Slater
   - Factory towns: The Rhode Island system
   - Francis Cabot Lowell
   - Factory towns: The Waltham system
   - Elias Howe and Isaac Singer
   - Eli Whitney and interchangeable parts

4. Economic Change in the Midwest
   - Cyrus McCormick
   - John Deere
   - Commercialization of agriculture
   - Urbanization in the Midwest
   - Indian removal
   - Immigration

5. Economic Change in the South
   - Cotton gin
   - Cotton kingdom
   - Plantation system
   - Slave trade
   - Urban slavery in Upper South
   - John C. Calhoun

Document-Based Question: The Transportation Revolution, the Market Economy, and the Growth of Regionalism

Directions: Use the following documents and any additional knowledge that you have about the period from 1815 to 1860 to answer the following question in a well-organized essay. Be sure that you cite at least five of the documents provided.

How did changes in the American economic system lay the foundation for the increasing regional differences between the Northeast, the West, and the South?

Document 1

Harriet Robinson, "Early Factory Labor in New England" (1883)

In 1832, Lowell was little more than a factory village. Five "corporations" were started, and the cotton mills belonging to them were building. Help was in great demand and stories were told all over the country of the new factory place, and the high wages that were offered to all classes of workpeople; stories that reached the ears of mechanics' and farmers' sons and gave new life to lonely and dependent women in distant towns and farmhouses. . . . Troops of young girls came from different parts of New England, and from Canada, and men were employed to collect them at so much a head, and deliver them at the factories. . . .

At the time the Lowell cotton mills were started the caste of the factory girl was the lowest among the employments of women. In England and in France, particularly, great injustice had been done to her real character. She was represented as subjected to influences that must destroy her purity and self-respect. In the eyes of her overseer she was but a brute, a slave, to be beaten, pinched and pushed about. It was to overcome this prejudice that such high wages had been offered to women that they might be induced to become mill girls, in spite of the opprobrium that still clung to this degrading occupation. . . .

The early millgirls were of different ages. Some were not over ten years old; a few were in middle life, but the majority were between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five. The very young girls were called "doffers." They "doffed," or took off, the full bobbins from the spinningframes, and replaced them with empty ones. These mites worked about fifteen minutes every hour and the rest of the time was their own. When the overseer was kind they were allowed to read, knit, or go outside the millyard to play. They were paid two dollars a week. The working hours of all the girls extended from five o'clock in the morning until seven in the evening, with one half hour each, for breakfast and dinner. Even the doffers were forced to be on duty nearly fourteen hours a day. This was the greatest hardship in the lives of these children. Several years later a ten-hour law was passed, but not until long after some of these little doffers were old enough to appear before the legislative committee on the subject, and plead, by their presence, for a reduction of the hours of labor.[1]

[1]Harriet Robinson, "Early Factory Labor in New England," in Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, *Fourteenth Annual Report* (Boston: Wright and Potter, 1883), 380–82, 387–88.

Document 2

James K. Polk, Inaugural Address (March 4, 1845)

The power "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises" was an indispensable one to be conferred on the Federal Government, which without it would possess no means of providing for its own support. In executing this power by levying a tariff of duties for the support of Government, the raising of *revenue* should be the *object* and *protection* the *incident.* To reverse this principle and make *protection* the *object* and *revenue* the *incident* would be to inflict manifest injustice upon all other than the protected interests. In levying duties for revenue it is doubtless proper to make such discriminations within the *revenue principle* as will afford incidental protection to our home interests. Within the revenue limit there is a discretion to discriminate; beyond that limit the rightful exercise of the power is not conceded. The incidental protection afforded to our home interests by discriminations within the revenue range it is believed will be ample. In making discriminations all our home interests should as far as practicable be equally protected. The largest portion of our people are agriculturists. Others are employed in manufactures, commerce, navigation, and the mechanic arts. They are all engaged in their respective pursuits and their joint labors constitute the national or home industry. To tax one branch of this home industry for the benefit of another would be unjust. No one of these interests can rightfully claim an advantage over the others, or to be enriched by impoverishing the others.

Document 3

Thaddeus Joy, Speech at the Merchants Exchange, Buffalo, New York (1848)

You will now perceive, gentlemen, that I have brought my narration of the commerce of Buffalo up to the final opening of the Erie canal, from the Lakes to tide water. From that period, the commerce of the Lakes began to grow. And your city, then a small village of less than two thousand inhabitants, began to increase. Its growth, and the importance of its commerce from that period, is well known to most of you, and is more familiar to some of you, than to myself. — The change has been rapid and wonderful. The country bordering on Lake Michigan, which less than a quarter of a century ago, only produced bark canoes and Indian moccasins, is now sending forth a volume of the staff of life, in magnitude so enormous, as to astonish the whole world. And whoever looks over the statistical accounts of the commerce and shipping upon these inland seas, recently and so ably compiled by one of your old and intelligent citizens, James L. Barton, Esq., cannot but be astounded at its almost inconceivable magnitude and importance.

Having called up these reminiscences, gentlemen, I will only say a few words merely to express the pleasure I feel in meeting upon this ground so many enterprising, elastic men, and of beholding Buffalo a great City, of more than forty thousand inhabitants, flushed with a prospect of still further and increasing greatness. I see the rich products of the west wafted into your laps from the Lakes on the one side, and crowding the canal with its departure on the other. I see you going and coming with the speed afforded by the powerful steamboats on the one hand, and by flying locomotives on the other. And I behold you standing in yonder Telegraph office, holding converse with the wheat buyers of Chicago and Milwaukee at the west, and with the flour sellers of New York and Boston at the east. But this spectacle is so sublime, that I can scarcely believe what I see.[2]

[2]"Mr. Joy's Address," *Commercial Advertiser* (Buffalo, N.Y.), August 22, 1848.

Document 4

Slave Population in Selected States

State	1790	1800	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860
Alabama	N/A	N/A	N/A	47,449	117,549	253,532	342,844	435,080
Arkansas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	4,576	19,935	47,100	111,115
Delaware	8,887	6,153	4,177	4,509	3,292	2,605	2,290	1,798
Florida	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	25,717	39,310	61,745
Georgia	29,264	59,699	105,218	149,656	217,531	280,944	381,682	462,198
Kentucky	12,430	40,343	80,561	126,732	165,213	182,258	210,981	225,483
Louisiana	N/A	N/A	N/A	69,064	109,588	168,452	244,809	331,726
Maryland	103,036	105,635	111,502	107,398	102,994	89,737	90,368	87,189
Mississippi	N/A	N/A	N/A	32,814	65,659	195,211	309,878	436,631
Missouri	N/A	N/A	N/A	10,222	25,096	58,240	87,422	114,931
N. Carolina	100,783	133,296	168,824	205,017	245,601	245,817	288,548	331,059
S. Carolina	107,094	146,151	196,365	251,783	315,401	327,038	384,984	402,406
Tennessee	N/A	13,584	44,535	80,107	141,603	183,059	239,459	275,719
Texas	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	58,161	182,566
Virginia	292,627	346,671	392,518	425,153	469,757	449,087	472,528	490,865

Fig. 6.1.

Document 5

Time Line: Inventions and Innovations of the Industrial Revolution

1775 James Watt invents first reliable steam engine.
1795 Eli Whitney's cotton gin makes separation of cotton seed from fiber fast and simple.
1798 Eli Whitney uses interchangeable parts to speed up production in musket manufacture.
1807 Robert Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, navigates the Hudson River from New York to Albany.
1814 Francis Lowell brings British spinning and weaving processes together in Waltham Mills.
1831 Cyrus McCormick invents the reaper to speed up harvesting of grain.
1833 English-built John Bull steam locomotive and railroad cars begin service in New Jersey.
1837 John Deere invents first steel plow.
1844 Samuel F. B. Morse invents the telegraph.
1846 Elias Howe invents sewing machine; production of clothing becomes commercialized.
1851 Isaac Singer improves Howe's sewing machine, develops market for industrial use.

Fig. 6.1. Source: "Total Slaves," *Historical Census Browser*, 2004, <http://fisher.lib.virginia.edu/collections/stats/histcensus/index.html> (31 August 2010).

Document 6

Robert Fulton's Steamboat

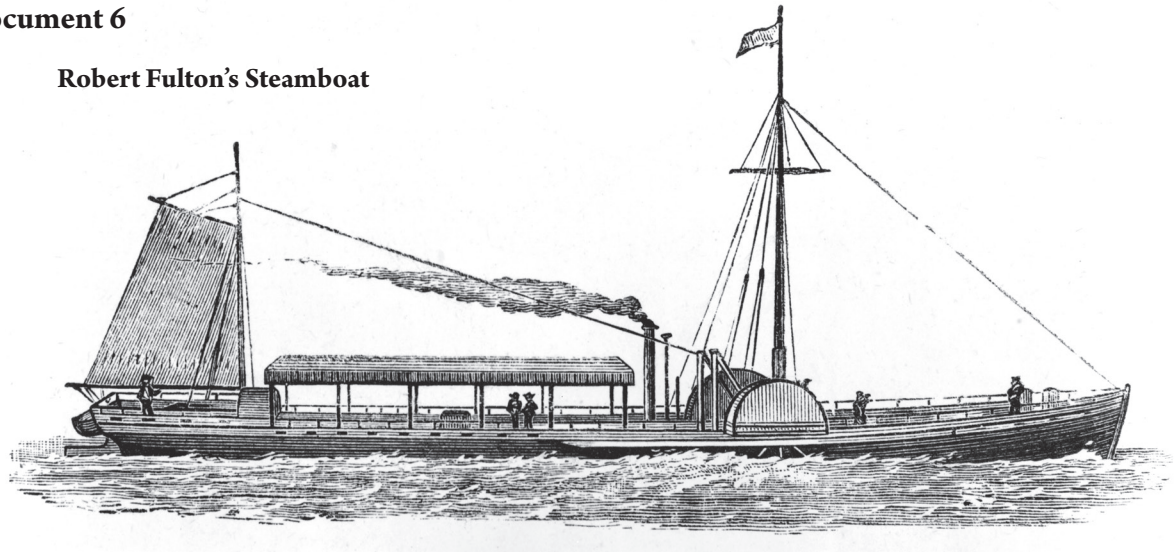


Fig. 6.2.

Document 7

Second Bank of the United States

Fig. 6.3.

Fig. 6.2. Broadside view of Robert Fulton's steamboat *Clermont* in 1807, from *The Steam Engine and Its Inventors: A Historical Sketch* by Robert L. Galloway (London: MacMillan and Co., 1881), 237, fig. 49. Library of Congress, LC-USZ62-110382.

Fig. 6.3. Second Bank of the United States, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, Historic American Buildings Survey, HABSPA, 51-PHILA, 223-26.

Document 8

Hinton Rowan Helper, *The Impending Crisis of the South: How to Meet It* (1860)

It is a fact well known to every intelligent Southerner that we are compelled to go to the North for almost every article of utility and adornment, from matches, shoepegs and paintings up to cotton-mills, steamships and statuary; that we have no foreign trade, no princely merchants, nor respectable artists; that, in comparison with the free states, we contribute nothing to the literature, polite arts and inventions of the age; that, for want of profitable employment at home, large numbers of our native population find themselves necessitated to emigrate to the West, whilst the free states retain not only the larger proportion of those born within their own limits, but induce, annually, hundreds of thousands of foreigners to settle and remain amongst them; that almost everything produced at the North meets with ready sale, while, at the same time, there is no demand, even among our own citizens, for the productions of Southern industry; that, owing to the absence of a proper system of business amongst us, the North becomes, in one way or another, the proprietor and dispenser of all our floating wealth, and that we are dependent on Northern capitalists for the means necessary to build our railroads, canals and other public improvements. . . .[3]

[3]Hinton Rowan Helper, *The Impending Crisis of the South: How to Meet It* (New York: A. B. Burdick, 1860), 21.

Lesson 7

Whig Ideals in American History

Objective

- To develop thesis statements using documents written in support of the Whig political, economic, and social philosophy that shaped American history between 1832 and 1852

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-5: Analyze how arguments over the meaning and interpretation of the Constitution have affected U.S. politics since 1787

Notes to the Teacher

The American Whig political party rose to prominence with the reelection of Andrew Jackson in 1832 and died with the nomination of its last political candidate in 1852. The Whigs hold an important yet mysterious place in American history. They rose in political opposition to the misnamed Era of Good Feelings during James Monroe's administration, when the Federalist Party died out and no other political party challenged the Democratic-Republicans. In 1856, the party endorsed Millard Fillmore, the last Whig to serve in the office of the presidency, for the American Party. Earlier, Fillmore had taken over for Zachary Taylor, who died in office. Although the Whigs only lasted for about twenty years, they exerted a significant influence during this time period and helped to shape, albeit indirectly, the formation of the new Republican Party.

Teachers who wish to explore the history of the Whig Party should consult the following works: *The Political Culture of the American Whigs*, by Daniel Walker Howe; *The American Whigs: An Anthology*, edited by Daniel Walker Howe; and *The Rise and Fall of the American Whig Party*, by Michael F. Holt.

In this lesson, students work individually or in groups to examine and analyze documents about the political philosophy of the Whigs. They answer questions about the documents and defend their positions to the class.

Procedure

1. Ask students to what extent the absence of two political parties during the Era of Good Feelings created a more positive or more negative atmosphere in American history. (Student responses might include the ideas that the absence of political parties created an atmosphere of

unity and cooperation among the country's leaders, that there was a political benefit to having choices within the political spectrum, and that the absence of political opponents might lead one party to diverge too far from the middle and create an environment of extremism.) Explain that the rise of the American Whig Party was, in many ways, a reaction to the lack of party opposition to the Democratic-Republicans.

2. Divide the class into groups, and distribute **Handout 11**. Assign documents to each group. Have students read and analyze the documents and record their information for class discussion. Students should be prepared to share their information and to defend their responses in class discussion.

Suggested Responses

Document 1—Andrew Jackson presented a strict interpretation of the Constitution and opposed the political ideology of John Quincy Adams (i.e., the Whig ideology or approach to government). The passage aims to justify Jackson's administration.

Document 2—The cartoon expresses Whig ridicule of Andrew Jackson, equating him with a monarch, a demagogue with little concern for the Constitution. It shows that the Whigs were mounting an anti-Jackson campaign early in his presidency.

Document 3—Henry Clay pointed out that his American System, internal improvements, and increasing sense of nationalism led to great prosperity; he credited congressional legislation for this. Jackson opposed both internal improvements and the tariff as unconstitutional and detrimental to the prosperity of society; Clay indicates that Jackson was wrong.

Document 4—George Tucker indicated that a national bank adds to national wealth. All business enterprises profit, not just the bank itself. His position contrasts with that of Jackson, who opposed the National Bank as unconstitutional and argued that it only benefited the wealthy at the expense of the common people.

Document 5—Daniel Webster, the primary defender of American nationalism in the antebellum period, laid out arguments against nullification, sectionalism, and secession; he claimed the primacy of the federal government over that of the states. Jackson opposed nullification as president but argued a strict interpretation of the Constitution, saying each branch had its distinct powers and jurisdiction. Jackson believed in a limited federalism.

Document 6—William Henry Harrison said the foundation of the Constitution rests on the will of the people; he saw union and harmony of interests as critical for the survival of American democracy. Harrison agreed with Jackson, who echoed the same sentiments.

Document 7—Daniel D. Barnard said humans are social creatures (Aristotelian argument); family, church, and the state should be the cornerstones of society. He warned about demagogues. Whigs represented a conservative or traditional ideology to politics; they reached out to a different group of voters than those Jackson represented.

Document 8—Nicholas Biddle said that when the intellectual and educated leaders of the country actually lead, they will become the true statesmen of America. Jackson was viewed by the intellectual elements in American society with disgust. Many feared the rule of the mob and distrusted democracy.

Document 9—Lyman Beecher hinted at an anti-immigration position. Many Whigs were anti-Catholic and anti-immigrant, but they also pushed a pro-West agenda. The immigration surge was prior to Jackson, but the Whigs did, to a certain extent, represent a nativist element in American society.

Document 10—Charles Sumner said the Whig party must represent freedom. This was a direct attack on slavery, but it also could be interpreted regarding Native Americans and Jackson's Indian Removal Act. The comments constitute a direct attack on the antifreedom position of Democrats.

3. Provide the following prompt, and ask students to develop thesis statements responding to the prompt.

   Based on your knowledge of the period and the documents given, assess the validity of the following statement: "The American Whigs offered no positive agenda of their own but simply were a byproduct of the administration of Andrew Jackson."

4. Have students discuss how to answer the prompt. Have each develop a thesis statement related to the prompt.

Suggested Response

The Whigs supported a number of different positive visions for America, including abolition and American nationalism. However, because the political party rose in reaction to Andrew Jackson, comprised a number of different political figures with different agendas for the country, and did not last beyond a generation of political thinkers, the American Whigs were simply a reaction to and byproduct of the administration of Andrew Jackson.

Whig Ideals in American History: The Documents

Directions: Read the selections carefully and summarize the content of each document. Then identify each document's purpose and indicate how it relates to Andrew Jackson's ideas.

Document 1

Andrew Jackson, Farewell Address (March 4, 1837)

It is well known that there have always been those amongst us who wish to enlarge the powers of the General Government, and experience would seem to indicate that there is a tendency on the part of this Government to overstep the boundaries marked out for it by the Constitution. Its legitimate authority is abundantly sufficient for all the purposes for which it was created, and its powers being expressly enumerated, there can be no justification for claiming anything beyond them. . . . From the extent of our country, its diversified interests, different pursuits, and different habits, it is too obvious for argument that a single consolidated government would be wholly inadequate to watch over and protect its interests; and every friend of our free institutions should be always prepared to maintain unimpaired and in full vigor the rights and sovereignty of the States and to confine the action of the General Government strictly to the sphere of its appropriate duties.

Document 2

King Andrew the First (1833)

Fig. 7.1.

Document 3

Henry Clay, Speech in Defense of the American System (1832)

On a general survey, we behold cultivation extended, the arts flourishing, the face of the country improved, our people fully and profitably employed, and the public countenance exhibiting tranquility, contentment, and happiness. And if we descend into particulars, we have the agreeable contemplation of a people out of debt; land rising slowly in value, but in a secure and salutary degree; a ready though not extravagant market for all the surplus productions of our industry; innumerable flocks and herds browsing . . . on ten thousand hills and plains, . . . our cities expanded, and whole villages springing up . . . our exports and imports increased and increasing; . . . the

Fig. 7.1. "King Andrew the First." (1833). Lithograph. Collection of the Library of Congress.

rivers of our interior animated by the perpetual thunder and lightning of countless steamboats; the currency sound and abundant; the public debt of two wars nearly redeemed; and, to crown all, the public treasury overflowing, embarrassing Congress, not to find subjects of taxation, but to select the objects which shall be liberated from the impost. If the term of seven years were to be selected, of the greatest prosperity which this people have enjoyed since the establishment of their present Constitution, it would be exactly that period of seven years which immediately followed the passage of the tariff of 1824.

This transformation of the condition of the country from gloom and distress to brightness and prosperity, has been mainly the work of American legislation, fostering American industry. . . .

Document 4

George Tucker, *Examination of the Political Objections to a National Bank* (1839)

[It is charged that] the bank tends to favor a moneyed aristocracy, as well as to add to the natural influence of wealth, and is so far repugnant to republican principles. This objection, if it be merely that the bank tends to make the rich richer, applies to every useful and profitable enterprise that can be mentioned; to manufactories, canals, railroads, and to all banks whatever, whether state, or national; . . . It would seem to be quite sufficient, in our country, for the recommendation of any course of policy, that it adds to the mass of the national wealth; and, as to the distribution of that wealth, we may safely leave it to the relative industry, talent, and prudence of individuals, together with the laws which regulate successions, to give to each one the share to which he is justly entitled.

Document 5

Daniel Webster, Second Speech on Foot's Resolution—Second Reply to Hayne (1830)

[What is] the origin of this government, and of the foundation on which it stands. I hold it to be a popular government, erected by the people; those who administer it, responsible to the people; and itself capable of being amended and modified, just as the people may choose it should be. It is as popular, just as truly emanating from the people, as the State governments. It is created for one purpose; the State governments for another. It has its own powers; they have theirs. . . . We are here to administer a Constitution emanating immediately from the people, and trusted by them to our administration. It is not the creature of the State governments.

Document 6

William Henry Harrison, Inaugural Address (March 4, 1841)

The broad foundation upon which our Constitution rests being the people—a breath of theirs having made, as a breath can unmake, change, or modify it—it can be assigned to none of the great divisions of government but to that of democracy. . . . It should be our constant and earnest endeavor mutually to cultivate a spirit of concord and harmony among the various parts of our Confederacy. . . . Of all the great interests which appertain to our country, that of union—cordial, confiding, fraternal union—is by far the most important, since it is the only true and sure guaranty of all others.

Document 7

Daniel D. Barnard, *The Social System* (1848)

No community can very long govern itself by popular forms, which discards or turns its back on the cardinal principle of loyalty and obedience as a religious sentiment and duty. When demagogues take the control of the people, and become their schoolmasters, they will very soon be educated out of every true notion of government and every true idea of liberty. . . . Man is essentially a social being. This is his state of nature. He is under a positive necessity to live in society, and form social relationships with his fellows . . . He cannot lie at all, except in the social state. . . . Society must rest on the Family, on the State, and on the Church, as organizations of divine ordination. The Family must be held sacred; Government must be respected and obeyed, and the Church loved and venerated as a heaven-born mother.

Document 8

Nicholas Biddle, Princeton Commencement Address (1835)

You are all destined for public life. . . . I deem it right, then, earnestly to impress on you the influence of liberal studies on public duties, . . . that inattention to them is a prevailing defect among us—that one of the greatest dangers to our institutions arises from the want of them—and that, without them, no public man can ever acquire extended usefulness or durable fame. . . . Above this crowd and beyond them all stands that character which I trust many of you will become—a real American statesman.

Document 9

Lyman Beecher, *A Plea for the West* (1835)

But if this nation is, in the providence of God, destined to lead the way in the moral and political emancipation of the world, it is time she understood her high calling, and were harnessed for the work. For mighty causes, like floods from distant mountains, are rushing with accumulating power to their consummation of good or evil, and soon our character and destiny will be stereotyped forever.

It is equally plain that the religious and political destiny of our nation is to be decided in the West.

Document 10

Charles Sumner, Antislavery Duties of the Whig Party (1846)

The Whigs, as their name imports, are, or ought to be, the party of freedom. They seek, or should seek, on all occasions, to carry out fully and practically the principles of our institutions. Those principles which our fathers declared, and sealed with their blood, their Whig children should seek to manifest in acts.

Let me say, then, that the Whigs . . . [are] the party which seeks the establishment of Truth, Freedom, Right, and Humanity, under the Constitution of the United States, and by the Union of the states. They are Unionists, Constitutionalists, Friends of the Right.

Lesson 8

Early American Artistic Expressions

Objectives

- To examine and analyze works of art and artistic expression in early American history
- To develop critical thinking and writing skills

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-1: Analyze how competing conceptions of national identity were expressed in the development of political institutions and cultural values from the late colonial through the antebellum periods

Notes to the Teacher

It is common for cultures to claim identities through their artistic expression. This is not the only way that cultures identify themselves, but it is one of the most common ways for them to do so. Studying art can be an exciting way to explore how a culture views itself and the way in which societies want outsiders to view them. Artistic expression can take on many forms, including formal paintings, crafts, music, architecture, and literature. In this lesson, students examine formal paintings and one example of architecture.

Early in its history, the United States faced a challenge. Not only was the country struggling in a life-or-death battle for its independence and very existence, but also it was struggling to establish its identity. The question that J. Hector St. John de Crèvecoeur asked in *Letters from an American Farmer* weighed heavily on the minds of the people of the young nation. Were they to be simply an extension of Europe, with European values, cultures, and morals; or would they be able to forge their own identity? An examination of the artistic expression during the early republic can shed some light on this question; through art, Americans began to shape who they were and what they wanted the outside world to think of them.

In this lesson, students research artists and artworks from the time period. They participate in a jigsaw activity, researching and analyzing works of art, becoming experts, and sharing information with each other. Students participate in a class discussion, using the information presented to the class, and write an essay.

Note: All the works of art listed in this lesson can be found in art history textbooks and online. Digital images or art slides of these works can

be purchased through popular online vendors, including Universal Art Images (http://www.universalartimages.com) and Davis Art Images (http://www.davisart.com).

Procedure

1. Present the word *neoclassical*. Ask students to define the word (a revival of classicism, relating to the Greeks or Romans, especially with art and architecture; pre-Romantic style; columns, formal paintings, new classical).

2. Inform students that they are going to examine the background of some of the neoclassical artists and works of art in early American history. Explain that the neoclassical movement began during the middle of the eighteenth century. Common characteristics of neoclassical art include smooth brushstrokes resulting in very defined images, simple symmetrical and geometric styles, symbolism of the old Greeks and Romans, paintings that record historical events, and images of patriotism. Neoclassical art was very popular among artists in Europe at the time of the American Revolution and lasted through the nineteenth century. Explain to students that a research project will help them to gain insight into what many of the artists of the early republic went through to develop their artistic talents, what works of art they produced, and important facts about their lives. The completed research will serve as a resource in their class discussion of art and artistic expression in early American history.

3. Have students use the library or the Internet to find copies of some or all of the following paintings:

   Benjamin West—*The Death of General Wolfe, Penn's Treaty with the Indians, Death of Socrates, Benjamin Franklin Drawing Electricity from the Sky, Death on a Pale Horse*

   John Trumbull—*Declaration of Independence, Surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga, Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, Death of General Warren at the Battle of Bunker Hill*

   John Singleton Copley—*Paul Revere, Samuel Adams, The Boy with the Squirrel, Brook Watson and the Shark*

   Gilbert Stuart—*George Washington, The Skater*

   Paul Revere—*The Boston Massacre*

   Also have students find images of Thomas Jefferson's home, Monticello, which he designed. Have students share initial impressions.

4. Distribute **Handout 12**, and assign it as individual or small-group research. Have students use resources in the classroom, the library, or on the Internet to complete the handout, and instruct them that they will be responsible for sharing their information with the class.

Suggested Responses

1. Benjamin West (1738–1820) was born to Quaker parents at what is now Swarthmore, Pennsylvania, and learned to make paint from Native Americans as a child. West had no formal education, but after meeting John Wollaston, a famous painter from London, he moved to Italy, where he spent time copying from the great Italian masters. In 1763, he moved to England, where he remained for the rest of his life. In 1772, George III appointed him historical painter to the court. West cofounded the Royal Academy of the Arts and is considered the first great American painter. Some of his famous paintings include *The Death of General Wolfe, Penn's Treaty with the Indians, Death of Socrates, Benjamin Franklin Drawing Electricity from the Sky,* and *Death on a Pale Horse*.
2. John Trumbull (1756–1843) was born in Lebanon, Connecticut. His father was the first governor of Connecticut after the American Revolution. Trumbull studied at Harvard and served in the American Revolution. In 1780, Trumbull traveled to London and studied under Benjamin West. He spoke out in support of the Revolutionary War and was charged with treason and imprisoned. In 1785, at Thomas Jefferson's invitation, Trumbull traveled to Paris. He traveled back and forth between Paris and London for more than a decade and returned to the United States in 1804. In 1816, while living in New York, he was elected president of the American Academy of Fine Arts. His paintings include *The Declaration of Independence, The Surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga, The Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown,* and *The Death of General Warren at the Battle of Bunker Hill*.
3. John Singleton Copley (1738–1815) was born in Boston, Massachusetts. His stepfather, an engraver and teacher, was an influential figure in Copley's paintings, which were known for their draftsmanship and use of color. In 1775, he emigrated to England and from there traveled to Paris and Rome. Copley often used the theme of man's struggle against nature as the subject for his paintings. He specialized in portraits, which were noted for their vitality and realism. He painted individuals in less formal poses with items that would have identified them and their occupations or interests. Copley was elected a member of the Royal Academy of Arts. His paintings include *Paul Revere, Samuel Adams, The Boy with the Squirrel,* and *Brook Watson and the Shark*.
4. Gilbert Stuart (1755–1828) lived in Newport, Rhode Island. In 1771, Stuart moved to Scotland to finish his studies. The

following year he returned to Newport. In 1775, Stuart went to England to study under Benjamin West and in 1777 exhibited at the Royal Academy. After the American Revolution, he returned to Philadelphia. By 1803, Stuart opened a studio in Washington, D.C., where he painted portraits of many leaders of the new early republic. Some considered him the official government painter. His paintings include several versions of *George Washington* and *The Skater.*

5. Paul Revere (1735–1818) most likely was born in Boston, Massachusetts. He was a silversmith with a good reputation, but it was an engraving of *The Boston Massacre* that brought him fame. While inaccurate and inflammatory, the image can be used to illustrate the role that propaganda can play in mobilizing individuals to a cause. Revere was one of the founders of the Sons of Liberty and a leader of the Boston Tea Party; he took part in the famous ride to warn the greater Boston area of the British intentions of seizing munitions at Concord. For this, he was immortalized in the poem by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Revere was not known as an artist. As the United States grew, the demand for silversmiths dropped out, and Revere branched out into other areas of metalwork.
6. Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) was born at Shadwell in Virginia. His father was a successful planter and surveyor, and his mother was a member of one of Virginia's most distinguished and wealthy families. Jefferson attended the College of William and Mary. Both he and John Adams died on July 4, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. Jefferson was known for his eclectic interests. He had an enduring interest in architecture; he designed and built his estate, Monticello, which was heavily influenced by the classical buildings of Greece and Rome.

5. Distribute **Handout 13**, and divide the class into small groups. Assign one work of art to each group. Have students use print or online resources to complete the handout. Explain that they will be responsible for presenting their assigned work of art to the class.

Suggested Responses

1. *Penn's Treaty with the Indians,* Benjamin West, 1771–72

   Historical Background—William Penn, a Quaker, received a land grant from King Charles II to establish an area that was to be a safe haven for political and religious dissenters to live peacefully and practice their religions freely. Penn wanted to establish peaceful relations with the Native Americans. Penn attempted to acquire more ter-

ritory for the growing population through business and friendly relations with the Native Americans rather than through conquest.

Analysis—The painting depicts the signing of the Great Treaty by the colonists of Pennsylvania and Native Americans. The two groups are clearly divided; colonists are depicted on the left side and the Native Americans on the right side. Still, both sides seem to be comfortable with the setting and are engaged in discussion. The fact that children are present shows that the Native Americans were very trusting.

2. *The Death of General Wolfe,* Benjamin West, 1770

Historical Background—British General Wolfe was a leading figure during the French and Indian War. This painting depicts the end of the Battle of Quebec on the Plains of Abraham, one of the most significant battles in British and American history. During the battle, Wolfe was fatally wounded, and the French commander, the Marquis de Montcalm, was killed. The British defeated the French army, and the city of Montreal was forced to surrender. It would be the last time that a French flag would fly in Canada.

Analysis—This image, a typical neoclassical painting, depicts the noble citizen sacrificing his life for the state. Neoclassical art sought to tell a story and to generate patriotic feelings in those viewing the image. The imagery portrays General Wolfe as a Christ figure, with the flag behind him reminiscent of Christ being lifted off the cross. The wound suffered by General Wolfe is similar to the wound Christ suffered while on the cross. The painting, while it depicts a historical event, is not historically accurate. There were no Native Americans at this particular battle. The painting is divided into halves. The sky breaking and the sun beginning to shine through the clouds of war are a sign that this battle was a turning point in the war and the end was near. This painting portrays the subjects as heroes willing to sacrifice their lives for their country.

3. *Benjamin Franklin Drawing Electricity from the Sky,* Benjamin West, 1816

Historical Background—Benjamin Franklin, the ultimate Renaissance man, was known and revered in America and across the European continent. This painting portrays the famous kite experiment in 1752 in which Franklin discovered that electricity could be harnessed from lightning. He constructed the first lightning rod as a result of this

experiment and hooked it up to his house. Franklin used the sparks from the attracted lightning to ring bells and illuminate the house.

Analysis—Franklin is the prominent and central figure in the painting, but there are two other groups of figures. To the right are three cherubs, one of which is holding the string to the kite; to the left are two miniature scientists. The opening within the overcast sky from which the lightning emanates and connects with the key could be symbolic of the moment of insight or enlightenment. The two groups of figures represent the notion that knowledge is not gained in a vacuum. It is neither a purely secular pursuit nor a purely religious pursuit. True enlightenment comes from both scientific research and the hand of God. This painting depicts a practical individual interested in learning about nature and the world around him, but not at the expense of abandoning religious heritage or worldview.

4. *The Boston Massacre,* Paul Revere, 1770

   Historical Background—On March 5, 1770, a skirmish broke out in Boston between British troops and a group of Americans angry with the Stamp Act and the subsequent legislation by the English Parliament. A crowd assembled near the Boston Customs House and began taunting and throwing things at the British soldiers on guard duty. The taunting turned into bloodshed when one of the British soldiers was struck, probably with a rock, and reacted by firing into the crowd. Other guards followed suit. In the end, five Americans were killed. Captain Prescott, the officer in charge, and eight other soldiers were arrested, indicted, and charged with murder. John Adams defended the British soldiers.

   Analysis—The engraving is inaccurate and inflammatory and portrays the British soldiers lining up and firing on seemingly innocent Americans. Some of the Americans are putting their hands up, and others have their backs turned to the soldiers who are firing on them. Clearly portraying the Americans as victims of British injustice and tyranny, the engraving was used as propaganda and rallied the American cause for independence.

5. *Declaration of Independence,* John Trumbull, 1817

   Historical Background—Thomas Jefferson drafted the document between June 11 and June 28, 1776. The Committee of Five (Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and Robert Livingston) presented the Declaration to the Second Continental

Congress on June 28, and on July 2 most of the members approved it. Officially adopted on July 4, 1776, and sent to the printer for circulation, this was the first official act of the United States.

Analysis—This painting is in the neoclassical style. Many artists of this time saw themselves as visual historians. Certainly, others saw Trumbull in that light, and he viewed himself in that way. The image depicts a defining moment in American history: the creation of the United States of America. Trumbull wanted to take special care and accurately represent all members of the Continental Congress within his painting. At the center of the painting stand the men in the Committee of Five, those who were responsible for drafting the declaration. As the primary author of the document, Thomas Jefferson is clearly the center of attention. A group is depicted as standing. It is not clear of what—if anything—this symbolizes. The painting illustrates that not all of the colonists were in favor of the Declaration. The painting portrays Americans as the inheritors of a strong tradition of self-government and as supporters of the ideals of natural rights and the social contract. It depicts rationalism rather than emotionalism and indicates that Americans are now truly independent and free.

6. *Paul Revere,* John Singleton Copley, 1768

   Historical Background—This portrait of Paul Revere is one of the most famous neoclassical paintings in American history. Revere was one of the leaders of the American Revolution and an influential figure in Boston.

   Analysis—The painting illustrates Revere's occupation as a silversmith. It is somewhat unusual because it portrays Revere in a very relaxed and casual manner. Most portraits of the time were more formal and posed. Details in this painting include wrinkles on Revere's shirt; Copley used light and shadow in painting the teapot on the tabletop. Revere might be contemplating the teapot produced in his shop, or he could be contemplating his role in the American Revolution. This painting represents the common man and his role within the larger movement of independence, although Revere is clearly not a common man. By portraying Revere in his work clothes, Copley reached out to all Americans, hardworking and primarily middle-class people, and let them know that they all had a role to play in shaping the new country.

7. *Watson and the Shark,* John Singleton Copley, 1778

   Historical Background—Brook Watson, orphaned as a young child, was sent to Boston to live with a relative. As a teenager, he worked as a crew member on a ship owned by a relative and was involved with the triangle trade. While in Cuba, he decided to take a swim in the harbor and was attacked by a shark. Members of the ship's crew saw this and went to his rescue. Watson was saved, but he lost his right leg. Later Watson became a very wealthy merchant and political figure.

   Analysis—Many images catch the eye in this painting. The shark dominates the bottom right part of the canvas but is anatomically incorrect because Copley had never seen a shark. He was simply sketching what a shark might look like based on stories he had heard. The figure of Watson dominates the bottom left part of the canvas. Watson's right leg is not visible. The boat dominates the center of the painting. It is immediately noticeable that a black man is throwing Watson a lifeline, the significance of which some have argued. It is unclear whether Copley meant this as a political commentary on slavery. This painting represents what we have come to think of as the American dream, that even those who experience hardships—and Watson experienced many as a youth—can work hard and become successful. This idea became quite popular later in the nineteenth century.

8. *George Washington,* Gilbert Stuart, 1796

   Historical Background—George Washington was a military leader during the War for Independence and continued to lead the country afterward as the nation's first official president under the U.S. Constitution.

   Analysis—This official presidential portrait of Washington can be compared to Jacques-Louis David's *Napoleon in His Study* (1812). French leader Napoleon Bonaparte, even though history has remembered him as a military figure, poses in his study, as a political figure. Washington, a hero of the American Revolution, played a prominent military role in early American history and was the first president. Stuart portrays both Washington's military and political roles in this painting. While Washington is clad in a civilian suit to portray the idea of his political position, a sword, the symbol of military power, rests on the table to his left. The two books that lie beside the table, *The General Orders of the American Revolution* and *The Constitution and Bylaws of the United States,* indicate the dual role he played in Ameri-

can history as the commander-in-chief of the Continental Army and the president of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, as well as the first president of the United States.

9. Monticello, Thomas Jefferson, 1778

   Historical Background—Thomas Jefferson's interest in classical literature and architecture is reflected in his design for his country home, Monticello, and the original main buildings for the campus of the University of Virginia in Charlottesville. Jefferson traveled extensively in Europe. He believed that the ideals of a republican government could be found in ancient Rome. Jefferson observed the simple neoclassical designs of Andrea Palladio in Europe and was determined to bring them to America. A self-taught and very gifted architect, Jefferson designed Monticello in the Palladian style.

   Analysis—Built of red brick with white wooden trim, Monticello is a typical classical building. It is simple, symmetrical, and classical. It represents that Americans viewed themselves as the products of a long and rich history of democracy which began in Athens and which the Founding Fathers believed they were extending into the new republic.

6. Ask the following questions.
   - Why did most artists travel to Europe for formal training? (Artists, like many other professions, struggled early on in the young republic. There were few formal art schools, so individuals who wanted to become artists either had to apprentice with an artist or travel abroad to receive formal training. There were few museums in America to display works of art; there was little demand for them, and there were few patrons to support artists. Most Americans were rural farmers and could not afford high-priced works of art.)
   - What were some of the common stylistic and content characteristics of American art during the early Republic? (Art was primarily neoclassical in style; content varied according to the individual's taste and interests. Portraiture and historical paintings were the two most common types of content.)
   - What kind of American identity did artists in the United States attempt to project to the world? (Many were very conscious about the identity they wanted to project to the rest of the world. While some would have had no problems with keeping their European identities, most Americans wanted to forge their own unique identity in the world. The works of art studied in this lesson present a very complex and highly sophisticated look at what it meant to be an American.)

- America is not known for having great artists or great works of art during this time period. Most of them are overshadowed by Europeans. To what extent do you think this is a fair criticism? (Most major American artists did travel to Europe to study, and some of them stayed in Europe permanently. Benjamin West was the first to make a name for himself in the world of serious artists. It is no accident that most of the young Americans who wanted a serious career in the field of art traveled to England and spent time with West. He demonstrated a talent and skill level comparable to any artist in Europe during this period.)

7. Assign an essay based on the following prompt:

   Use the works of art and your knowledge of the period to identify various ways that Americans viewed themselves from the end of the seventeenth century to the beginning of the eighteenth century. Discuss how American artists during this early period created a unique identity independent from Europe.

 Name:

Early American Artists

Directions: Use a variety of sources, including the library and the Internet, to complete the following chart. Be prepared to share your information in class discussion.

Topic	Benjamin West	John Trumbull	John Singleton Copley
1. Date and place of birth			
2. Family background, education, and formal training			
3. Major works			
4. Other relevant facts			

 Name:

Topic	Gilbert Stuart	Paul Revere	Thomas Jefferson
1. Date and place of birth			
2. Family background, education, and formal training			
3. Major works			
4. Other relevant facts			

Great Works of Art in Early American History

Directions: Use a variety of sources, including the library and the Internet, to complete the following chart. Be prepared to share your information in class discussion.

Work of Art	Artist/Date	Historical Background	Analysis	View of America
1. *Penn's Treaty with the Indians*				
2. *The Death of General Wolfe*				
3. *Benjamin Franklin Drawing Electricity from the Sky*				

 Name:

Work of Art	Artist/Date	Historical Background	Analysis	View of America
4. *The Boston Massacre*				
5. *The Declaration of Independence*				
6. *Paul Revere*				

Work of Art	Artist/Date	Historical Background	Analysis	View of America
7. *Watson and the Shark*				
8. *George Washington*				
9. Monticello				

Part 2
Colonization to 1754

The arrival of Europeans in North America resulted in profound change, both for the indigenous peoples of the continent and for Europeans. The Europeans discovered a diverse native population whose cultures included hunter-gatherers, complex agriculture, and extensive trade systems. New crops, such as the potato, tobacco, and corn, were introduced to Europe, while Europeans brought domesticated animals such as the horse to the Americas. However, they also brought slavery and diseases, which often decimated native populations.

Colonists from Spain, France, and Great Britain settled in the Americas, extending empires. Internal wars here and wars in Europe resulted in frequent changes in boundaries and possessions. The French and Indian War saw the British triumph as the main European power in eastern North America. By the end of the eighteenth century, British colonies had been established along the Atlantic seaboard. The great distance between the American colonies and the Crown encouraged the development of an independent spirit which, coupled with Britain's practice of salutary neglect, brought about a revolutionary movement.

Lesson 9

Pre-Columbian Societies in North America

Objectives

- To compare and contrast Native American groups before European contact
- To evaluate Native American cultures by examining their development patterns and drawing general conclusions about their condition before European contact

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Thematic Learning Objective: Peopling

PEO-1: Explain how and why people moved within the Americas (before contact) and to and within the Americas (after contact and colonization)

Notes to the Teacher

Historians and archaeologists have developed two theories regarding the origins of indigenous people in the Americas. One group postulates that during the last ice age, Siberian hunters pursuing game crossed a land bridge connecting Asia to North America and gradually spread out throughout the Western Hemisphere. A second group believes that indigenous peoples arrived by boat, followed coastal Alaska, and then continued southward, establishing settlements as they continued expanding. There were probably many migrations along these routes, some as early as 13,000 B.C.E.

Historians often ask if this area before European contact, beyond the influence and knowledge of what was to come, was an idyllic place free from problems such as disease, murder, rape, poverty, and authoritarian governments. Was it a perfect society? Around 2500 B.C.E., new farming practices, trade networks, religion, and governance allowed Native Americans to begin to develop into the more complex societies encountered by the first Europeans. Early historians and writers often compared Native American culture to European culture, and indigenous people often were unfairly described as barbaric or uncivilized and were sometimes exploited for the benefit of Europeans. Today viewpoints about Native American history differ, and an often-asked question is whether we should celebrate the idea that Christopher Columbus discovered America.

In this lesson, students complete a map of Native Americans by region. They research pre-Columbian Native American tribes and present their findings. To conclude, they create thesis statements and write one-page essays.

Procedure

1. Ask students what they think Native American life was like before the Europeans came. Was it idyllic, without disease, strife, and crime? Was it barbaric and uncivilized, without any redeeming qualities? Ask what made the cultures work. Emphasize new farming techniques, trade, and development of complex societies with different forms of governance.
2. Distribute **Handout 14**, and have students complete the exercise. Review responses.

Suggested Responses

Mesoamerican Aztec—cool, dry, mild climate; agriculture-based, tribute economy; adobe and thatched-roof dwellings; system of tribute with emperor

Northeastern Woodlands Iroquois—moist continental climate; agricultural economy; longhouses; Iroquois league

Southeastern Atlantic Cherokee—moist continental climate; agricultural economy; wattle-and-daub dwellings; seven clans; two chiefs for each tribe, a peace chief and a war chief

Plains Sioux (Teton/Lakota)—hot summer, cold winter, dry climate; buffalo- and hunting-based economy; tipi made of poles and buffalo hides; chief and band council

Southwest Pueblo—arid desert; subsistence economy based upon irrigated cultivation; multistory adobe dwellings; theocracy with head priest and town chief

California Pomo—wet winter, dry summer; diverse economy based on hunting, fishing, gathering food; conical coastal dwellings made of redwood bark; head advisers with a council

Great Basin Paiute—semiarid grasslands with cold winters, hot summers; fragile subsistence economy; wikiups or brush shelters; small bands having little political coherence

Plateau Nez Perce—semiarid grasslands with very cold winters and hot summers; use of horses allowed trading and buffalo-hunting economy; tipi dwellings made of hides; villages and bands with headman and council

Northwest Coast Kwakiutl—marine west coast climate with mild damp winters and dry mild summers; salmon fishing–based economy; communal homes made of cedar; hereditary chiefs for tribes

Subarctic Cree—long, very cold winters and short cool summers with low annual precipitation; game–hunting economy; wigwams made of birch bark; led by men who distinguished themselves in war

Arctic Inuit—tundra climate with long, severe winter; arctic game hunting economy; igloos and driftwood covered in sod dwellings; led by oldest (most experienced) male hunters

3. Divide the class into small groups. Distribute **Handout 15**, and assign each group one Native American culture to research. Allow class time for presentations. All students should take notes on each culture.
4. Have the class come to a consensus about what North America must have been like in the years before the Europeans came. (Students may refer to how farming practices, trade networks, religion, and governance transformed indigenous Native Americans into the complex societies encountered by the first Europeans.)
5. Assign students to write one-page essays that describe the Native American population in North America before Columbus. Remind students that essays must include thesis statements. Review responses. (Thesis statements might include the following ideas: Native Americans developed from simple hunter-gatherers into complex political societies with some of the most advanced and sophisticated agricultural systems in the world. They reshaped North America by hunting and by cultivating the indigenous plants, and they created large-scale organized political systems including chiefdoms, cities, confederations, and empires.)

 Name:

Native American Cultural Regions

Directions: Locate the following cultural regions on the map of North America. Use colored pencils or crayons to indicate the different areas. Record basic information about each culture.

Cultural Regions

- Mesoamerican Aztec
- Northeastern Woodlands Iroquois
- Southeastern Atlantic Cherokee
- Plains Sioux (Teton/Lakota)
- Southwest Pueblo
- California Pomo
- Great Basin Paiute
- Plateau Nez Perce
- Northwest Coast Kwakiutl
- Subarctic Cree
- Arctic Inuit

Cultural Elements

- Climate
- Economy
- Dwelling style
- Type of government or tribal organization

Name:

Native American Cultures

Directions: Research one Native American culture. Answer the following questions, and prepare a five- to seven-minute report.

Mesoamerican Aztec
Northeastern Woodlands Iroquois
Southeastern Atlantic Cherokee
Plains Sioux (Teton/Lakota)
Southwest Pueblo
California Pomo
Great Basin Paiute
Plateau Nez Perce
Northwest Coast Kwakiutl
Subarctic Cree
Arctic Inuit

1. Describe or show their original territory. Did they migrate? If so, what factors led them to migrate?

2. Who had power? Who did not? What was required to gain leadership? How were the rules or laws determined? Were there different social classes?

3. Who headed the family unit? Who was in the immediate family? Were there any taboo relationships? Who could marry whom?

4. What cultural differences and practices made them unique?

5. Describe their spiritual beliefs. What makes them unique and different compared to European beliefs? What ceremonies were practiced and why? Who or what did they worship, revere, or find sacred?

6. What was the basis of their economy?

Lesson 10

First Contacts of Europeans and Native Americans

Objective

- To evaluate how contact with Europeans changed both Native Americans and Europeans and how each adjusted to change

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation
Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-4: Explain how conceptions of group identity and autonomy emerged out of cultural interactions between colonizing groups, Africans, and American Indians in the colonial era

Notes to the Teacher

Each European nation that established a major colonial presence in North America interacted with the Native Americans in different ways. The extent of the interactions depended upon the aims of the Europeans, the density of the population of the Native Americans, and the environment.

Encounters between Europeans and Native Americans would eventually lead to what Richard White calls "the middle ground," which was a sphere of accommodation that ultimately broke down because of the unlevel playing field which existed between the cultures.

In this lesson, students identify factors that led to conflict and adjustment between Europeans and Native Americans during the period of first contact in North America. They compare two readings with contrasting views on Europeans and Native Americans. Students study documents related to first contacts and look for factors that led to European dominance in North America. The lesson concludes with a discussion and document-based question.

Procedure

1. Ask students to think of conflicts and problems that might arise when two different cultures meet each other for the first time. Include factors such as the following: language, cultural, and religious differences; fear based on perceived differences; technological weaknesses; uncertainty about the aims of each side. Have students determine factors that led to whites gaining dominance over Native Americans and the consequences. Include disease, violence, trade, religion, technology, cultural assumptions, and concepts of land ownership.

2. Distribute **Handout 16**, and have students read the documents. Ask them what the first selection means. (Europeans would eventually dominate Native Americans.) Have students discuss the assumptions or stereotypes found in each selection. (In Sepúlveda's view, Europeans could do as they pleased because Native Americans were barbarians. In the Native American view, the French criticized Native Americans as uncivilized, yet the French left their presumed Utopia on very dangerous voyages and lusted after what the poor Indians had.)

3. Distribute **Handout 17**, and have students complete part A. Ask them to define *middle ground* (a sphere of accommodation that ultimately broke down because of the uneven playing field between the two cultures).

4. Divide the class into pairs, and have students complete part B of Handout 17. Assign one document to each pair. Have students summarize the documents and identify factors that led to conflicts, adjustments, and dominance by Europeans during the period of first contact.

Suggested Responses

Document 1—This document legitimizes all land claims made by Christian nations on non-Christian lands; factors include religion and cultural assumptions about pagans and uncivilization.

Documents 2 and 3—Europeans brought new crops and domesticated animals, as well as diseases to which the native population had no resistance; the introduction of Christianity did more to transform Native American culture than everything else; factors include diseases and Christianity.

Document 4—Distortions and stereotypes increasingly hardened white attitudes toward Indians; factors include stereotyping and views of Native Americans as enemies to be feared and subdued.

Document 5—Becoming Christian seemed a way to gain the white man's power, knowledge, and prestige; factors include religion and language, and language became a means to change Native American culture.

Document 6—Factors include trade and concepts of land ownership. Overhunting for furs led to a decline in the beaver population and the tension among various Indian tribes eager to trade with the British; the tension led to wars. The cultures had different concepts of land ownership. For Europeans, land was a commodity to be bought and sold. For Indians, land was like the sun, rain, and air: to be enjoyed by all.

5. Have students write short essays in response to the following prompt:

   How did contacts of Europeans and Native Americans change the lives and cultures of both and result in their adjustments to the roles of conqueror and conquered?

Different Points of View: Europeans vs. Native Americans

Directions: Read each of the documents, and be prepared to discuss the following questions: What are some of the cultural differences that caused misunderstanding between the cultures? Why would the Europeans make such assumptions? What attitudes are evident in the second reading?

Document 1

"He Who Is Stupid Will Serve the Wise Man"

The man rules over the woman, the adult over the child, the father over his children. That is to say, the most powerful and most perfect rule over the weakest and most imperfect. This same relationship exists among men, there being some who by nature are masters and others who by nature are slaves. Those who surpass the rest in prudence and intelligence, although not in physical strength, are by nature the masters. On the other hand those who are dim-witted and mentally lazy, although they may be physically strong enough to fulfill all the necessary tasks, are by nature slaves. It is just and useful that it is this way. We even see it sanctioned in divine law itself, for it is written in the Book of Proverbs: "He who is stupid will serve the wise man." And so it is with the barbarous and inhumane people [the Indians] who have no civil life and peaceful customs. It will always be just and in conformity with natural law that such people submit to the rule of more cultured and humane princes and nations. Thanks to the virtues and the practical wisdom of their laws, the latter can destroy barbarism and educate these [inferior] people to a more humane and virtuous life. And if the latter reject such rule, it can be imposed upon them by force of arms. Such a war will be just according to natural law. . . .

Now compare these natural qualities of judgement, talent, magnanimity, temperance, humanity, and religion [of the Spanish] with those of these pitiful men [the Indians], in whom you will scarcely find any vestiges of humanness. These people possess neither science nor even an alphabet, nor do they preserve any monuments of their history except for some obscure and vague reminiscences depicted in certain paintings, nor do they have written laws, but barbarous institutions and customs. In regard to their virtues, how much restraint or gentleness are you to expect of men who are devoted to all kinds of intemperate acts and abominable lewdness, including the eating of human flesh? And you must realize that prior to the arrival of the Christians, they did not live in that peaceful kingdom of Saturn [the Golden Age] that the poets imagine, but on the contrary they made war against one another continually and fiercely, with such fury that victory was of no meaning if they did not satiate their monstrous hunger with the flesh of their enemies. . . . These Indians are so cowardly and timid that they could scarcely resist the mere presence of our soldiers. Many times thousands upon thousands of them scattered, fleeing like women before a very few Spaniards, who amounted to fewer than a hundred. . . .[1]

[1]Juan Ginés de Sepúlveda, *A Second Democritus: On the Just Causes of the War with the Indians,* in *Culture and Belief in Europe, 1450–1600: An Anthology of Sources,* ed. David Englander, et al. (Cambridge, Mass.: Basil Blackwell, Inc., 1990), 321–23.

Document 2

"Your People Live Only Upon Cod": An Algonquian Response to European Claims of Cultural Superiority

I am greatly astonished that the French have so little cleverness. . . . Thou reproachest us, very inappropriately, that our country is a little hell in contrast with France, which thou comparest to a terrestrial paradise, inasmuch as it yields thee, so thou sayest, every kind of provision in abundance. Thou sayest of us also that we are the most miserable and most unhappy of all men, living without religion, without manners, without honour, without social order, and, in a word, without any rules, like the beasts in our woods and our forests, lacking bread, wine, and a thousand other comforts which thou hast in superfluity in Europe. . . . I beg thee now to believe that, all miserable as we seem in thine eyes, we consider ourselves nevertheless much happier than thou in this, that we are very content with the little that we have; and believe also once for all, I pray, that thou deceivest thyself greatly if thou thinkest to persuade us that thy country is better than ours. For if France, as thou sayest, is a little terrestrial paradise, art thou sensible to leave it? And why abandon wives, children, relatives, and friends? Why risk thy life and thy property every year, and why venture thyself with such risk, in any season whatsoever, to the storms and tempests of the sea in order to come to a strange and barbarous country which thou considerest the poorest and least fortunate of the world? Besides, since we are wholly convinced of the contrary, we scarcely take the trouble to go to France, because we fear, with good reason, lest we find little satisfaction there, seeing, in our own experience, that those who are natives thereof leave it every year in order to enrich themselves on our shores. We believe, further, that you are also incomparably poorer than we, and that you are only simple journeymen, valets, servants, and slaves, all masters and grand captains though you may appear, seeing that you glory in our old rags and in our miserable suits of beaver which can no longer be of use to us, and that you find among us, in the fishery for cod which you make in these parts, the wherewithal to comfort your misery and the poverty which oppresses you. As to us, we find all our riches and all our conveniences among ourselves, without trouble and without exposing our lives to the dangers in which you find yourselves constantly through your long voyages. . . . Now tell me this one little thing, if thou hast any sense: Which of these two is the wisest and happiest—he who labours without ceasing and only obtains, and that with great trouble, enough to live on, or he who rests in comfort and finds all that he needs in the pleasure of hunting and fishing? It is true that we have not always had the use of bread and of wine which your France produces; but, in fact, before the arrival of the French in these parts, did not the Gaspesians live much longer than now? And if we have not any longer among us any of those old men of a hundred and thirty to forty years, it is only because we are gradually adopting your manner of living, for experience is making it very plain that those of us live longest who, despising your bread, your wine, and your brandy, are content with their natural food of beaver, of moose, of waterfowl, and fish, in accord with the custom of our ancestors and of all the Gaspesian nation. Learn now, my brother, once for all, because I must open to thee my heart: there is no Indian who does not consider himself infinitely more happy and more powerful than the French.[2]

[2]William F. Ganong, trans. and ed., *New Relation of Gaspesia: With the Customs and Religion of the Gaspesian Indians* by Father Chrestien Le Clercq (Toronto: The Champlain Society, 1910), 103–6.

Native Americans and Europeans: Responding to a Document-Based Question

Part A.

Directions: Read the document, and determine what Richard White meant by the "middle ground."

The Middle Ground

. . . The middle ground is the place in between: in between cultures, peoples, and in between empires and the nonstate world of villages. It is a place where many of the North American subjects and allies of empires lived. It is the area between the historical foreground of European invasion and occupation and the background of Indian defeat and retreat.

On the middle ground diverse peoples adjust their differences through what amounts to a process of creative, and often expedient, misunderstandings. People try to persuade others who are different from themselves by appealing to what they perceive to be the values and practices of those others. They often misinterpret and distort both the values and the practices of those they deal with. . . .

The real crisis and the final dissolution of this [North American] world came when Indians ceased to have the power to force whites onto the middle ground. Then the desires of whites to dictate the terms of accommodation could be given its head. As a consequence, the middle ground eroded.[1]

Part B.

Directions: Consider Richard White's description of the middle ground and the factors that led to European domination over Native Americans. Then examine the following documents and identify elements that led to whites gaining the upper hand. Be prepared to discuss the following question: What were the consequences of European domination in the Americas?

Document 1

Nicholas V, Papal Bull: *Romanus Pontifex* (1455)

. . . [S]ince we [Pope Nicholas V] had for
merly by other letters of ours granted among other things free and ample faculty to the aforesaid King Alfonso— to invade, search out, capture, vanquish, and subdue all Saracens and pagans whatsoever, and other enemies of Christ wheresoever placed, and the kingdoms, dukedoms, principalities, dominions, possessions, and all movable and immovable goods whatsoever held and possessed by them and to reduce their persons to perpetual slavery, and to apply and appropriate to himself and his successors the kingdoms, dukedoms, counties, principalities, dominions, possessions, and goods, and to convert them to his and their use and profit—by having secured the said faculty, the said King Alfonso, or, by his authority, the aforesaid infante, justly and lawfully has acquired and possessed, and doth possess, these islands, lands, harbors, and seas, and they do of right belong and pertain to the said King Alfonso and his successors, nor without special license from King Alfonso and his successors themselves has any other even of the faithful of Christ been entitled hitherto, nor is he by any means now entitled lawfully to meddle therewith. . . .[2]

[1]Richard White, *The Middle Ground: Indians, Empires, and Republics in the Great Lakes Region, 1650–1815* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991), x, xv.

[2]"The Bull *Romanus Pontifex* (Nicholas V), January 8, 1455," in *European Treaties Bearing on the History of the United States and Its Dependencies to 1648*, ed. Frances Gardiner Davenport (Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1917), 23.

Document 2

Disease Strikes the Native Population

Fig. 10.1.

Fig. 10.1. Illustration from the Franciscan missionary Bernardino de Sahagun's sixteenth-century treatise *General History of the Things of New Spain.* The Granger Collection, New York.

Document 3

John Lawson, *A New Voyage to Carolina* (1709)

These *Indians* are a small People, having lost much of their former Numbers, by intestine Broils; but most by the Small-pox, which hath often visited them, sweeping away whole Towns; occasion'd by the immoderate Government of themselves in their Sickness; as I have mention'd before, treating of the *Sewees*. Neither do I know any Savages that have traded with the *English*, but what have been great Losers by this Distemper . . .

. . . [I]t destroy'd whole Towns, without leaving one *Indian* alive in the Village. . . . The Small-Pox and Rum have made such a Destruction amongst them, that, on good grounds, I do believe, there is not the sixth Savage living within two hundred Miles of all our Settlements, as there were fifty Years ago. These poor Creatures have so many Enemies to destroy them, that it's a wonder one of them is left alive near us.[3]

Document 4

Bloody Brook Massacre, Deerfield, Massachusetts

We now turn one of the darkest pages in the history of our town. Early in the morning of Sept. 18, 1675—a day memorable in our annals—"that most fatal day, the saddest that ever befel New England," Capt. Lothrop, "with his choice company of young men, the very flower of the County of Essex," followed by a slowly moving train of carts, marched proudly down the old Town Street, two miles across South Meadows, up Bars Long Hill, to the heavily wooded plain stretching away to Hatfield meadows. The carts were loaded with bags of wheat, upon which were a few feather beds and some light household stuff. . . . Southward along the narrow Pocumtuck Path, through the primeval woods, moved Lothrop and his men—brave, fearless, foolish. Confident in their numbers, scorning danger, not even a van-guard or flanker was thrown out.

Meanwhile the whole hostile force was lying like serpents in the way; but unlike the more chivalric of these reptiles, their fangs will be felt before a warning is given. The probable leaders were Mattamuck, Sagamore Sam, Matoonas and One Eyed John, of the Nipmucks; Anawan, Penchason, and Tatason, of the Wampanoags, and Sangumachu of the remnant of the Pocumtucks. . . .

. . . The critical moment had come. The fierce war-whoop rang in the ears of the astonished English. . . . The men of Pocumtuck sank, the Flower of Essex withered before it, and the nameless stream was baptized in blood. . . .

. . . Mather says, "This was a black and fatal day, wherein there was eight persons made widows, and six and twenty children made orphans, all in one little Plantation." . . .

Of seventeen men of Pocumtuck who went out in the morning as teamsters, not one returned to tell the tale.[4]

[3]John Lawson, *A New Voyage to Carolina*, ed. Hugh Talmage Lefler (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1967), 34, 232.
[4]George Sheldon, "Bloody Brook Massacre," in *A History of Deerfield, Massachusetts,* vol. 1 (Greenfield, Mass.: E. A. Hall and Co., 1895), 100–103.

Document 5

The Lord's Prayer in Micmac Hieroglyphics

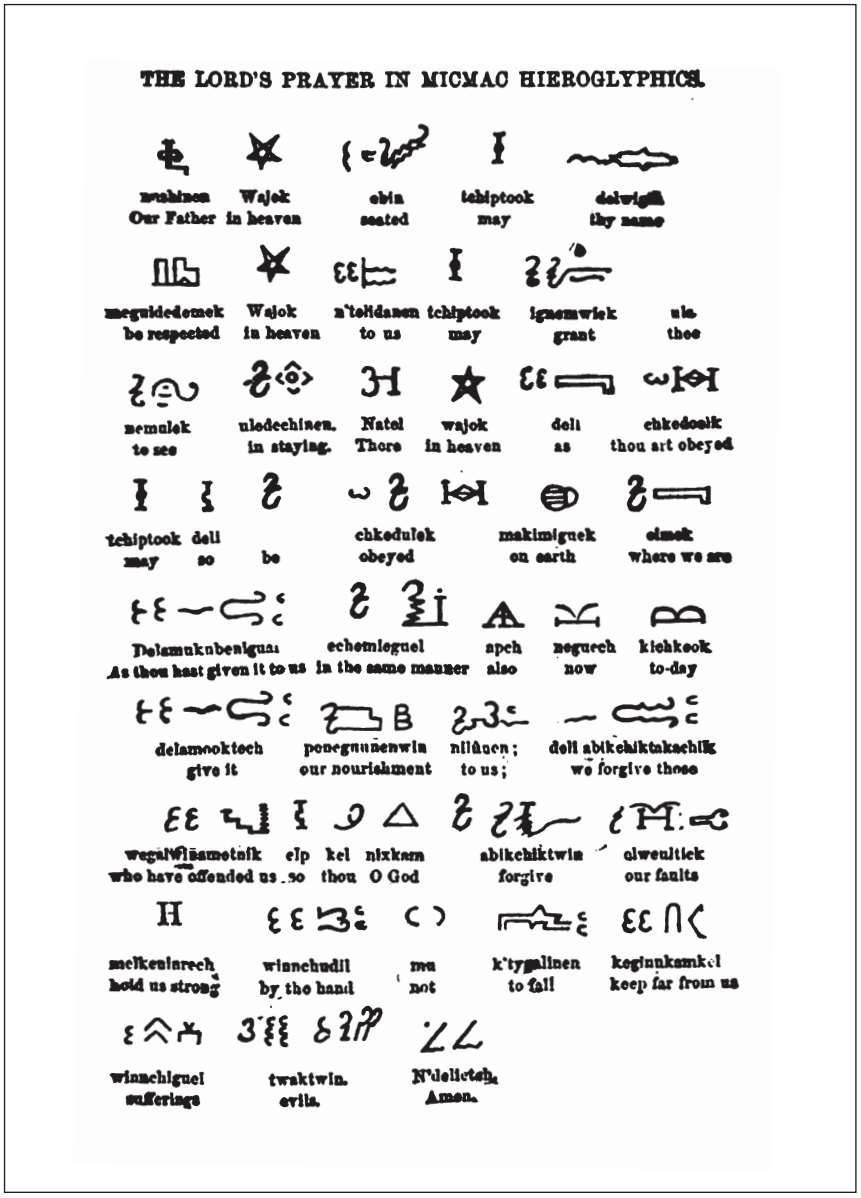


Fig. 10.2.

Fig. 10.2. The Lord's Prayer in Micmac Hieroglyphics. From *First Establishment of the Faith in New France* by Father Chrestien Le Clercq, trans. John Shea (New York: John G. Shea, 1881), opposite 16.

Document 6

French Fur Trade in the Colony and the Problem of the Iroquois

So long as all the young men devote themselves to no other occupation than That of Coming here for Beaver, There can be no hope that the Colony will Ever become flourishing; it will always be poor, for it will always lose thereby What would most enrich it,—I mean the labor of all the young men. Such, Monseigneur, is what I consider the most important step for the Temporal and spiritual welfare of the Colony, and what should, in Conscience, be most strongly represented to his majesty, by making him thoroughly Understand its necessity,—so that he may give orders to seek for and to find every possible means of restoring the Trade with the savages, and of establishing it at montreal, so as to keep all the young men in the country, and accustom them to work from early youth. To This end, The Iroquois must be completely tamed and reduced to subjection; and we must take possession of his country, which is much better than Those of all the nations up here. He is the only Enemy whom we have to Dread, or who disputes with us the Trade of the savages, which he tries to attract to the english. What reason was there for not consenting to destroy him in the war that we had undertaken to wage Against him? Why was he Spared? What would we lose by destroying him, now that his nation is so small in numbers? His destruction and the possession of his country would secure for us the Trade of all the savage nations up here. Nothing would remain to be done but to settle the boundaries of our Commerce and of That of the misissipy, so that one might not clash with the other. The Iroquois has been Spared in the present war solely on account of the trade of Catarakouy; and the trade of Cataracouy was only for Those who Preserved That fort and That enemy. Whence comes the Iroquois's Beaver but from the country up here, which he usurps from our savages, to whom all The Beavers belong? Should we lose the Iroquois's Beavers by his destruction? Would they not revert to our savages, and from them to the Colony?[5]

[5]"Letter by Reverend Father Étienne de Carheil to Monsieur Louis Hector de Callières, Governor [on Conditions in the Upper Lakes in 1702]," in *The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents: Travels and Explorations of the Jesuit Missionaries in New France, 1610–1791*, vol. 65, 1696–1702, ed. Reuben Gold Thwaites (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co., 1900), 223, 225.

Lesson 11

The Columbian Exchange

Objectives

- To understand the meaning of the phrase "the Columbian Exchange"
- To identify short-term and long-term effects of the exchange

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Thematic Learning Objective: Environment and Geography—Physical and Human

ENV-1: Explain how the introduction of new plants, animals, and technologies altered the natural environment of North America and affected interactions among various groups in the colonial period

Notes to the Teacher

Some historians have argued that the most powerful weapons of Europeans in the New World were not guns but biological change, including germs, plants, and animals. When Christopher Columbus landed in the Bahamas in 1492, two separate worlds collided; animals, plants, and bacterial life came with him, and the results dramatically transformed the world.

The collision had both short-term and long-term consequences. European settlers cleared forests for settlement and farming, and European weeds changed the environment. Horses reshaped the Plains Indian cultures and made them adept hunters of the vast bison herds. Diseases like smallpox, measles, chicken pox, and typhus were introduced into populations which had no natural defenses. The loss of up to 95 percent of the population in some regions opened up the New World for further exploitation by European settlers. In the absence of native labor, slaves from Africa were introduced to work the fields.

In this lesson, students examine the impact of the Columbian Exchange. They examine a document for class discussion and conclude with a what-if exercise in order to speculate on an alternative history.

Procedure

1. Distribute **Handout 18**, and have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to complete the exercise.

2. Ask students to describe the Columbian Exchange and its significance. Emphasize that the exchange of plants, animals, bacteria, diseases, and ideas transformed the world, for better or worse.

3. Divide the class into small groups of three to four students, and distribute **Handout 19**. Have students read the selection and complete the exercise.

Suggested Responses

> *Animals*—Short term, European importation of livestock, especially horses, impacted the Plains Indian cultures. Long term, a new hunter/warrior culture was created.
>
> *Agriculture*—Both short-term and long-term, new foods became staples of diets and sometimes led to population increases. Long term, the potato blight and famine in Ireland led to the migration of millions to the United States.
>
> *Diseases*—Short term, epidemics led to a decrease in native populations (in some regions, up to 95 percent). Long term, the depleted indigenous populations led to the use of African slaves as a source of labor. It also opened up territory for rapid expansion of settlement.

4. For a concluding exercise, ask students to imagine a what-if scenario.

   What if the Columbian Exchange began three hundred years later, in 1792? Would the worldwide impact and results have been different? Would there be a United States of America? How would the world be different today?

   Direct students to write short essays explaining their ideas. If necessary, prompt thought with these questions:

   - After three centuries, would Native Americans have had better technology and been better equipped to defend themselves?
   - What if Chinese explorers discovered and settled in the New World?
   - Without the United States as it is today, how would the world be different?

Name:

The Columbian Exchange

Directions: Create a large world map, and label the continents. Then indicate the origins of the livestock, agricultural products, and diseases listed below. Use arrows to show how they became part of the Columbian Exchange.

Animals

- cattle
- chickens
- goats
- guinea pigs
- horses
- llamas
- pigs
- sheep
- turkeys

Agriculture

- avocados
- bananas
- blueberries
- cabbages
- cacao (chocolate)
- chili peppers
- citrus fruits
- coconuts
- coffee
- eggplants
- maize (corn)
- oats
- okra
- olives
- onions
- peanuts
- pepper
- pineapples
- plantains
- potatoes
- rice
- sorghum
- soybeans
- spices
- squash
- sugar cane
- tea
- tobacco
- vanilla
- wheat
- yams

Diseases

- chicken pox
- malaria
- measles
- mumps
- smallpox
- syphilis
- typhus
- yellow fever

 Name:

Effects of the Columbian Exchange

Directions: Read the selection. Then list the short-term and long-term effects of the Columbian Exchange.

From "The Columbian Exchange"

When Europeans first touched the shores of the Americas, Old World crops such as wheat, barley, rice, and turnips had not traveled west across the Atlantic, and New World crops such as maize, white potatoes, sweet potatoes, and manioc had not traveled east to Europe. In the Americas, there were no horses, cattle, sheep, or goats, all animals of Old World origin. Except for the llama, alpaca, dog, a few fowl, and guinea pig, the New World had no equivalents to the domesticated animals associated with the Old World, nor did it have the pathogens associated with the Old World's dense populations of humans and such associated creatures as chickens, cattle, black rats, and *Aedes egypti* mosquitoes. Among these germs were those that carried smallpox, measles, chickenpox, influenza, malaria, and yellow fever. . . .

As might be expected, the Europeans who settled on the east coast of the United States cultivated crops like wheat and apples, which they had brought with them. European weeds, which the colonists did not cultivate, and, in fact, preferred to uproot, also fared well in the New World. John Josselyn, an Englishman and amateur naturalist who visited New England twice in the seventeenth century, left us a list, "Of Such Plants as Have Sprung Up since the English Planted and Kept Cattle in New England," which included couch grass, dandelion, shepherd's purse, groundsel, sow thistle, and chickweeds. One of these, a plantain (Plantago major), was named "Englishman's Foot" by the Amerindians of New England and Virginia who believed that it would grow only where the English "have trodden, and was never known before the English came into this country." Thus, as they intentionally sowed Old World crop seeds, the European settlers were unintentionally contaminating American fields with weed seed. More importantly, they were stripping and burning forests, exposing the native minor flora to direct sunlight, and the hooves and teeth of Old World livestock. The native flora could not tolerate the stress. The imported weeds could, because they had lived with large numbers of grazing animals for thousands of years.

Cattle and horses were brought ashore in the early 1600s and found hospitable climate and terrain in North America. Horses arrived in Virginia as early as 1620 and in Massachusetts in 1629. Many wandered free with little more evidence of their connection to humanity than collars with a hook at the bottom to catch on fences as they tried to leap over them to get at crops. Fences were not for keeping livestock in, but for keeping livestock out.

Native American resistance to the Europeans was ineffective. Indigenous peoples suffered from white brutality, alcoholism, the killing and driving off of game, and the expropriation of farmland, but all these together are insufficient to explain the degree of their defeat. The crucial factor was not people, plants, or animals, but germs. The history of the United States begins with Virginia and Massachusetts, and their histories begin with epidemics of unidentified diseases. . . . When the Pilgrims settled at Plymouth, Massachusetts in 1620, they did so in a village and on a coast nearly cleared of Amerindians by a recent epidemic. . . .

Smallpox was the worst and the most spectacular of the infectious diseases mowing down the Native Americans. The first recorded pandemic of that disease in British North America detonated among the Algonquin of Massachusetts in the early 1630s: William Bradford of Plymouth Plantation wrote that the victims "fell down so generally of this disease as they were in the end not able to help one another, no not to make a fire nor fetch a little water to drink, nor any to bury the dead."

Name:

The missionaries and the traders who ventured into the American interior told the same appalling story about smallpox and the indigenes. In 1738 alone the epidemic destroyed half the Cherokee; in 1759 nearly half the Catawbas; in the first years of the next century two-thirds of the Omahas and perhaps half the entire population between the Missouri River and New Mexico; in 1837–38 nearly every last one of the Mandans and perhaps half the people of the high plains. . . .

The New World's great contribution to the Old is in crop plants. Maize, white potatoes, sweet potatoes, various squashes, chiles, and manioc have become essentials in the diets of hundreds of millions of Europeans, Africans, and Asians. Their influence on Old World peoples, like that of wheat and rice on New World peoples, goes far to explain the global population explosion of the past three centuries. The Columbian Exchange has been an indispensable factor in that demographic explosion.

All this had nothing to do with superiority or inferiority of biosystems in any absolute sense. It has to do with environmental contrasts. Amerindians were accustomed to living in one particular kind of environment, Europeans and Africans in another. When the Old World peoples came to America, they brought with them all their plants, animals, and germs, creating a kind of environment to which they were already adapted, and so they increased in number. Amerindians had not adapted to European germs, and so initially their numbers plunged. That decline has reversed in our time as Amerindian populations have adapted to the Old World's environmental influence, but the demographic triumph of the invaders, which was the most spectacular feature of the Old World's invasion of the New, still stands.[1]

[1]Alfred Crosby, "The Columbian Exchange," *History Now*, June 2007, <http://www.historynow.org/06_2007/historian2.html> (31 August 2010).

Lesson 12

The Spanish Empire in North America

Objectives

- To identify the phases of development of the Spanish Empire in North America
- To analyze the range of interactions between the Spanish colonists and explorers and the indigenous population

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Work, Exchange, and Technology

WXT-1: Explain how patterns of exchanging commodities, peoples, diseases, and ideas around the Atlantic World developed after European contact and shaped North American colonial-era societies

Notes to the Teacher

Although the Spanish Empire spanned half the globe, from the Caribbean to the Philippines, the emphasis in this lesson is on New Spain, the geographical area that became Mexico and the southwestern United States. The Columbus quincentenary in 1992 was marked by a dramatic shift in an assessment of the man who claimed the New World for Spain; new research and greater awareness turned attention from the achievement of the discoverer to the impact of his journeys on the indigenous peoples of the Western Hemisphere.

This lesson reviews the important discoverers and conquistadors in the early decades of Spanish colonialism and asks students to evaluate their success or failure. Students then analyze the nature of Spanish settlement in the years after the first gold rush had waned. Students learn terms borrowed from sociology and apply them to various stages of the Spanish conquest.

Procedure

1. Distribute **Handout 20**, and have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to complete the exercise. (Note: This could be a homework assignment prior to the lesson.)
2. Ask students why the years 1492 and 1620 are famous in U.S. history (first voyage of Christopher Columbus and founding of Plymouth Colony).

3. Ask students to guess which of the following events occurred in the New World during the 128 years between Columbus's voyage and the founding of Plymouth:
   - first hospital
   - first printing press in North America
   - founding of first university in North America
   - first medical school
   - first diplomatic trade mission from Japan to North America

   Reveal that all of these events occurred within that time period. Immaculate Conception Hospital was built in 1524 in Mexico City; in 1555, a law was passed ordering establishment of a hospital in conjunction with every mission and parish church. The first printing press was launched in 1549. The University of Mexico began in 1551, as did the first medical school. The first Japan–New Spain diplomatic mission was in 1610; later (1613–20), Japanese samurai Hasekura Rokuemon Tsunenaga traveled across New Spain and on to Europe, including a visit to the Vatican.

4. Ask students to hypothesize why the Spanish colonies were so much further ahead of the British and French colonies in the New World. (Ideas might include the early voyages of Columbus, internal dissension in Britain and France, the larger Spanish fleet of ships, the geographical position of Spain, and the early discovery of Aztec and Inca gold and silver.)

5. Use student answers to **Handout 20** and any available maps to conduct a brief review of the early history of Spanish exploration.

   Suggested Responses

   1. Christopher Columbus (1492–1502) discovered the Bahamas, Cuba, Hispaniola, and the north coast of South America; he was successful in discovering new lands for Spain but unsuccessful at finding a route to the Indies.
   2. Juan Ponce de León (1513–21) landed in Florida in 1513; he was unsuccessful and was killed there in 1521.
   3. Pánfilo de Narvaez (1511, 1527) helped conquer Cuba and led an expedition to Florida; the latter was disastrous since, of three hundred men in the expedition, only four survived.
   4. Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca (1527–36) landed in Florida with Narvaez and traveled by raft and foot back to Mexico; he was successful in surviving and writing about his experience.
   5. Esteban (Estevanico) (1527–39) traveled with Narvaez and survived, then explored the area that would become New Mexico and Arizona; he was killed by Zuñi Indians.

6. Hernando de Soto (1539–42) landed in Florida, then roamed southeast to the Mississippi River and eastern Oklahoma; he returned to the Mississippi River and died there in 1542.
7. Francisco Vasquez de Coronado (1540–42) explored New Mexico, Arizona, the Grand Canyon, Texas, and Kansas; he was unsuccessful in the quest to find the Seven Cities of Cíbola.
8. Hernán Cortés (1519–26) conquered Mexico and later Honduras; he was very successful in claiming power and gaining wealth and recognition.
9. Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo (1519–43) fought in army of Cortés, became leading citizen of Guatemala, and led a successful expedition up the coast of California, but he died after a skirmish with local Indians.

6. Point out that the earliest period (1492–1520) could be described as the Age of Discovery. Explain to students that it was followed by two additional stages of Spanish colonialism in North America. These could be called the Age of Conquest (1520s–40s) and the Age of Settlement (from the 1570s on).

7. Use the following questions as the basis for class discussion.

   - What difficulties faced the early Spanish discoverers and conquistadors? (They had little help from the government; they had to equip and finance expeditions on their own; they were often killed in shipwrecks or natural disasters; they sometimes encountered hostile native people.)
   - Why did they persist? (They were sustained by dreams of gold. In three centuries, Spanish mines in the New World produced ten times as much as the rest of the world. Spain became both wealthy and powerful.)
   - What kind of men would take such a risk? (courageous, physically strong, capable of leadership, ambitious, desperate)
   - How did the Spanish treat the indigenous people? (The treatment of local cultures was brutal. The Spanish destroyed cities, temples, records, and documents; they killed off leaders such as priests and warriors. By the 1540s, the Indians were effectively subjugated.)

8. Divide students into six groups to explore the Spanish colonies with respect to these topics: intellectual life, religion, political organization, social structure, the economy, and military issues. Distribute **Handout 21**, and have groups answer the questions for their section. Allow students time for research using textbooks and/or the Internet. Ask each group to prepare an oral report on the topic assigned.

9. Reassemble as a class, and have groups present reports. Fill in information as necessary.

Suggested Responses

Intellectual Life

1. Spain introduced the alphabet, but literacy remained chiefly with the upper classes. Early schools for Indians to learn Spanish eventually closed as the language became more common. The Catholic Church controlled schools. Indigenous adults were trained in European methods of carpentry, ironwork, dyeing, weaving, and ceramics. Navajo weaving is actually a skill taught by Spaniards.
2. Early books include Cabeza de Vaca, *Adventures in the Unknown Interior of America*; Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz, *Poems*; Bernal Díaz del Castillo, *The True History of the Conquest of New Spain*; and Bartolomé de las Casas, *Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies*.
3. In 1551, Carlos I established the Royal and Pontifical University of Mexico; the University of Saint Thomas Aquinas was established formally in Santo Domingo in 1558, with faculties in law, medicine, theology, and the arts.
4. There was a major effort to wipe out indigenous ideas and books as heretical; *Popul Vuh* was the only major work to survive.

Religion

1. The Catholic Church was the established church of Spain and all its colonies, and the Spanish kings saw themselves as responsible for spreading the Catholic faith. Priests accompanied all expeditions. In the early years, the Spanish even used torture to increase conversions.
2. Catholic missions as religious and educational centers developed into settlements; some major cities that began as missions are San Francisco, San Jose, San Diego, Los Angeles, and Santa Barbara in California, Santa Fe in New Mexico, and San Antonio in Texas.
3. The Church tried to stamp out all native religious practices but experienced resistance, most notably in the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. Eventually, restrictions were eased, and some native traditions eventually became incorporated into local Catholic belief.
4. As settlement proceeded, the Church tried to protect the natives. Father Bartolomé de las Casas, after years spent as a missionary, traveled back to Spain to press for protection of Indians in Spanish colonies.

Political Organization

1. At first, individual conquistadors were granted licenses (*encomiendas*), which gave rights to all the labor in a given territory; this was effectively a land grant. In exchange for educating the Indians in Spanish and Catholicism, the recipient could demand labor, gold, or produce as tribute. In 1573, a Spanish law promulgated by Philip II (Royal Orders for New Discoveries) prohibited the worst military cruelty and made it illegal to attack Indians or enslave them; instead, all were to be missionized and converted.
2. The Spanish government took over by 1600. The Council of the Indies, located in Seville, was responsible for the colonies, which were divided into vice-royalties of New Spain, Peru, and New Granada, each with a royal governor called a viceroy. There were additional administrative divisions known as *audiencias* and, in areas where there was risk of Indian attack, Captaincies General under military officials.
3. Local officials had freedom in their decisions because of the difficulty of communication with Spain. (Shipping was tightly regulated, and ships could go only into one Spanish port and a few colonial ports. Only two convoys a year traveled between Spain and the colonies.) Bribery and extortion were common. Spanish colonists did not have the opportunity for self-government that developed in the British colonies.

Social Structure

1. European men outnumbered women by at least ten to one in the Spanish colonies, so intermarriage with Indians was frequent, partially because of the native custom of cementing alliances with marriages. A large mestizo (mixed-race) population developed.
2. A social hierarchy developed by 1700. At the top was the smallest group, the *peninsulares*. These were Europeans born in Spain and sent to New Spain as government and church officials. The second group, the *criollos*, were of Spanish descent but had been born in the New World. The English word *Creole* comes from this term. The third group, *mestizos*, were usually the children of a Spanish father and an Indian mother. A fourth group was composed of indigenous people, called *indios* by the Spanish. This group included Nahuatl (Aztec), Huichol, Yucatec Maya, and many others. There were also an unknown number of African slaves, perhaps as many as 200,000. Slavery was abolished in Mexico in 1829, but a number became free before that time.

Economy

1. During the Age of Discovery and the Age of Conquest, the primary motivation of many of the Spanish explorers was the discovery of precious metals. Cortés's conquest of Mexico and acquisition of the riches of Tenochtitlán inspired many followers. Indian slaves were forced into the mines to extract gold. Previously existing gold and silver artifacts were melted down into ingots and shipped to Spain; English privateers were a particular threat to Spanish shipping during this period.
2. After the first decades, what was known as gold fever gave way to an agricultural and pastoral economy. Early economic efforts were stifled by mercantilist monopolies on salt, gunpowder, tobacco, and other products; the Spanish government also restricted production of goods that would compete with the economies of Spain itself.
3. Eventually, cattle and sheep ranches flourished, and fertile areas were planted with citrus crops, wheat, and sugar cane. Two indigenous products yielded great profit: cochineal and indigo dyes and cacao for chocolate.

Military Issues

1. The chief disadvantage faced by the conquistadors and later Spanish arrivals was that they were outnumbered by the indigenous population. Their great advantages were technological: they used gunpowder in both muskets and cannons, they wore body armor, and they rode horses. As a result of these technologies, plus their ability to exploit rivalries between indigenous groups, the Spaniards were able to overcome their numerical disadvantage.
2. Military forces were often assigned to forts, known as *presidios*, located near the Catholic missions. As settlement progressed, an area considered to be at risk from hostile Indians was often organized as a Captaincy General, with a military commander in charge.

10. Conclude by drawing a continuum on the board and writing the following terms above it: *annihilation*, *accommodation*, *acculturation*, *assimilation*. Ask students to define each term.

Suggested Responses

annihilation—total defeat or destruction of one group by another

accommodation—agreement between rival groups that permits limited cooperation

acculturation—intercultural contacts leading to changes in the original culture of one or both groups

assimilation—blending of two distinct cultural groups into one with similar interests and outlooks

Have students apply the terms to the interaction of cultural groups in New Spain.

 Name:

Spanish Exploration and Conquest

Directions: Complete the chart with factual information, and assess the success or failure of each explorer.

Explorer	Dates of Exploration(s)	Geographical Area(s) Explored	Success or Failure?
Age of Discovery			
1. Christopher Columbus			
2. Juan Ponce de Leon			
Age of Conquest			
3. Pánfilo de Narvaez			
4. Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca			

 Name:

Explorer	Dates of Exploration(s)	Geographical Area(s) Explored	Success or Failure?
5. Esteban (Estevanico)			
6. Hernando de Soto			
7. Francisco Vasquez de Coronado			
8. Hernán Cortés			
9. Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo			

Life in the Spanish Settlements

Directions: Research the history of the Spanish colonies in North America with respect to one or more of the following topics. The questions can guide your research but need not limit it.

Intellectual Life

1. Who could attend school? What did students study? Who controlled the schools?
2. What important books were written during this period?
3. Were there any institutions of higher learning?
4. What happened to indigenous intellectual traditions?

Religion

1. What role did the Catholic Church play in the Spanish colonies?
2. Where were the missions located?
3. What was the relationship between the Catholic Church and the Indians?
4. What happened to the indigenous religions after the Spanish conquest?

Political Organization

1. What was the *encomienda*? Was this a good method of government in the early Spanish colonies?
2. What was the effect of the Royal Orders for New Discoveries?
3. How did the Spanish government organize the colonies after 1600? What government officials were responsible for administering the colonies?

Social Structure

1. Why did European men intermarry with indigenous women in the colony of New Spain more frequently than in other European colonies?
2. What social classes developed in New Spain? What was the hierarchy of these classes?

The Economy

1. Analyze the economic motives that drove the conquistadors.
2. What is mercantilism? How did it affect the economy of New Spain?
3. What crops eventually proved profitable for New Spain?

Military Issues

1. What military advantages and disadvantages did the Spanish conquistadors face with respect to the indigenous peoples of New Spain? How did they overcome the disadvantages?
2. What role did the military play in the Age of Settlement?

Lesson 13

The French Empire in North America

Objectives

- To understand the extent and nature of the French Empire in North America
- To analyze a typical Advanced Placement exam question and prepare a response to it

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-4: Explain how conceptions of group identity and autonomy emerged out of cultural interactions between colonizing groups, Africans, and American Indians in the colonial era

Notes to the Teacher

French imperialism was driven by many factors; a significant one was the desire for furs for fashionable coats, muffs, and particularly hats. Hats in the sixteenth through nineteenth centuries were symbols of status, ways of demonstrating wealth. The best quality hats were made of beaver felt, using an intricate process of treating the fur with chemicals, combing, carding, and felting the fur, then shaping the felt over a block, dyeing, stiffening, and lining the hat. It is a small wonder that a typical army hat could cost more than a week's pay for an army captain. Hatters used nitrate of mercury and inhaled enough mercury vapor in the process that they sometimes lost the ability to think or speak clearly—hence the phrase "mad as a hatter." More information about this process, as well as about colonization by the French, can be found on a variety of Web sites.

Marvin Mikesell, a historical geographer, describes the Spanish and French colonies as "frontiers of inclusion" in which indigenous people became part of the settlement through intermarriage or assimilation. He sees the British North American colonies as "frontiers of exclusion" in which the indigenous population was marginalized or eradicated. This terminology will be useful in future study of colonization and expansion.

In preparation for this lesson, it is helpful to have students survey their closets at home and list the countries of origin for their clothing and shoes. Note that procedures 12 and 15 refer to a test question and scoring

guidelines from the 2008 AP U.S. history exam; copies of these items are available from the College Board at its AP Central Web site.

In this lesson, students complete a warm-up exercise that makes them aware that globalization is not only a modern concept. They review French exploration by plotting routes on a map, and they discuss the nature of the French colonial empire. Then, after reading and discussing tips for handling essays on the AP exam, students analyze a real question from an AP U.S. history exam, plan a response, and write a thesis statement.

Procedure

1. Ask students where the clothes in their closets come from; list answers on the board. Ask them why we purchase clothing from all over the world, and introduce the term *economic globalization*. Point out that a form of globalization was occurring in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries as European explorers added colonies, in part because some resources were no longer available in Europe.

2. Distribute **Handout 22**. Point out the illustrations of hats in part A, and ask students if any look familiar. (They may identify hats as the kind worn by George Washington, Napoleon, a drum major, and Abraham Lincoln.) Give them a few minutes to form hypotheses. Then share information about the hats from Notes to the Teacher.

3. Explain that by the seventeenth century, fur-bearing animals from Scandinavia and Russia were almost trapped out, and the discovery of North America presented a new and valuable resource. In contrast to the Spanish, who were seeking gold, the French desire for fur necessitated a different approach to the indigenous population.

4. Have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to complete part B of the handout.

Suggested Responses

1. Verrazano sailed from the Carolinas to Nova Scotia and entered New York Harbor. (The Verrazano-Narrows Bridge between Brooklyn and Staten Island is named for him.)
2. Cartier explored the coastline in three voyages, seeking a Northwest Passage to Asia and finding instead the St. Lawrence River.
3. Champlain helped establish Port Royal in Nova Scotia, then established Quebec.
4. Joliet and Marquette explored the upper Mississippi River.
5. La Salle traveled the full length of the Mississippi River.
6. Iberville established forts at Biloxi and Mobile and eventually founded the city of New Orleans.

5. Discuss the size of the French territorial claim in North America (both the St. Lawrence River valley and the full watershed of the Mississippi River). Point out that the most significant rivals of the French in this area were the Dutch and the English.

6. Ask students to summarize what they remember about the nature of the relationship between the Spanish and Indians in the American Southwest. (Indians were attacked, and many survivors were enslaved for work in mines; all Indians were forced to adopt Christianity; Indians were taught to speak Spanish and to use European methods of agriculture, carpentry, and other skills as workers in missions and on ranches and plantations.)

7. Ask students this question: How did the French relationship with the indigenous people differ from that of the Spanish? (The French formed more of an alliance, with French traders living among Indians, often adopting their way of life and learning their languages; missionaries converted many, but Indians were not forced to convert, nor were they forced to adopt European ways.)

8. Ask students to brainstorm and record ways that the French relationship to indigenous people was like and unlike that of the Spanish.

Suggested Responses

- As with the Spanish, there were frequent marriages and/or cohabitations with Indian wives.
- "Politiques" in the French government were more interested in a strong nation and empire than they were in religious issues.
- Acquisition of furs was decentralized, unlike mining, and locations shifted, unlike farming.
- There was a small number of French colonists relative to powerful Indian populations.
- Well-educated French Jesuits saw Christianity as a supplement to the Indian way of life; the Spanish were more extreme.
- The French were willing to fight with Huron allies against Iroquois enemies.
- The French were willing to trade guns in exchange for furs.

9. Point out that, in addition to fur trading, French colonists also farmed. Ask students how the organization of French agriculture in Canada differed from the haciendas of the Spanish colonies. (French farmers, called *habitants*, often came over as tenants for large landowners rather than as individual landowners; they often preferred the freedom of life as fur traders. Many also returned to their own villages in France. Spanish landowners received *encomiendas*, which entitled them to native labor. Spanish colonies used indigenous people as farm laborers; the French did not. The French raised wheat on a large scale; the Spanish tended to raise cattle and sheep in addition to some specialized crops.)

10. If you have not already done so, explain to students the format of the AP U.S. history exam: a series of fifty-five multiple-choice questions, followed by six writing tasks: a document-based question, four short-answer questions, and a long essay question. Explain that students will discuss strategies for answering a non-document-based essay question.

11. Distribute **Handout 23**. Read through the handout to be sure that students understand the main concepts.

12. Distribute part B (page 7) from the 2008 AP U.S. history exam and review the first question, making sure students understand what is required. Ask them this question: At this point in the course (presumably early), would you be able to answer this question? (Students could answer it for the Spanish Southwest and New France, but not New York.)

13. Allow students to work in groups of four to brainstorm strategies for answering the question with respect to the Spanish Southwest and New France only.

14. When groups are finished brainstorming, break them into pairs, and have each pair write a thesis statement to answer this question with respect to the Spanish Southwest and New France. Have students share thesis statements, and, if time permits, allow the class to make suggestions for revisions and additions.

15. Distribute and review copies of the rubric used by scorers of the 2008 AP U.S. history exam. If you wish, give students the assignment to draft essay responses to the question.

Name:

Beginnings of French Colonization

Part A.

Directions: Hats were an important item of dress in the sixteenth through nineteenth centuries. Study the following examples, and hypothesize how these hats are connected to the French desire for colonization.

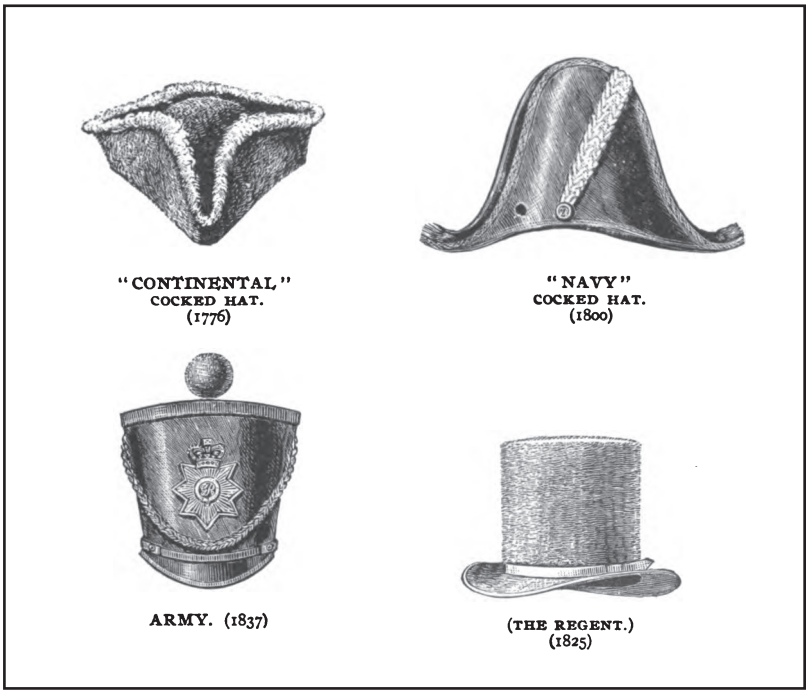


Fig. 13.1.

Fig. 13.1. *Castorologia, or the History and Traditions of the Canadian Beaver*, Horace Tassie Martin (London: Edward Stratford, 1892), 125.

Name:

Part B.

Directions: Use the map to trace the travel routes of the explorers who established French claims in North America.

1. Giovanni da Verrazano (1524)
2. Jacques Cartier (1533–43)
3. Samuel de Champlain (1605–08)
4. Louis Joliet and Father Jacques Marquette (1668–72)
5. René-Robert Cavelier, sieur de la Salle (1681–82)
6. Pierre le Moyne, sieur d'Iberville (1699–1718)

Name:

Handling Non-DBQ Free Response Questions

Directions: Here are some things to remember as you prepare to write AP U.S. history exam essays that are not document-based.

1. Check your time as you start an essay. It is a good idea to jot down your start and stop times for each essay; that way you won't use any brain power trying to remember. You are allowed about a half hour for each essay, of which you should commit at least five minutes to analyzing the question and planning your answer. Abraham Lincoln once said, "Give me six hours to chop down a tree, and I will spend the first four sharpening the axe." The same principle applies here: the minutes spent planning are an investment that will give you a better essay, so resist the urge to jump right into writing.
2. Parts B and C of the free response question section of the exam usually both contain two essay questions. Read the two questions in part B carefully, and, after the initial panic dies down, choose the one about which you feel most confident. Read and reread the question, underlining key words and making sure you understand all the points involved. Remember that AP free response questions are usually intricate and have several parts that must be dealt with in your answer.
3. Write a good thesis statement. Forget what your fifth-grade teacher always told you about starting your essay by restating the question; don't waste precious time copying. Instead, answer the question in one, two, or three clear sentences. The College Board reader who picks up your essay should understand the main points you plan to make by the time he or she gets to the end of the first paragraph. In fact, if you are really pressed for time, your thesis statement can stand alone as the first paragraph. Thus, it is important that your thesis statement answer all parts of the question.
4. Follow the order of your thesis statement as you develop your essay. This makes writing so much easier, because you only have to focus on one topic at a time. The other topics are saved and waiting for you to move on to them when you are ready. Be sure you make clear the relationships among the different sections of your essay (i.e., cause-effect, comparison-contrast, analysis of factors, etc.).
5. Be sure you provide ample support for each idea you introduce. The College Board guidelines for a high score of 8 or 9 call for "substantial, relevant historical information." Writing vague generalizations without demonstrating your knowledge of the period and subject will get you at best a score of 2 to 4.
6. Keep one eye on that clock! Don't get so involved in writing that you use fifty minutes for part B and leave yourself only twenty minutes for part C. It's a common beginner's mistake.
7. If you finish early, you have not written enough. A high-scoring essay will have adequate length because it has a fully enunciated thesis statement, substantial historical information in support of the thesis statement, and solid analysis. These things take time!
8. After you finish the essay in part B, take a deep breath, relax for a minute, and do it all over again for part C. Then you can sit back, relax, and wait for your score to arrive in a few months.

Lesson 14

Early New England Colonies

Objectives

- To determine how to read and interpret primary source documents
- To understand conflicting drives toward order and freedom in the founding of the New England colonies

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 2: Patterns of Continuity and Change over Time

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideals, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-4 Analyze how changing religious ideals, Enlightenment beliefs, and republican thought shaped the politics, culture, and society of the colonial era through the early Republic

Notes to the Teacher

The first step in this lesson is an explanation to the class of the activities of Thomas Morton, an early settler who had a small plantation he called Merrymount near what is now Quincy, Massachusetts. Morton erected a maypole, and he and his men celebrated regularly by drinking, dancing, and wooing Indian women. He was arrested by men from Plymouth under the command of Captain Miles Standish (whom he called "Captain Shrimpe"), was taken back to Plymouth, and eventually was sent back to England.

Students will need to be familiar with the concept of covenant theology that permeated Puritan belief. If this is not adequately covered in textbook readings, you will need to review the belief of New England Puritans that God had selected them as his chosen people to colonize America and make their settlement "a city upon a hill," in John Winthrop's words. They believed that there were actually two covenants, a "covenant of works" which Adam had violated but which was still in effect and mandated moral behavior, as well as a "covenant of grace" through which God would save those he chose (the "Elect").

The lesson uses three primary sources, including one by John Winthrop and one by Roger Williams, both of whom will be familiar from student textbooks. The third author, Nathaniel Ward, the minister in Ipswich, Massachusetts, was excommunicated from the Church of England before he emigrated to New England. By the mid-1640s, English Puritans were becoming more tolerant of other Protestant sects and more critical of the clear and often punitive religious intolerance in New England. Ward, writing under the pen name of Theodore de la Guard (derived from the

Hebrew version of his first name and the French translation of his last name), felt honor-bound to defend intolerance.

In this lesson, students focus on the relationship between church and state in the early New England colonies. They begin by reviewing Puritan beliefs about the nature of society and government. Next, they brainstorm questions to ask about primary source documents; they then use these questions in the analysis of three documents, which include a description of the trial of a budding capitalist and selections from two essays about the role of government with respect to religious diversity. Students living in a modern world of religious diversity and secularism may have difficulty understanding the intensity of emotion underlying this subject and realizing that it was literally a matter of life and death.

Procedure

1. Tell students about the incident of Thomas Morton's maypole in the Plymouth colony. (See Notes to the Teacher.) Explain that there has been from the beginning a tension between the desire for order and the desire for freedom in the New World. Ask them to state the main ideas underlying the Puritan social and political organization.

   ### Suggested Responses

   - God was all powerful and predestined some persons for salvation.
   - A person attempted to prove that he or she was among the Elect.
   - Everyone was legally required to attend the established church.
   - Everyone needed to be able to read to interpret the Bible; ministers needed training at the university level.
   - The elite of the church were supposed to rule both the church and the state.
   - Individuals were responsible for meeting the needs and goals of the community.

   Ask students the following question: Did these ideas tend to favor the desire for order or the desire for freedom? (desire for order)

2. Ask students to explain the concept of covenant theology from their reading. (See Notes to the Teacher.) Ask students about other covenants they have read about. (The Mayflower Compact, the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, and other agreements were covenants designed to create laws to govern behavior.) What do these laws say about the relationship between church and state? (The church could have an impact on state laws; the state existed in part to support and defend the church.)

3. Have students define the term *primary source* (a text or other document created by a participant in or an eyewitness observer of a particular event or era). Ask students to brainstorm advantages and disadvantages of using primary sources. (Advantages: A primary source provides eyewitness knowledge, reflects the intellectual world of its time, and has a sense of immediacy. Disadvantages: The author saw only a portion of the event; the author may be biased because of his or her religious, social, or political status.) Ask students to generate and record a list of questions they should ask when they are given a primary source to interpret.

Suggested Responses

- Who created the document? How?
- When and where was the document created?
- If the document describes a particular event, was the author a participant or an observer? How did his or her role influence his or her perceptions of what happened?
- What was the particular religious, social, or political stance of the author? How might this affect what he or she wrote or even what he or she observed?
- Was the document meant to be private, or was it written for publication? How does this make a difference?
- How does the document reflect the author's character?
- What are the original meanings of the language of the document; i.e., how can the reader avoid misunderstandings caused by modern definitions of the words used?
- Has the document been excerpted, or is it complete? If the former, is the excerpt true to the original intent of the document, or has it been taken out of context?

4. Distribute **Handout 24**. Explain to students that this document was written by John Winthrop in the decade following the founding of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Direct students to read the document and underline words that they do not know and phrases that they have difficulty interpreting. Ask a student to summarize what happened in the Keaine case, and allow sufficient time in class to clear up any questions. Then have students use the questions they generated in procedure 3 to analyze this document. Finally, have them explain their answers to the two questions at the end of the reading.

Suggested Responses

1. Most modern Americans would agree that Keaine's price-gouging would probably be quickly remedied by market economics—his customers would seek other places to buy the goods they wanted. No legal action would be taken, unless Keaine was engaging in price-fixing with others; then an antitrust action could be brought.
2. The Puritans felt that individuals should put the general good of society first, before their own interests. They felt that the role of government extended to punishing greed.

5. Distribute **Handout 25**. After giving students sufficient time to read the selections, ask them to write a one-paragraph statement of the main ideas expressed by each man.

6. Ask students to brainstorm other occasions in American history when there was a tension between the proponents of civil order and those of freedom. (Students may mention such controversies as the battle over abolition, the contraction of civil liberties in wartime, and debates over wiretapping and treatment of prisoners of war.)

The Trial of Robert Keaine

Directions: Read the following excerpt from John Winthrop's journal, and apply the questions you developed for analysis of a primary source. Then answer the questions at the end of the selection.

From *The History of New England from 1630 to 1649*

Mo. 9 [September 1639]

At a general court holden at Boston, great complaint was made of the oppression used in the country in sale of foreign commodities; and Mr. Robert Keaine, who kept a shop in Boston, was notoriously above others observed and complained of; and, being convented, he was charged with many particulars; in some, for taking above six-pence in the shilling profit; in some above eight-pence; and, in some small things, above two for one; and being hereof convict, (as appears by the records,) he was fined £200, which came thus to pass: The deputies considered, apart, of his fine, and set it at £200; the magistrates agreed but to £100. . . . For the cry of the country was so great against oppression, and some of the elders and magistrates had declared such detestation of the corrupt practice of this man (which was the more observable, because he was wealthy and sold dearer than most other tradesmen, and for that he was of ill report for the like covetous practice in England, that incensed the deputies very much against him). And sure the course was very evil, especial circumstances considered: 1. He being an ancient professor of the gospel: 2. A man of eminent parts: 3. Wealthy, and having but one child: 4. Having come over for conscience' sake, and for the advancement of the gospel here: 5. Having been formerly dealt with and admonished, both by private friends and also by some of the magistrates and elders, and having promised reformation; being a member of a church and commonwealth now in their infancy, and under the curious observation of all churches and civil states in the world. These added much aggravation to his sin in the judgment of all men of understanding. . . . After the court had censured him, the church of Boston called him also in question, where (as before he had done in the court) he did, with tears, acknowledge and bewail his covetous and corrupt heart, yet making some excuse for many of the particulars, which were charged upon him, as partly by pretence of ignorance of the true price of some wares, and chiefly by being misled by some false principles, as 1. That, if a man lost in one commodity, he might help himself in the price of another. 2. That if, through want of skill or other occasion, his commodity cost him more than the price of the market in England, he might then sell it for more than the price of the market in New England, etc. These things gave occasion to Mr. Cotton, in his public exercise the next lecture day, to lay open the error of such false principles, and to give some rules of direction in the case.

Some false principles were these: —

1. That a man might sell as dear as he can, and buy as cheap as he can.
2. If a man lose by casualty of sea, etc., in some of his commodities, he may raise the price of the rest.
3. That he may sell as he bought, though he paid too dear, etc., and though the commodity be fallen, etc.
4. That, as a man may take the advantage of his own skill or ability, so he may of another's ignorance or necessity.
5. Where one gives time for payment, he is to take like recompense of one as of another.

The rules for trading were these:

1. A man may not sell above the current price, i.e., such a price as is usual in the time and place, and as another (who knows the worth of the commodity) would give for it, if he had occasion to use it; as that is called current money, which every man will take, etc.
2. When a man loseth in his commodity for want of skill, etc., he must look at it as his own fault or cross, and therefore must not lay it upon another.
3. Where a man loseth by casualty of sea, or, etc., it is a loss cast upon himself by providence, and he may not ease himself of it by casting it upon another; for so a man should seem to provide against all providences, etc., that he should never lose; but where there is a scarcity of the commodity, there men may raise their price; for now it is a hand of God upon the commodity, and not the person.
4. A man may not ask any more for his commodity than his selling price, as Ephron to Abraham, the land is worth thus much.[1]

1. How would this case be decided today? Would Keaine even be brought to court? Why or why not?

2. How does this case reflect the Puritan consensus about the nature of society?

[1]John Winthrop, *The History of New England from 1630 to 1649*, vol. 1, ed. James Savage (Boston: Little Brown, 1853), 377–82.

On Tolerance

Directions: Read the following two selections on freedom of religion, and write a one-paragraph summary of each man's arguments.

Nathaniel Ward, Minister at Ipswich, Massachusetts (1647)

. . . I dare take upon me, to bee the Herauld of *New-England* so farre, as to proclaime to the world, in the name of our Colony, that all Familists, Antinomians, Anabaptists, and other Enthusiasts shall have free Liberty to keepe away from us, and such as will come to be gone as fast as they can, the sooner the better.

Secondly, I dare averre, that God doth no where in his word tolerate Christian States, to give Tolerations to such adversaries of his Truth, if they have power in their hands to suppresse them. . . .

The power of all Religion and Ordinances, lies in their purity: their purity in their simplicity: then are mixtures pernicious. I lived in a City, where a Papist preached in one Church, a Lutheran in another, a Calvinist in a third; a Lutheran one part of the day, a Calvinist the other, in the same Pulpit: the Religion of that place was but motly and meagre, their affections Leopard-like. . . .

Concerning Tolerations I may further assert. . . .

He that is willing to tolerate any Religion, or discrepant way of Religion, besides his own, unlesse it be in matters meerly indifferent, either doubts of his own, or is not sincere in it.

He that is willing to tolerate any unsound Opinion, that his own may also be tolerated, though never so sound, will for a need hang Gods Bible at the Devills girdle. . . .

Experience will teach Churches and Christians, that it is farre better to live in a State united, though a little Corrupt, then in a State, whereof some Part is incorrupt, and all the rest divided. . . .

That if the State of *England* shall either willingly Tolerate, or weakly connive at such Courses, the Church of that Kingdome will sooner become the Devils dancing-Schoole, then Gods Temple: . . . And what pity it is, that that Country which hath been the Staple of Truth to all Christendom, should now become the Aviary of Errors to the whole world, let every fearing heart judge. . . .

There is talk of an universall Toleration, I would talke as loud as I could against it, did I know what more apt and reasonable Sacrifice *England* could offer to God for his late performing all his heavenly Truths then an universall Toleration of all hellish Errors, or how they shall make an universall Reformation, but by making Christs Academy the Divills University. . . .

It is said, That Men ought to have Liberty of their Conscience, and that it is persecution to debarre them of it: I can rather stand amazed then reply to this: it is an astonishment to think that the braines of men should be parboyl'd in such impious ignorance; Let all the wits under the Heavens lay their heads together and finde an Assertion worse then this (one excepted) I will petition to be chosen the universall Ideot of the world. . . .[1]

Roger Williams, Minister and Founder of Providence (1644)

. . . [T]hat the blood of so many hundred thousand souls of protestants and papists, spilt in the wars of present and former ages, for their respective consciences, is not required nor accepted by Jesus Christ the Prince of Peace.

. . . [A]ll civil states with their officers of justice, in their respective constitutions and administrations, are proved essentially civil, and therefore not judges, governors, or defenders of the spiritual, or Christian, state and worship.

[1]Reverend Nathaniel Ward, "The Simple Cobbler of Agawam against Toleration (1647)," in *American History Told by Contemporaries*, vol. 1, ed. Albert Bushnell Hart (New York: Macmillan, 1902), 393–96.

. . . [I]t is the will and command of God that, since the coming of his Son the Lord Jesus, a permission of the most Paganish, Jewish, Turkish, or anti-christian consciences and worships, be granted to all men in all nations and countries: and they are only to be fought against with that sword which is only, in soul matters, able to conquer: to wit, the sword of God's Spirit, the word of God.

. . . God requireth not a uniformity of religion to be enacted and enforced in any civil state; which enforced uniformity, sooner or later, is the greatest occasion of civil war, ravishing of conscience, persecution of Christ Jesus in his servants, and of the hypocrisy and destruction of millions of souls.

. . . [T]he permission of other consciences and worships than a state professeth, only can, according to God, procure a firm and lasting peace; good assurance being taken, according to the wisdom of the civil state, for uniformity of civil obedience from all sorts.

. . . [T]rue civility and Christianity may both flourish in a state or kingdom, notwithstanding the permission of divers and contrary consciences, either of Jew or Gentile. . . .

. . . The God of peace, the God of truth, will shortly seal this truth, and confirm this witness, and make it evident to the whole world,—

THAT THE DOCTRINE OF PERSECUTION FOR CAUSE OF CONSCIENCE, IS MOST EVIDENTLY AND LAMENTABLY CONTRARY TO THE DOCTRINE OF CHRIST JESUS, THE PRINCE OF PEACE. AMEN.[2]

[2]Roger Williams, "The Bloody Tenent of Persecution," in *The Bloody Tenent of Persecution for Cause of Conscience Discussed and Mr. Cotton's Letter Examined and Answered,* ed. Edward Bean Underhill (London: J. Haddon, 1848), 1–2, 364.

Lesson 15

Early Middle Colonies: Experiment in Diversity

Objectives

- To assess the degree of ethnic and religious diversity in seventeenth-century New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania
- To create diary entries for a fictional but plausible figure from these colonies

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-1: Analyze how competing conceptions of national identity were expressed in the development of political institutions and cultural values from the late colonial through the antebellum periods

Notes to the Teacher

The Middle Colonies were cosmopolitan in nature from the very beginning. European settlers included the well-known Dutch and English, but living among them were Norwegians, Danes, Swedes, Portuguese Jews from Brazil, Irish, Scots-Irish, Germans, French-speaking Walloons from lower Netherlands, and Huguenots from the south and west of France. Africans and their descendants were present as both slaves and free men. Indian groups included the Mohegan, the Lenape or Delaware, and the five powerful tribes of the Iroquois.

While ethnic diversity was common, religious diversity was as well. The majority of European settlers in these colonies were Protestant, but of many different denominations: members of the Church of England, French Huguenots, Baptists, Quakers, Presbyterians, Lutherans, Mennonites, Pietists, and more. Dissenters from both Europe and the New England colonies found their way to the more tolerant Middle Colonies.

Farming was the most common occupation during the colonial era, but there were many others. Skilled workers such as wheelwrights, carpenters, smiths, bakers, masons, shoemakers, millers, locksmiths, bricklayers, and glaziers were in demand. Professionals included doctors, lawyers, and members of the clergy. Merchants were an important group in urban areas. Unskilled workers could also be found in the cities, and men whose work was necessary to facilitate trade and shipping could be found there

as well. While most women were occupied with housekeeping, a role which necessitated a wide variety of skills such as spinning, weaving, and candle-making, some also assisted their husbands in their trades; widows occasionally took over their late husbands' occupations as well.

In this lesson, students discuss the diversity of the Middle Colonies. They then read diary entries from the journal of a traveler in the Middle Colonies in 1679 to learn how information about the period can be gleaned from a primary source. Students create a character of their own and research what that character's life might have been like. Finally, they write diary entries for their character and share them with other students to reinforce their understanding of colonial diversity.

Procedure

1. Ask students what is meant when the United States is called a melting pot. Explain that the phrase originated in a 1908 play of that name by the immigrant Isaac Zangwill. Tell students that colonial America was a kind of melting pot for centuries before the term became widely used. Point out that the goal of this lesson is to discover what kind of diversity existed in the early Middle Colonies.

2. Tell the class that in the mid-1600s, the Dutch governor of New Amsterdam, William Kieft, declared that he ruled people who spoke eighteen different languages. By the end of the century, even more immigrants from various countries had arrived. Divide the class into groups, and assign each group one of the following topics to research and share information with the class:
   - Ethnic groups in the Middle Colonies (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania) by 1700
   - Religious groups in the Middle Colonies
   - Occupations in rural areas of the Middle Colonies
   - Occupations in the cities of the Middle Colonies
3. Have groups that researched ethnic groups share information. List the following place names. Ask students how these New York places might have acquired their names.
   - Harlem (originally New Haarlem, named after Dutch city of Haarlem)
   - Amsterdam Avenue (named after the Dutch city of Amsterdam as was New Amsterdam, the original name of New York)
   - The Bronx, Bronx River (originally called Bronck's Land after the farm of Swedish immigrant Jonas Jonson Bronck, 1600?–1643)
   - Brooklyn (originally Dutch Breukelen, meaning "broken land")
   - The Bowery (from the Dutch *bouwerij* or "farm")
   - Manhattan (English version of Lenni Lenape word for "island of many hills")

- New Rochelle (named by French Huguenots for the Huguenot stronghold of La Rochelle in France)
- Jamaica (English distortion of the name of the Jameco or Yamecah Indians)

4. Explain that similar diversity could be found in Pennsylvania and, to a somewhat lesser extent, in New Jersey. Use a map to help students identify the areas of these colonies. Remind the class that Pennsylvania actually included counties in Delaware until 1767. Ask students why these colonies were called restoration colonies, and review with them how the proprietors acquired the colonies. (They were awarded by the Stuart king Charles II to his supporters upon his restoration to the throne after the English Civil War and the Puritan Interregnum.)

5. Point out that there are other kinds of diversity besides ethnic diversity. An important aspect of the Middle Colonies was religious diversity. Remind students that the New England colonies, except for Rhode Island, tried to prevent it; therefore, dissenters often came to the Middle Colonies in search of religious freedom. Have students who researched religious groups share information with the class.

6. Ask students what other types of diversity they might expect to find in the colonies and elsewhere (age, education, occupation, wealth).

7. Ask students to list necessities for a reasonably comfortable life in the colonies, and point out that these needs relate directly to people's occupations in both rural and urban areas. Have the groups that researched these occupations share information with the class.

8. Tell students that they are going to write a series of diary entries for a fictional but believable character living in one of the Middle Colonies during the seventeenth century. To do so successfully, they should be able to write in language that would have been appropriate for the time. Teach them the term *anachronism* (a person or thing that is inappropriate for the time period). Give them the example of the clock striking in William Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*. Why is that an anachronism? (In Roman times, the sundial would have been the best means of telling time; the first real clock was invented around 1360.) Explain that students should avoid anachronisms in their work. Ask them to identify other qualities that would make a good diary entry (the expression of a personality, the integration of useful historical information, the use of language appropriate to the time period).

9. Distribute **Handout 26**. Tell students that to help them to get the feel of the language of a colonial diary, they are going to read some selections from a journal kept by Jasper Danckaerts. Introduce Danckaerts using the information at the top of the handout. Point out the three specific topics addressed in the question in the handout's directions. Allow students time to read the passages.

10. Ask students what they have learned about the area, the people, and Danckaerts himself. (Many people in the city made their living by trade, including liquor. Smallpox had struck the area. The people were generally welcoming to strangers, but not always. Food, including peaches, cattle, hogs, and deer, seemed abundant. Danckaerts was deeply religious, somewhat judgmental, and serious about learning about the country. The population was ethnically diverse.)

11. Ask students what they notice about the language Danckaerts used (straightforward and serious). Point out that the English language changes constantly over time, and the more students read primary sources, the more they will understand how language was used. Suggest that they take a look at better-known diaries from the period like those of John Winthrop or Samuel Seward to increase their familiarity with language. Point out that the words *thee*, *thou,* and *thy* were out of common use by the late seventeenth century. The word *thee* was mainly used by Quakers; with them, the use of this familiar form was a political statement implying the equality of all people.

12. Distribute **Handout 27**. Give students the assignment to create the character by answering the questions on the handout. Allow time outside of class for research. When students have a clear idea of their characters and the time and place in which each one lives, have them write three to five diary entries as their characters. After you have reviewed the finished diary entries, allow students to share their characters through oral presentations, a bulletin board display in the classroom, or an electronic bulletin board.

A Colonial Diarist: Jasper Danckaerts

Directions: Read the following information. What do the excerpts tell us about daily life in this area of New York, about the people Danckaerts met, and about Danckaerts himself?

In 1679, the Labadists, a Walloon religious community named after their founder, Jean de Labadie, sent two members, Jasper Danckaerts and Peter Schlüter, to buy land in America for a colony where they could worship freely. They traveled through New York, the Delaware Valley, and the Chesapeake region. Danckaerts kept a journal with drawings and maps of his travels; the journal was eventually published and gives a detailed picture of life at this early period. With Danckaerts's help, the Labadists eventually established a colony in Maryland a few years later. The following excerpts are from his journal.

September 1679
27th, Wednesday.

Nothing occurred to-day except that I went to assist Gerrit in bringing his goods home, and declaring them, which we did. We heard that one of the wicked and godless sailors had broken his leg; and in this we saw and acknowledged the Lord and His righteousness. We visited Jean Vigné in order, as he was one of the oldest inhabitants, to obtain from him information on various matters relating to the country.

28th, Thursday.

We remained at home to-day. I performed some little errands. Monsr. de La Grange called upon us, dressed up like a great fop, as he was. My comrade did not fail to speak to him seriously on the subject. He requested us to go with him immediately to his house, as I at length did. His house was not far from our lodgings on the front of the city. He had a small shop, as almost all the people here have, who gain their living by trade, namely, in tobacco and liquors, thread and pins and other knick-knacks. His wife welcomed me, and instantly requested that we would come to their house and stay there as long as we were here, for which I thanked them. They had lost a child by the small pox, and they had been sick with the same disease. He said he intended to go to the South River [the Delaware River] within three weeks, and hearing we were inclined to travel, he desired our company, being willing to take us everywhere and to give us every information. I thanked him, but gave him no assurances, telling him we would see what the Lord would will of us.

October, 1679
7th, Saturday.

This morning, about half-past six, we set out from the village, in order to go to the end of the island; but before we left we did not omit supplying ourselves with peaches which grew in an orchard along the road. The whole ground was covered with them and with apples, lying upon the new grain with which the orchard was planted. The peaches were the most delicious we had yet eaten. We proceeded on our way, and when we were not far from the point of Spyt den Duyvel, we could see on our left hand the rocky cliffs of the main land on the other side of the North River [the Hudson River], these cliffs standing straight up and down, with the grain, just as if they were antimony. We came then to the end of the island, which was alluvial ground, and crossed over the Spyt den Duyvel in a canoe, and paid nine stivers fare for us three, which was very dear. We followed the opposite side of the land, and came to the house of one Valentyn, a great acquaintance of our Gerrit. He had gone to the city, but his wife, though she did not know Gerrit or us, was so

much rejoiced to see Hollanders, that she hardly knew what to do for us. She set before us what she had. We left after breakfasting there. Her son showed us the way, and we came to a road which was entirely covered with peaches. We asked the boy why they left them lying there, and did not let the hogs eat them. He answered. We do not know what to do with them, there are so many; the hogs are satiated with them and will not eat any more.

11th, Wednesday.

We embarked early this morning in [our old friend Symon's] boat and rowed over to Staten Island, where we arrived about eight o'clock. . . . The woods are used for pasturing horses and cattle, for being an island, none of them can get off. Each person has marks upon his own by which he can find them when he wants them. When the population of the country shall increase, these places will be taken up. Game of all kinds is plenty, and twenty-five and thirty deer are sometimes seen in a herd. A boy who came into a house where we were, told us he had shot ten the last winter himself, and more than forty in his life, and in the same manner other game. . . . [He and his companion lose their way.] We made our way at last as well as we could out of the woods, and struck the shore a quarter of an hour's distance from where we began to climb up. We were rejoiced, as there was a house not far from the place where we came out. We went to it to see if we could find any one who would show us the way a little. There was no master in it, but an Englishwoman with negroes and servants. We first asked her as to the road, and then for something to drink, and also for some one to show us the road ; but she refused the last, although we were willing to pay for it. She was a cross woman. She said she had never been in the village, and her folks must work, and we would certainly have to go away as wise as we came. She said, however, we must follow the shore, as we did. We went now over the rocky point, which we were no sooner over than we saw a pretty little sand bay, and a small creek, and not far from there, cattle and houses. We also saw the point to which the little path led from the hill above, where I was when my comrade called me. We should not have had more than three hundred steps to go to have been where we now were. It was very hot, and we perspired a great deal. We went on to the little creek to sit down and rest ourselves there, and to cool our feet. . . . [1]

[1]Jasper Danckaerts, *Journal of Jasper Danckaerts: 1679–1680,* ed. Bartlett Burleigh James and J. Franklin Jameson (New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1959), 49–50, 67–72.

Diary Planning Sheet

Directions: Use the following questions to help you create your character before you begin writing diary entries.

1. What is the name, age, and gender of your fictional character in the Middle Colonies?

2. When and from where did your character's family immigrate? Is your character part of the first generation, second generation, or third generation in America?

3. Where does your character live? Describe the house. Who are the immediate family members?

4. What are the basic beliefs of your character's religious group? What religious obligations does he or she have?

5. Describe your character's occupation. What tools and raw materials are needed? What goods or services does your character provide? What specific tasks must your character accomplish? Who are your character's customers?

6. What are three traits your character will have? What worries your character? How does your character spend free time?

Lesson 16

The Chesapeake Region: Beginnings of the Plantation Economy

Objectives

- To understand the importance of tobacco culture in the development of the Chesapeake colonies
- To interpret seventeenth-century documents expressing contradictory opinions

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 1: Historical Causation

Thematic Learning Objective: Environment and Geography

ENV-2: Explain how the natural environment contributed to the development of distinct regional group identities, institutions, and conflicts in the precontact period through the independence period

Notes to the Teacher

The earliest of all American colonies, Virginia was also one of the most difficult to settle. Two failed expeditions to Roanoke in 1585 and 1587 ended in disaster and loss of life; the settlement of Jamestown in 1607 very nearly followed the same trajectory. It was saved in the short term by the aggressive leadership of John Smith; in the longer term, profits created by the sale of tobacco from the colony led to its increase in population, wealth, and stability.

Population in these early years did not increase because of natural growth. The majority of the Virginia colonists were male, and many did not have the opportunity to have children; the death rate exceeded the birth rate. The colony grew because of the arrival of two groups: indentured servants who negotiated prices for themselves before leaving England or who were sold by ship captains upon reaching port and slaves who were brought unwillingly from the West Indies or directly from Africa. The former group, when they survived the passage and terms of indenture, received room and board, some meager freedom dues, and tools in exchange for the usual four to five years of hard labor. Typically, they worked as tenants for wealthier farmers until they could buy land for themselves. People who brought over servants at their own cost received a headright of fifty acres for each worker.

The status of the second group, the Africans, was not clear at the beginning. Some were treated as indentured servants and eventually won their freedom; however, lifetime slavery (and the inheritance of that status by children) was clearly entrenched in Virginia by 1670. As time went on, the treatment of the two groups differed. For example, in 1705, the Virginia legislature declared that white slave owners could not whip white servants without the court's permission, but they could whip black slaves without prior approval.

The colony of Maryland was founded for a very different reason from Virginia: to provide a refuge for Roman Catholics, under the proprietorship of the Calvert family. However, most of the settlers who came were Protestant and generally had the same motive as the Virginia settlers: to improve their economic lot in life. Here, too, tobacco culture proved to be a vehicle for expansion and prosperity. Both white indentured servants and African slaves became important segments of the population and major contributors to the development of the colony.

The majority of these workers, both black and white, were engaged in the production of tobacco, a labor-intensive crop which could be profitably grown on both small holdings (far more common in these early years) and large plantations. Although the price of tobacco could drop suddenly, it became the major export crop of both Virginia and Maryland. English factors, or commission merchants, purchased the tobacco, had it shipped to England, repackaged and sold it, extended credit to the planter, and arranged for the purchase of European goods needed in the colonies; the tobacco trade was basically in their hands, and the colonists had no choice but to deal with them.

In this lesson, students examine a range of attitudes toward tobacco, study the agricultural year to learn about the requirements for growing the crop, and consider how those requirements helped promote slavery in the colonies of the Upper South.

Procedure

1. Read aloud the following quotation from Christopher Columbus's journal entry for October 15, 1492: "Being at sea, about midway between Santa Maria and the large island, which I name Fernandina, we met a man in a canoe going from Santa Maria to Fernandina; he had with him a piece of the bread which the natives make, as big as one's fist, a calabash of water, a quantity of reddish earth, pulverized and afterwards kneaded up, and some dried leaves which are in high value among them." Ask students to guess what the dried leaves were (tobacco) and what Columbus did with them when the Indians gave him some (threw them away).

2. Tell students that in this lesson they will look at the role tobacco played in the founding of the Chesapeake colonies of Maryland and Virginia. Review the difficulties faced in the early attempt to settle Virginia. (The Roanoke colonists in 1585 antagonized local Indian tribes and left with Francis Drake's ships. The second expedition in 1587 disappeared. Jamestown's first years were desperate because of naïve expectations of easy wealth; the inability or unwillingness of settlers to work; difficult relations with the Indians, including war from 1622 to 1632; illness from dysentery, typhoid, and malaria; and severe hunger.) Ask students the following question: What helped the colony get on a more stable footing and turn prosperous? Emphasize the importance of the cultivation and marketing of tobacco.

3. Explain that Europeans knew about tobacco from the colonization of the West Indies and were of divided opinions about it. Distribute **Handout 28**, and have students read the two passages and three poems. Ask students to summarize each item and cite examples of effective phrasing. Explain that in spite of King James's objections, Europeans were already hooked on "the noxious weed." Ask why, when the king was so adamantly opposed to tobacco, it still became a major import in England. (This demonstrates the amount of independence the colonies had because of distance and the relative weakness of the king. English factors made fortunes on tobacco, and taxes on it were an important source of revenue.)

4. Ask students how Virginia became such a major producer of tobacco. (John Rolfe planted some seeds of higher quality West Indian tobacco that adapted well to Virginia soil. Jamestown settlers found it traveled well for export and brought the highest profit of anything the colony produced.)

5. Distribute **Handout 29**. Remind students that farmers in the colonies just to the north were making a living producing grain, a much easier crop to plant, care for, and harvest. Ask them to read the information and answer the questions.

Suggested Responses

1. Colonists could acquire indentured servants and slaves. The numbers of indentured servants gradually lessened in the southern colonies, and the number of slaves increased. There was a growing preference for African workers who could be treated more harshly and who were slaves for life.

2. After the first boom years, there was a depression in the tobacco economy at the end of the 1620s, another in 1637; there was a longer slowdown after 1654 which lasted until the 1730s. People continued to produce tobacco because it was the only cash crop and they needed it to pay taxes and meet debts. Besides the fluctuations in price, growing tobacco had other disadvantages. In bad weather, the crop could be severely damaged; it had no value as food for humans or animals; it eventually wore out the soil.

6. Ask students what happened in Virginia and Maryland politics as the price of tobacco fell. (It became more difficult for newly freed indentured servants to prosper; political power became concentrated in the hands of the wealthy, and the small farmers were excluded from the House of Burgesses and the Maryland Assembly.)

7. Review briefly the history of Maryland's founding. Point out that even though Maryland was founded for religious reasons, as a refuge for Roman Catholics, most of the people emigrating there were Protestant and, in general, had the same motives as the Virginia colonists: to prosper economically. For better or worse, it was clear that the economy by 1700 was firmly dominated by tobacco.

8. Ask students about the status of tobacco today. (The Surgeon General mandates warnings on all tobacco products; most states have banned the use of tobacco in public buildings. Lawsuits against major tobacco companies by people who have cancer because of smoking have won large judgments; some states are actively trying to shift farmers from tobacco to other crops.) Close with discussion of the following topic: Will tobacco production die out completely in the future?

The Argument Begins

Directions: Read carefully the following passages by Virginia settler Thomas Hariot and King James I of England, two early tobacco labels, and a poem by Dr. William Vaughan. Hariot was an astronomer and mathematician hired by Sir Walter Raleigh to travel on the voyage to Roanoke. James I was the first Stuart king of England, the chosen successor of Queen Elizabeth I. Dr. Vaughan was an early settler in Virginia. Be prepared to explain the position of each writer.

Document 1

Thomas Hariot, *A Briefe and True Report of the New Found Land of Virginia* (1590)

There is an herbe which is sowed a part by it selfe. . . . In the West Indies it hath diuers names, according to the seuerall places & countries where it groweth and is vsed: The Spaniardes generally call it Tobacco. The leaues thereof being dried and brought into powder: they vse to take the fume or smoke thereof by sucking it through pipes made of claie into their stomacke and heade; from whence it purgeth superfluous fleame & other grosse humors, openeth all the pores & passages of the body: by which meanes the vse thereof, not only preserueth the body from obstructiõs; but also if any be, so that they haue not beene of too long continuance, in short time breaketh them: wherby their bodies are notably preserued in health, & know not many greeuous diseases where withall wee in England are oftentimes afflicted.

This [tobacco] is of so precious estimation amongest then, that they thinke their gods are maruelously delighted therwith: Wherupon sometime they make hallowed fires & cast some of the pouder therein for a sacrisice: being in a storme vppon the waters, to pacifie their gods, they cast some vp into the aire and into the water: so a weare for fish being newly set vp, they cast some therein and into the aire: also after an escape of danger, they cast some into the aire likewise: but all done with strange gestures, stamping, sometime dauncing, clapping of hands, holding vp of hands, & staring vp into the heauens, vttering therewithal and chattering strange words & noises. We our selues during the time we were there vsed to suck it after their maner, as also since our returne, & haue found maine rare and wonderful experiments of the vertues thereof; of which the relation woulde require a volume by it selfe: the vse of it by so manie of late, men & women of great calling as else, and some learned Phisitions also, is sufficient witnes.

Document 2

King James I of England, *A Counterblaste to Tobacco* (1604)

And for the vanities committed in this filthie custome, is it not both great vanitie and uncleanenesse, that at the table, a place of respect, of cleanlinesse, of modestie, men should not be ashamed, to sit tossing of *Tobacco pipes*, and puffing of the smoke of *Tobacco* one to another, making the filthy smoke and stinke thereof, to exhale athwart the dishes, and infect the aire, when very often, men that abhorre it are at their repast? Surely Smoke becomes a kitchin far better then a Dining chamber, and yet it makes a kitchin also oftentimes in the inward parts of men, soiling and infecting them, with an unctuous and oily kinde of Soote, as hath bene found in some great *Tobacco* takers, that after their death were opened. And not onely meate time, but no other time nor action is exempted from the publike use of this uncivill tricke: so as if the wives of *Diepe* list to contest with this Nation for good maners their worst maners would in all reason be found at least not so dishonest (as ours are) in this point. The publike use whereof, at all times, and in all places, hath now so farre prevailed, as divers men very sound both in judgement, and complexion,

have bene at last forced to take it also without desire, partly because they were ashanied to seeme singular, (like the two Philosophers that were forced to duck themselves in that raine water, and so become fooles as well as the rest of the people) and partly, to be as one that was content to eate Garlicke (which hee did not love) that he might not be troubled with the smell of it, in the breath of his fellowes. And is it not a great vanitie, that a man cannot heartily welcome his friend now, but straight they must bee in hand with *Tobacco*? No it is become in place of a cure, a point of good fellowship, and he that will refuse to take a pipe of *Tobacco* among his fellowes, (though by his own election he would rather feele the savour of a Sinke) is accounted peevish and no good company, even as they doe with tippeling in the cold Easterne Countries. Yea the Mistresse cannot in a more manerly kinde, entertaine her servant, then by giving him out of her faire hand a pipe of Tobacco. But herein is not onely a great vanitie but a great contempt of Gods good giftes, that the sweetenesse of mans breath, being a good gift of God, should be willfully corrupted by this stinking smoke, wherein I must confesse, it hath too strong a vertue: and so that which is an ornament of nature, and can neither by any artifice be at the first acquired, nor once lost, be recovered againe, shall be filthily corrupted with an incurable stinke, which vile qualitie is as directly contrary to that wrong opinion which is holden of the wholesomnesse thereof, as the venime of putrifaction is contrary to the vertue Preservative.

Moreover, which is a great iniquitie, and against all humanitie, the husband shall not bee ashamed, to reduce thereby his delicate, wholesome, and cleane complexioned wife, to that extremitie, that either shee must also corrupt her sweete breath therewith, or else resolve to live in a perpetuall stinking torment.

Document 3

From an Early Tobacco Label

Hail thou inspiring plant! Thou balm of life,
Well might thy worth engage two nations' strife;
Exhaustless fountain of Britannia's wealth;
Thou friend of wisdom and thou source of health.

Document 4

From an Early Tobacco Label

Life is a smoke!—If this be true,
Tobacco will thy Life renew;
Then fear not Death, nor killing care
Whilst we have best Virginia here.

Document 5

Dr. William Vaughn (1617)

Tobacco, that outlandish weed
It spends the brain, and spoiles the seede
It dulls the spirite, it dims the sight
It robs a woman of her right.

A Calendar for Tobacco Culture

Directions: Tobacco production was more labor-intensive than any other colonial crop except rice and flax. Study the following information, and answer the questions.

Document 1

A Typical Year on a Virginia or Maryland Tobacco Farm

January–February
- Preparation of 40 square yards of seedbed for each acre of tobacco by clearing, burning, and hoeing

March
- Sowing of tiny tobacco seeds, raking, and covering with pine boughs for protection

April
- Thinning of tobacco plants to four inches apart

May
- Transplanting of tobacco seedlings into knee-high hills of dirt built every three or four feet

June–July
- Weekly cultivation with hoe and by hand; rebuilding of damaged hills
- Gathering of seed for next year's crop
- "Priming" (the removal of the bottom 2–4 leaves) and "topping" (the removal of the top of the plant)
- Removal of small new side growth or "suckers" caused by topping
- Daily inspection of all plants and picking off worms by hand

August–September
- Harvesting of individual plants when leaves are ready
- Hanging of harvested plants in tobacco barns to cure
- Sorting of tobacco leaves into units of equal quality

September–October
- Twisting and rolling of tobacco into ropes, which were wound up and rolled into balls of about a hundred pounds or placed in large barrels (hogsheads) that held about a thousand pounds
- Shipping to England

November–December and any other "free" time
- Clearing of additional acreage for tobacco culture[1]

[1]Adapted from "Tobacco: Colonial Cultivation Methods," *Historic Jamestowne, National Park Service,* <http://www.nps.gov/jame/history culture/tobacco-colonial-cultivation-methods.htm> (31 August 2010).

Document 2

John Taylor of Caroline County, Virginia

> . . . It would startle even an old planter, to see an exact account of the labour devoured by an acre of tobacco, and the preparation of the crop for market. . . . He would be astonished to discover how often he had passed over the land, and the tobacco, through his hands, in fallowing, hilling, cutting off hills, planting, replantings, toppings, succourings, weedings, cuttings, picking up, removing out of the ground by hand, hanging, striking, stripping, stemming, and prizing.[2]

1. How could ambitious colonists increase their labor supply?

2. What was likely to happen if the amount of tobacco produced in the colonies increased because of expansion of the labor supply and the amount of acreage under production?

[2]John Taylor, "Tobacco," in *Arator, Being a Series of Agricultural Essays, Practical and Political,* 3d ed. (Baltimore: John M. Carter, 1817), 171–72.

Lesson 17

Early Resistance to Colonial Authority

Objectives

- To understand causes and effects of three late-seventeenth-century revolts
- To demonstrate that significant resistance to colonial authority was present long before the American Revolution

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 1: Historical Causation

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-1: Analyze the factors behind competition, cooperation, and conflict among different societies and social groups in North America during the colonial period

Notes to the Teacher

Prior to the American Revolution, three rebellions took place in America's colonies. In Bacon's Rebellion, small freehold farmers clashed with the elite of the Virginia colony over protection provided by the colonial government against Indian attacks along the James River. The Glorious Revolution in 1688 resulted in the removal of James II from the English throne. Colonists in America deposed their royal government and took control with elected assemblies. Jacob Leisler took control in New York but was eventually removed, charged with treason, and hanged by a coalition of rich merchants who saw him as a hindrance to trade and commercial development. The Pueblo or Popé's Revolt took place in the Spanish colonies of the Southwest when Native Pueblo people revolted against Spanish rule.

In this lesson, students research Bacon's Rebellion, Leisler's Rebellion, and the Pueblo Revolt, determine the reasons for the revolts, and assess their impact on American history.

Procedure

1. Ask students what causes people to resist authority (oppressive government, ineffective leadership, an illegitimate leader, tyrannical style, failure to respond to the public).

2. Distribute **Handout 30**, and instruct students to complete it as directed and prepare for class discussion. Review responses.

Suggested Responses

1. In Bacon's Rebellion, the power in the Virginia colony rested in the hands of a few, and the royal governor did not protect the freehold farmers along the James River from Indian attacks. Jacob Leisler tried to oust the royal government and seize control of New York for small farmers and merchants. The Pueblo Indians revolted against an oppressive Spanish rule.
2. In Bacon's Rebellion, freehold farmers and indentured servants rose against elite planters. Leisler's Rebellion brought small merchants and farmers against wealthy merchants and Hudson River aristocracy. In the Pueblo Revolt, Indians revolted against the Spanish government.
3. In Bacon's Rebellion, the elite controlled the House of Burgesses, and the governor protected only the wealthy planters. Poor previously indentured servants were unable to improve their status. In Leisler's Revolt, wealthy merchants controlled the government. In the Pueblo Revolt, the Indians were virtually slaves of the Spanish elite and the Catholic Church.
4. All of them involved class conflict and government corruption.
5. In all three cases, only the wealthy elite could participate in government.
6. The Catholic Church controlled systems in the Spanish colony.

3. Have students write short paragraphs about how changes and consequences resulted from these revolts. Then review responses.

Suggested Responses

The revolts provided a basis for a later revolt against tyrannical rule. Only the Pueblo Revolt resulted in substantive changes within the colonial structure. Leisler's Rebellion and Bacon's Rebellion changed very little, as the elite, wealthy class remained in control.

From Resistance to Rebellion

Directions: Long before the Revolutionary War, three significant revolts occurred in the New World. Read the description of each revolt, and then answer the questions that follow.

Bacon's Rebellion

Bacon's Rebellion, in 1676, was the first rebellion in the colonies, and it demonstrated that poor whites and poor blacks could come together against a common enemy. Economic problems led to the revolt. The mercantile system required that colonies trade only with the mother country and increased prices on imported goods. The Navigation Acts forced Virginia to trade tobacco exports only with Great Britain. Barriers to Dutch trade led to three Anglo-Dutch wars and threatened Jamestown with invasion.

Local Indians became the scapegoat for the immediate problems, particularly after Doeg Indians attacked a local farmer for nonpayment. When innocent Indians were attacked in retaliation, large-scale raids and attacks began. Strong supporters of Nathaniel Bacon included escaped slaves, poor landless whites, and indentured servants. Bacon was credited with promoting political reform, including allowing freemen to vote and placing term limits on elected officials. People began to side with Bacon and his cause. Governor William Berkeley pleaded for restraint and compromise. It was his policy to convince the local population that the Indians were peaceful. Trading with the Indians was restricted by Berkeley to his favored friends in the corrupt House of Burgesses. Bacon was one of those left out of this lucrative trade. Bacon was elected to the House of Burgesses. When he went to Jamestown to take his seat, he was arrested by Governor Berkeley.

The planters of Virginia had developed a growing fear of the poor whites and indentured servants who made up the growing underclass. As a result of this fear, many planters began to invest in large numbers of slaves (who would not demand equality and fairness) to work their plantations in the Chesapeake Bay region. The House of Burgesses anticipated war with the local Indians and raised taxes, causing the local population to complain because only one quarter to one half of the planters' income was taxed while everyone else was taxed on full income—and Berkeley's friends were not taxed at all.

Bacon's personal complaint against Berkeley was the governor's denial to him of an officer's commission which would allow him to fight the threatening Indians. Others rallied around Bacon and he issued a "Declaration of the People," which charged Berkeley with playing favorites and alleged that he was corrupt and protected the Indians for his own selfish purposes. Bacon's army occupied Jamestown and burned it to the ground. After Berkeley executed twenty-three rebels, he was recalled to England and replaced.

Leisler's Rebellion

In 1688, James II was deposed in England for his Roman Catholicism. This established the principle that the people could remove an unsuitable king or leader. Various colonial governors were removed for similar reasons, including the governor of New England, Edmund Andros. When Jacob Leisler's forces moved in to replace the new governor, Francis Nicholson, with one of their own, it established the principle of resistance to British rule. The German-born Leisler had assumed control of the provincial government in the wake of the Glorious Revolution when Dutch Protestant prince William and wife Mary replaced the Catholic king. It also established the principle that the colonies were subject to British authority based upon their free will, not nature. Troops sent by the British arrested and executed Leisler after he refused to step aside. The Glorious Revolution of 1688 divided New York City into two different camps. Those supporting Jacob Leisler included the small shopkeepers and tradesmen who made up the merchant or middle class, the poor, most of the militia, the Protestants, and the Dutch. He was opposed by wealthy British merchants, a ruling elite who had a monopoly on power, and aristocratic Hudson Valley families. When Governor Andros was seized and placed under arrest after James II was deposed, the lieutenant governor, Nicholson, took his place. He was suspected of supporting a takeover by the Catholic French. Leisler acted as the executive for one year, collecting taxes and tariffs. Historians have suggested that this was one of the earliest manifestations of self-determination and urban democracy in America.

The Pueblo Revolt

In 1680, an Indian named Popé led a force of twenty-five hundred Indians from two dozen pueblos, against the Spanish, attacking the colonial headquarters in Santa Fe, killing over four hundred soldiers and civilians and two-thirds of the priests, and driving them all the way back to El Paso. He was one of many Pueblo priests publicly whipped for practicing the Indian religions. Spanish Jesuit missionaries imposed the feudal practices of *encomienda* and *repartimiento*. In the *encomienda* system, Pueblo families were required to donate food crops and other resources every year to support the Spanish missions, military forces, and civil institutions. The institution of *repartimiento* forced them to work in Spanish households and fields. This brutal system of exploitation led to revolt. Before the revolt, disease had reduced the local populations by 80 percent and had the effect of weakening the social structure. Pueblo elders lost their authority, and Spanish priests were seen as unable to stop the losses from disease. Sexual abuse of Pueblo women, destruction of kivas and sacramental objects, and punishment for not attending Mass furthered the conditions for revolt. It was a nativistic movement which called for destroying all that the Spanish missionaries had created and a revivalistic movement that demanded that the Pueblo go back to the ways of the ancestors. Resistance to Spanish rule was met with imprisonment, torture, and mutilations. This was the single most successful Indian revolt against a European colonizer/invader. When the Spanish returned ten years later, they were forced to allow religious tolerance. Kiva and the cross existed side by side. Pueblo land rights were respected.

1. What were the primary causes of each rebellion or revolt?

2. What groups of people were involved in each revolt?

3. What were the obstacles to social, economic, and political mobility in each case?

4. What are the commonalities among the rebellions?

5. What citizens were eligible for participation in government?

6. Was religion in any way involved?

Lesson 18

The New England Colonies in the Mid-Eighteenth Century

Objectives

- To review the economic development of the New England colonies in the eighteenth century
- To explain the popular appeal of the religious revival known as the Great Awakening

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-4: Analyze how changing religious ideals, Enlightenment beliefs, and republican thought shaped the politics, culture, and society of the colonial era through the early Republic

Notes to the Teacher

In the eighteenth century, the New England colonies, like the rest of British America, were expanding to the west. The traditional New England town, with homes closely grouped around a commons area and meetinghouse, followed a pattern of settlement that was replicated throughout the region. An elementary form of democracy, the town meeting, functioned as the local legislative body. In rural areas, subsistence farming was the most common occupation, providing an adequate living for the settler and his family, usually with a small surplus. Within several generations, however, as the acreage of the township was divided among heirs, the available land could no longer support the growing population; younger sons and newly arrived settlers were forced to leave established communities to search out new arable land to the west or to seek employment in the cities along the coast.

Shipbuilding, trade with England and the West Indies, lumbering, and fishing were important along the seacoast; New England was a major part of one of the triangle trade routes, a system that delivered slaves from Africa to the West Indies, sugar and molasses from the West Indies to New England, and rum made from the molasses back to Africa to be exchanged for additional slaves. A prosperous whaling industry emerged, especially in Nantucket, Massachusetts. Many of the wealthy families in Rhode Island and Massachusetts relied on these commercial ventures for their primary

source of income. On the other hand, these industries also supported many landless men whose limited incomes depended on the level of prosperity of the shipping industries. By 1771, the top 10 percent of wealth holders in Boston controlled 57 percent of the wealth, and the top 10 percent in New England as a whole controlled 46 to 48 percent of the wealth.

Economic hardship became more common as the eighteenth century progressed. In Boston by the 1740s, about a third of adult women were widows with an alarming rate of poverty. Support for the poor became a major civic expense; Boston and Providence experimented with building workhouses to support the poor. King George's War (the War of the Austrian Succession), which disrupted shipping and required taxes to pay for military expenditures, led to a currency crisis and an economic depression in the 1750s.

Strong Calvinist principles in Puritan New England, combined with hard work and the promise of a resultant heavenly reward, became deeply ingrained in the developing businesses of the New England colonies. These strong principles had begun to fade by the mid-eighteenth century, when an evangelical or New Light movement began to develop in the colonies. The first and foremost New Light preacher in the New England colonies was Jonathan Edwards.

Jonathan Edwards was born in Connecticut to the daughter of Solomon Stoddard, a Northampton, Massachusetts, pastor whose teaching prefigured the Great Awakening. Edwards entered Yale at the age of twelve and graduated with highest honors in 1720. After several years of theological study, he joined his grandfather as a minister. Known for his extensive learning and restrained but powerful and eloquent sermons, he became a leader of the revivalist movement known as the Great Awakening. A theological disagreement led to his transfer to a pulpit in Stockbridge, Massachusetts. Subsequently, he served briefly as president of the new College of New Jersey (Princeton University).

The Great Awakening in some cases caused division between established, conservative, often well-educated Old Light ministers and parts of their congregations, sometimes resulting in the establishment of new churches. Methodists and Baptists were especially successful in the colonies. Many historians feel that the sense of equality, the opportunity for intense debate, and the degree of unification produced by intercolonial committees of correspondence during this time laid the groundwork for the American Revolution.

The lesson begins with study of a map of the British colonies in the eighteenth century, continues with a study of the principles behind the Great Awakening, and concludes with a discussion of Jonathan Edwards's famous sermon.

Procedure

1. List the following foods on the board: stuffed quahogs, boiled peanuts, egg cream, Reuben sandwich, lobster roll, soft-shelled crab, snitz pie, grits. Ask students which of these foods they have eaten. Explain that these foods are typical of specific regions of the United States. Quahogs (pronounced *kó-hog*) are large clams in Eastern Massachusetts. Boiled peanuts are the official snack food of South Carolina. An egg cream is a New York chocolate soda containing neither eggs nor cream. A Reuben sandwich from a New York deli is made of corned beef, sauerkraut, mayonnaise or Thousand Island dressing, and Swiss cheese on rye bread. The Maine lobster roll is lobster and mayonnaise on a hot dog roll. Soft-shelled crabs are a Maryland delicacy eaten during crab molting season. Snitz pie is a dried-apple pie made by the Amish in Pennsylvania. Grits are universal throughout the South, although the corn-based porridge can be prepared with different methods and consistencies. Tell students that such foods are regional, even in a country with coast-to-coast restaurant chains. Regionalism developed early in colonial America, and three distinctive regions had emerged by the mid-eighteenth century.

2. Distribute **Handout 31**, and give students a few minutes to follow the directions.

   ### Suggested Responses

   > The New England colonies included Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire. Maine was a part of Massachusetts; the territory of the future state of Vermont belonged in part to New York colony and in part to the province of Quebec.
   >
   > The Middle Colonies included New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey.
   >
   > The South consisted of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. Maryland and Delaware shared traits of both the Southern and the Middle Colonies.

3. Tell students that regionalism developed due to differences in resources, the groups of people that immigrated, and the economic systems that developed over a century or more.
4. Using Notes to the Teacher and the appropriate pages from the textbook, review the development of the New England region in the eighteenth century, with particular attention to economic developments.
5. Distribute **Handout 32**. Ask students to read the notes on the Great Awakening and to review information from textbook reading. Using this information, have them work with partners to complete part A. Then review ideas in a whole-class discussion.

Suggested Responses

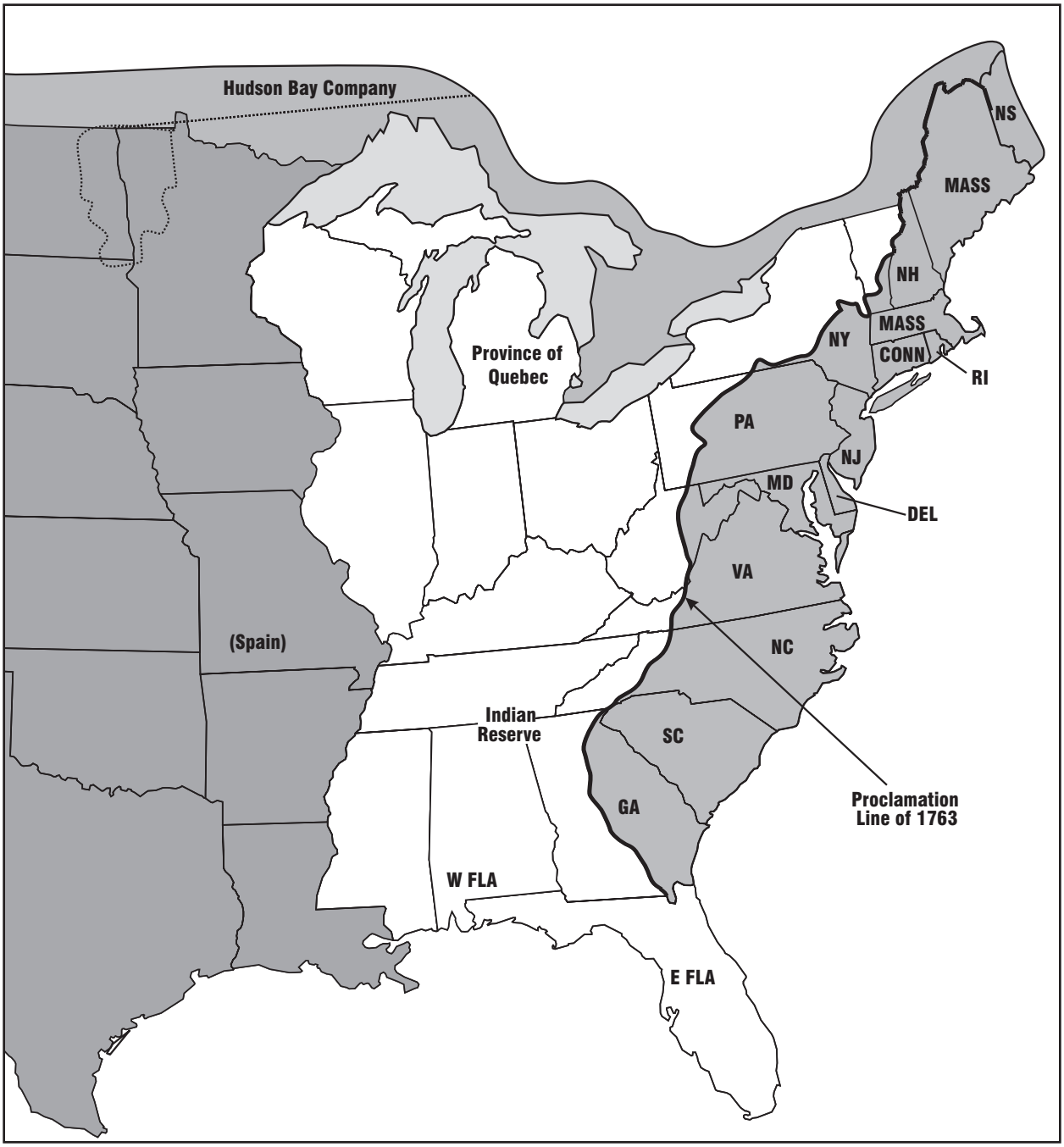
1. God, the creator, was open to all who made an appeal to him.
2. A person could make an emotional appeal and gain salvation through the divine grace of God.
3. Many groups believed an organized church was not needed.
4. Education was needed for life skills; a trained ministry was not required by all new churches.
5. Some churches began a more democratic church organization that had carryovers into politics.
6. The conversion of all individuals to Christianity would improve society.

6. Use part B of the handout to introduce Jonathan Edwards to the class. Read aloud the selection from his famous sermon, "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God." Then ask students the following questions:
   - What images might have been particularly powerful to listeners of the time? (Vivid images include dry stubble before devouring flames, crushing a worm, a lake of burning brimstone, hell's wide gaping mouth, black clouds of wrath, the arrow aimed at the sinner's heart, and God holding the sinner over the pit of hell like a spider over a fire.)
   - What do these images have in common? (They all stress the power of God and the helplessness of humans; they all vividly appeal to emotions.)
   - How does the last paragraph differ from the previous ones? (It contains the hope of salvation.)
   - Why would this sermon and others like it appeal more to young and marginalized people than to older, wealthier ones? (Frustrated by the lack of opportunity and power, younger people would respond to the idea that salvation is available to all who seek it.)
7. Remind students that, while the Great Awakening began in New England, its message was spread to the other colonies, particularly through a preaching tour conducted by George Whitefield, a British Anglican preacher and a friend of Benjamin Franklin. Explain to students that, while Franklin disagreed with Whitefield's theology, he admired his ability to hold an audience and his application of New Light theology to the social problems of the day. Thus many historians see the Great Awakening as part of the groundwork of the American Revolution.

Name:

The British Colonies in the Eighteenth Century

Directions: Study the map below, which shows the thirteen original colonies as they appeared after the Proclamation of 1763. Describe the regions that you see, as well as differences between the colonies and the states that exist today.



Jonathan Edwards and the Great Awakening

Part A.
Directions: Review material on the Great Awakening in a textbook. Then read the following information, and answer the questions.

Notes on the Great Awakening

- Puritan piety of the seventeenth century had eroded by the eighteenth century in the New World atmosphere of individualism, optimism, and enterprise.
- Away from the persecutions in England and removed by time and distance, Americans gave preference to the countinghouse over the meetinghouse.
- The Great Awakening was, in part, an emotional effort to reassert the earlier extreme piety over the rationalism and optimism of the Enlightenment.
- A heart open to the divine Spirit was seen as more important than a highly trained intellect.
- Revival preachers suggested that salvation was open to all who appealed to God, and they accused conservative clergymen of spiritual coldness.
- Most Americans had moved too far into modernity to share, even in times of religious revival, Jonathan Edwards's vision of the beauty and fitness of God's sovereignty and sinful humanity's helpless dependence on the miracle of divine grace.
- In America, with so many sects existing side by side, some people doubted whether any denomination had a monopoly over truth and grace.
- Most Congregationalist ministers in Massachusetts denounced the revivalists for permitting uneducated men to take it upon themselves to preach the Word of God and thus create confusion with errors that would lead people away from their regular churches.
- The widely preached doctrine of salvation for all—of equal opportunity to share in God's grace—encouraged the notion of equal rights to share in the good life on earth.

1. The Great Awakening revivalists in New England were known as New Light preachers. Describe their concept of God.

2. What were the revivalists' ideas about the individual's reason for existence?

3. What did revivalist groups believe about the individual's relationship with the church?

4. Describe New Light preachers' ideas about the need for education.

5. What were their ideas about the individual's role in government?

6. What were their ideas about the individual's responsibility for improving society?

Part B.

Directions: Revivalist preacher Jonathan Edwards, the grandson of another evangelical, chose to lead his followers toward New Light theology. Read the following selections from his most famous sermon. When he preached it in 1741, his hearers wept, groaned, and were overcome with fear. Be prepared to discuss how the language he used induced this reaction.

From "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God"

> . . . There is no want of power in God to cast wicked men into hell at any moment. Men's hands cannot be strong when God rises up. The strongest have no power to resist Him, nor can any deliver out of His hands. He is not only able to cast wicked men into hell, but He can most easily do it. . . . There is no fortress that is any defense from the power of God. Though hand join in hand, and vast multitudes of God's enemies combine and associate themselves, they are easily broken in pieces. They are as great heaps of light chaff before the whirlwind; or large quantities of dry stubble before devouring flames. We find it easy to tread on and crush a worm that we see crawling on the earth; so it is easy for us to cut or singe a slender thread that any thing hangs by: thus easy is it for God, when He pleases, to cast His enemies down to hell. What are we, that we should think to stand before Him, at whose rebuke the earth trembles, and before whom the rocks are thrown down? . . .
>
> The use of this awful subject may be for awakening unconverted persons in this congregation. This that you have heard is the case of every one of you that are out of Christ. That world of misery, that lake of burning brimstone, is extended abroad under you. There is the dreadful pit of the glowing flames of the wrath of God; there is hell's wide gaping mouth open; and you have nothing to stand upon, nor any thing to take hold of; there is nothing between you and hell but the air; it is only the power and mere pleasure of God that holds you up. . . .

Your wickedness makes you as it were heavy as lead, and to tend downwards with great weight and pressure towards hell; and if God should let you go, you would immediately sink and swiftly descend and plunge into the bottomless gulf, and your healthy constitution, and your own care and prudence, and best contrivance, and all your righteousness, would have no more influence to uphold you and keep you out of hell, than a spider's web would have to stop a falling rock. . . . And the world would spew you out, were it not for the sovereign hand of Him who hath subjected it in hope. There are black clouds of God's wrath now hanging directly over your heads, full of the dreadful storm, and big with thunder; and were it not for the restraining hand of God, it would immediately burst forth upon you. The sovereign pleasure of God, for the present, stays His rough wind; otherwise it would come with fury, and your destruction would come like a whirlwind, and you would be like the chaff of the summer threshing floor.

The wrath of God is like great waters that are dammed for the present; they increase more and more, and rise higher and higher, till an outlet is given; and the longer the stream is stopped, the more rapid and mighty is its course when once it is let loose. It is true that judgment against your evil works has not been executed hitherto; the floods of God's vengeance have been withheld; but your guilt in the mean time is constantly increasing, and you are every day treasuring up more wrath; the waters are constantly rising, and waxing more and more mighty; and there is nothing but the mere pleasure of God, that holds the waters back, that are unwilling to be stopped, and press hard to go forward. . . .

The bow of God's wrath is bent, and the arrow made ready on the string, and justice bends the arrow at your heart, and strains the bow, and it is nothing but the mere pleasure of God, and that of an angry God, without any promise or obligation at all, that keeps the arrow one moment from being made drunk with your blood. . . . The God that holds you over the pit of hell, much as one holds a spider or some loathsome insect over the fire, abhors you, and is dreadfully provoked: His wrath towards you burns like fire; He looks upon you as worthy of nothing else but to be cast into the fire; He is of purer eyes than to bear to have you in His sight; you are ten thousand times more abominable in His eyes, than the most hateful venomous serpent is in ours. You have offended Him infinitely more than ever a stubborn rebel did his prince; and yet it is nothing but His hand that holds you from falling into the fire every moment. It is to be ascribed to nothing else, that you did not go to hell the last night; that you was suffered to awake again in this world, after you closed your eyes to sleep. And there is no other reason to be given, why you have not dropped into hell since you arose in the morning, but that God's hand has held you up. There is no other reason to be given why you have not gone to hell, since you have sat here in the house of God, provoking His pure eyes by your sinful wicked manner of attending His solemn worship. Yea, there is nothing else that is to be given as a reason why you do not this very moment drop down into hell.

. . . And now you have an extraordinary opportunity, a day wherein Christ has thrown the door of mercy wide open, and stands in calling and crying with a loud voice to poor sinners; a day wherein many are flocking to Him, and pressing into the kingdom of God. Your guilt and hardness of heart is extremely great. Do you not see how generally persons of your years [young people] are passed over and left, in the present remarkable and wonderful dispensation of God's mercy? You had need to consider yourselves, and awake thoroughly out of sleep. You cannot bear the fierceness and wrath of the infinite God. And you, young men, and young women, will you neglect this precious season which you now enjoy, when so many others of your age are renouncing all youthful vanities, and flocking to Christ? You especially have now an extraordinary opportunity; but if you neglect it, it will soon be with you as with those persons who spent all the precious days of youth in sin, and are now come to such a dreadful pass in blindness and hardness.

Lesson 19

The Middle Colonies in the Mid-Eighteenth Century

Objectives

- To review the important tenets of the philosophical movement known as the Enlightenment
- To assess the role of Enlightenment thinking in shaping the eighteenth-century American city

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-4: Analyze how changing religious ideals, Enlightenment beliefs, and republican thought shaped the politics, culture, and society of the colonial era through the early Republic

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-2: Explain how the exchange of ideas among different parts of the Atlantic World shaped belief systems and independence movements into the early 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

The symbol of light is an archetype often associated with intelligence, thought, and understanding. Many of the major world religions also use light as a key symbol. Prometheus gave fire (and thus light) to humans. Christians see Jesus as "the Light of the World." Quakers search for "the Light Within." The Jewish feast of Chanukah is the "Festival of Lights." A candle is a symbol of the Buddha's teaching. The symbol of light has other uses as well; note the torch the Statue of Liberty lifts to the world. The term *Enlightenment* designates a period in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries when reason was usually elevated over faith.

In Europe, the era known as the Enlightenment grew out of the Scientific Revolution. Scientists like Isaac Newton came to see the world as a giant clock, brought into life by a Creator and given a set of fundamental laws. With the application of reason and observation, those laws could be understood and utilized. Eventually, philosophers began to see reason and observation as ways of understanding and eventually improving human existence; enlightened monarchs like Frederick II of Prussia tried to apply these principles to government.

In America, the passion for science that would yield practical results was particularly intense. Benjamin Franklin was preeminent among Americans in part because of his political acuity and wit, but also because of his experiments with electricity, his efforts at civic improvement, and his inventions to improve daily life. He organized a group of friends called the Junto to meet regularly to pursue scientific and philosophical questions; this eventually grew into the American Philosophical Society in Philadelphia, an organization that still flourishes.

Franklin was born in Massachusetts in 1706 to a family with seventeen children. At twelve, he was apprenticed to his brother to learn printing. When his brother started a newspaper, Franklin wrote popular letters for it under the pseudonym of Silence Dogood. At seventeen, he left for Philadelphia, where he became a well-known and successful printer; his newspaper, the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, became popular. He published *Poor Richard's Almanac*; he played a leading role in founding a subscription library, a fire company, a fire insurance company, and Pennsylvania Hospital. Eventually, he retired from business to have more time to dedicate to science.

Becoming more active in politics, he represented Pennsylvania and several other colonies in England from 1757 to 1762 and 1765 to 1774. After his return, he was elected to the Second Continental Congress, where he helped draft the Declaration of Independence. He then was sent to represent the new country in France, where he secured military and financial support for the Revolution. He signed the Peace Treaty in 1783 and returned home, becoming a signer of the Constitution in 1787. In his eighties, he was a firm proponent of abolition. Twenty thousand mourners attended his funeral in 1790.

In this lesson, students review the basic ideas of the Enlightenment and synthesize these ideas in an outline for a speech. They then focus on Benjamin Franklin as an Enlightenment thinker and inventor. Finally, they study the questions that Franklin proposed to guide a group of fellow "ingenious men" and design a contemporary version of questions for a thoughtful discussion group.

Procedure

1. Draw a simple face on the board, and then draw a lightbulb over it. Ask the class what the lightbulb signifies. Ask students to explain why we associate light with intelligence, thought, and understanding. (We can only see in the light; light clears up confusion.) Tell students that the purpose of this lesson is to review the Enlightenment, a European intellectual development, and see how it fared when it crossed the Atlantic.

2. Distribute **Handout 33**, and divide students into groups. Review the material in part A with the class. Then read students the directions for part B. Emphasize that they may use information from part A as well as from their textbooks and other sources. When students have had sufficient time to work, have them share their ideas in a whole-class discussion.

3. Tell students the next goal of the lesson is to look at the Enlightenment in the British colonies in America. Ask them to suggest the names of other Enlightenment figures (Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Dr. Benjamin Rush). Share basic biographical information about Benjamin Franklin. Ask students to brainstorm as many of Franklin's inventions and discoveries as they can.

4. Distribute **Handout 34**. Give students time to read the information and answer the questions.

Suggested Responses

1. Franklin was curious, had a practical turn of mind, and liked to solve problems. He was persistent in his studies. He was interested in science with practical applications rather than in pure theory. Although he could have taken out patents on his inventions of the lightning rod and stove, he preferred to let others benefit from them freely.
2. Most students will probably say his work with electricity, but answers will vary. Let students explain the reasoning behind their choices.
3. Many basic principles are present, particularly the need for the use of observation and reason and the drive to improve society.
4. American scientists tended to be less interested in subjects like astronomy and more interested in applying science to practical problems.
5. The colonial elite were most likely to be Enlightenment thinkers. Their children attended Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, and later the College of Philadelphia. Even the colleges that had been created to train ministers eventually added faculty influenced by the Enlightenment. They could afford to keep up with imported British books.

5. Point out that, while the American colonies were mostly rural, there were a number of major cities. How did the Enlightenment and Enlightenment thinkers affect a city like Philadelphia? Emphasize the establishment of fire departments, public libraries, better postal routes, hospitals, schools, and colleges, as well as a willingness to change from traditional ways of doing things in order to solve civic problems.

6. To conclude the lesson, distribute **Handout 35**. Divide students into groups of three to five, and allow them time to write questions for a modern-day discussion group. If time permits, select some of these questions for whole-group discussion. Ask students whether any of their questions could lead to civic improvements.

Ideals of the Enlightenment

Part A.
Directions: Read the following information.

In 1749, Benjamin Franklin proposed the founding of the College of Philadelphia. He intended it to differ from the colleges of New England, which were founded to train clergymen. Franklin proposed that classes would be taught in English rather than Latin or Greek and would include useful subjects like natural history, geology, geography, and modern languages. The City of Philadelphia agreed, and in 1757, the first class graduated from the College of Philadelphia, which eventually became the University of Pennsylvania.

The eighteenth-century Enlightenment produced a new climate of thought in which people believed that God endowed humans with keen powers of observation and reason. Following are some characteristic ideas of Enlightenment thinkers:

- People could observe the world and, by applying reason, could extract the natural laws that govern phenomena.
- People were seen as capable of perfecting human society by applying the rules of reason and removing human-created obstacles to a harmonious society.
- John Locke maintained that natural law ordained a government resting on the consent of the governed and respecting the inherent rights of all.
- God created the world but left it to function according to the laws of nature.
- Humans could perfect this world by finding obstacles, removing them, and allowing natural laws to operate freely.
- Men of the Enlightenment viewed the universe as a great clock, created by God, but allowed to operate freely. The object of the Enlightenment was to liberate the natural laws which would then apply themselves equally and thus create a new order with harmony and balance.
- God—the "Watchmaker"—was no longer present. One could not communicate with him.
- Any unnatural laws, such as the regulations of the mercantile system, conflicted with natural laws and had to be removed to allow for the formation of a perfectly functioning economy.

Part B.
Directions: Imagine that you have been selected to give the valedictory address for the first graduating class of the College of Philadelphia. Outline a speech that summarizes Enlightenment beliefs about each of the following points.

a. The Enlightenment concept of God
b. The individual's reason for existence
c. The individual's relationship to the church
d. The need for education
e. The individual's role in government
f. The individual's responsibility for improving society

Benjamin Franklin and the American Enlightenment

Directions: To most Americans, Benjamin Franklin is best known as one of the Founding Fathers, instrumental in influencing the colonies toward independence, representing the incipient nation overseas to secure French assistance, and even supplying the famous phrase "self-evident" to describe the beliefs underlying the Declaration of Independence. To Europeans of his time, he was best known as a scientist who had earned his reputation with his broad range of interests and serious pursuit of scientific investigation. Study the list of his inventions, discoveries, and innovations and his proposals for two scholarly societies. Then answer the questions that follow.

Franklin's Practical Science

- Organized the first fire department, the Union Fire Company, in Philadelphia
- Experimented with electricity; coined the terms *positive, negative, conductor*, *condenser*, *electric shock,* and *electrician* (In the course of his experiments, he occasionally received electric shocks.)
- Described the concept of an electric battery
- Invented the lightning rod to channel lightning into the ground and thus minimize fires; refused to patent it or attempt to profit from it
- Used kite experiment to prove that lightning is electricity
- Developed first American catheter, based on European ones, to help his sick brother
- Organized first fire insurance company in Philadelphia
- Invented bifocals so that he would not have to change glasses for reading
- Invented new stove that would heat houses more effectively (Once again, he declined a patent.)
- Invented the armonica, a musical instrument using thirty-six precisely sized glasses to create musical notes (Mozart and Beethoven composed music for it.)
- Measured water temperature and currents to describe and map the Gulf Stream
- Encouraged the use of daylight savings time
- Invented odometer to measure mileage in an effort to improve mail delivery
- Created and printed the first political cartoon, "Join or Die," in his *Philadelphia Gazette*
- Encouraged the consumption of citrus fruits—including limes, oranges, and grapefruits—to maintain health, although vitamin C was yet to be discovered
- Invented swim fins (for the hands, not for the feet)
- Invented extension arm for retrieving books from high shelves, as well as a convertible library chair
- Improved the design of street lamps so that they would not darken with soot so quickly

The Junto

As a young man of 21, Franklin founded the Junto, a group of inquisitive young minds who agreed to meet to discuss questions of science and philosophy. He wrote about it in his autobiography:

> I should have mentioned before that, in the autumn of the preceding year [1727], I had form'd most of my ingenious acquaintance into a club of mutual improvement, which we called the JUNTO. We met on Friday evenings. The rules that I drew up required that every member, in his turn, should produce one or more queries on any point of Morals, Politics, or Natural Philosophy [physics], to be discuss'd by the company; and once in three months produce and read an essay of his own writing on any subject he pleased. Our debates were to be under the direction of a president and to be conducted in the sincere spirit of inquiry after truth, without fondness for dispute, or desire of victory; and, to prevent warmth [heatedness], all expressions of positiveness in opinions, or direct contradiction, were after some time made contraband and prohibited under small pecuniary penalties [monetary fines].[1]

The American Philosophical Society

In 1743, the Junto was replaced by the American Philosophical Society. Franklin explained his reasons for suggesting the society in a pamphlet, *A Proposal for Promoting Useful Knowledge among the British Plantations in America*:

> The first Drudgery of Settling new Colonies, which confines the Attention of People to mere Necessaries, is now pretty well over; and there are many in every Province in Circumstances that set them at Ease, and afford Leisure to cultivate the finer Arts and improve the common Stock of Knowledge. To such of these who are Men of Speculation, any Hints must from time to time arise, many Observations occur, which if well-examined, pursued and improved, might produce Discoveries to the Advantage of some or all of the British Plantations, or to the Benefit of Mankind in general.
>
> But as from the Extent of the Country, such Persons are widely separated, and seldom can see and converse or be acquainted with each other, so that many useful Particulars remain uncommunicated, die with the Discoverers, and are lost to Mankind. It is, to remedy this Inconvenience for the future, proposed,
>
> *That* One Society be formed of Virtuosi or ingenious Men residing in the several Colonies, to be called *The American Philosophical Society*, who are to maintain a constant Correspondence.
>
> *That Philadelphia* being the City nearest the Centre of the Continent-Colonies, communicating with all of them northward and southward by Post, and with all the Islands by Sea, and having the Advantage of a good growing Library, be the Centre of the Society.[2]

[1]"Benjamin Franklin's Junto Club and Lending Library of Philadelphia," *National Humanities Center*, <http://nationalhumanitiescenter.org/pds/becomingamer/ideas/text4/juntolibrary.pdf> (31 August 2010).

[2]"A Proposal for Promoting Useful Knowledge among the British Plantations in America," *National Humanities Center*, <http://nationalhumanitiescenter.org/pds/becomingamer/ideas/text4/amerphilsociety.pdf> (31 August 2010).

1. Judging from what you have learned about Ben Franklin, how would you describe his mind?

2. Which of his inventions and discoveries do you think had the most impact?

3. How does the creation of scholarly organizations reflect the philosophy of the European Enlightenment?

4. How did this American Enlightenment differ from the one in Europe?

5. What groups of people would be most likely to adopt the ideas of the Enlightenment?

An Invitation to a Junto Meeting

Directions: Imagine that you have been invited to participate in a meeting of a modern Junto. Read the following list of questions that Benjamin Franklin devised to guide discussions at Junto meetings. Then list five to ten questions that would be suitable to guide a modern discussion group. Be sure your questions would promote thoughtful and open-ended discussion.

Franklin's Junto Questions

1. Have you met with any thing in the author you last read, remarkable, or suitable to be communicated to the Junto? particularly in history, morality, poetry, physics, travels, mechanic arts, or other parts of knowledge?
2. What new story have you lately heard agreeable for telling in conversation?
3. Hath any citizen in your knowledge failed in his business lately, and what have you heard of the cause?
4. Have you lately heard of any citizen's thriving well, and by what means?
5. Have you lately heard how any present rich man, here or elsewhere, got his estate?
6. Do you know of any fellow citizen, who has lately done a worthy action, deserving praise and imitation? or who has committed an error proper for us to be warned against and avoid?
7. What unhappy effects of intemperance have you lately observed or heard? of imprudence? of passion? or of any other vice or folly?
8. What happy effects of temperance? of prudence? of moderation? or of any other virtue?
9. Have you or any of your acquaintance been lately sick or wounded? If so, what remedies were used, and what were their effects?
10. Who do you know that are shortly going [on] voyages or journeys, if one should have occasion to send by them?
11. Do you think of any thing at present, in which the Junto may be serviceable to *mankind*? to their country, to their friends, or to themselves?
12. Hath any deserving stranger arrived in town since last meeting, that you heard of? and what have you heard or observed of his character or merits? and whether think you, it lies in the power of the Junto to oblige him, or encourage him as he deserves?
13. Do you know of any deserving young beginner lately set up, whom it lies in the power of the Junto any way to encourage?
14. Have you lately observed any defect in the laws of your *country*, [of] which it would be proper to move the legislature for an amendment? Or do you know of any beneficial law that is wanting?
15. Have you lately observed any encroachment on the just liberties of the people?
16. Hath any body attacked your reputation lately? and what can the Junto do towards securing it?
17. Is there any man whose friendship you want, and which the Junto or any of them, can procure for you?
18. Have you lately heard any member's character attacked, and how have you defended it?
19. Hath any man injured you, from whom it is in the power of the Junto to procure redress?
20. In what manner can the Junto, or any of them, assist you in any of your honourable designs?
21. Have you any weighty affair in hand, in which you think the advice of the Junto may be of service?
22. What benefits have you lately received from any man not present?
23. Is there any difficulty in matters of opinion, of justice, and injustice, which you would gladly have discussed at this time?
24. Do you see any thing amiss in the present customs or proceedings of the Junto, which might be amended?[1]

[1]Benjamin Franklin, *Political, Miscellaneous, and Philosophical Pieces,* ed. Benjamin Vaughan (London: 1779), 533–36.

Lesson 20

The Southern Colonies in the Mid-Eighteenth Century

Objectives

- To recognize various agricultural environments in the South
- To explain how these environments shaped economic and cultural life
- To explore differences between the lives of slaves of the Chesapeake and those of the Carolinas and Georgia in the mid-eighteenth century

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-5: Analyze the role of economic, political, social, and ethnic factors on the formation of regional identities in what would become the United States from the colonial period through the 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

In this lesson, students participate in a role-playing activity to help them understand the variety of experiences in the Southern Colonies and to counteract *Gone with the Wind*–style stereotypes. All students take part as eighteenth-century figures or as interviewers. As you assign roles, be sure that students' ethnic backgrounds are not a factor. Names and genders of the fictional characters can be changed, if necessary. Tell students not to attempt to speak with a dialect; it can be distracting, and accents were different in the eighteenth century. Encourage role-players to get a sense of the personalities of the historical figures and to define appropriate characterization for the fictional figures.

Plantation owners, the first group of interviewees, are based on real historical figures, two of whom left ample historical documentation of their lives.

- William Byrd of Westover, founder of Richmond, Virginia, was a lawyer, planter, and diarist. He kept a secret diary in code for many years detailing his life at Westover and his relationships with family, friends, and slaves.

- William Byrd's eldest daughter, Evelyn, was a romantic figure who almost eloped with an unsuitable Englishman and then pined away on her father's plantation. Many Web sites are more about the romantic legend than about reality. The role-player will have to flesh information out with data about the life of an upper-class woman in colonial Virginia.
- Eliza Lucas Pinckney, a plantation owner and manager, introduced indigo to South Carolina. Despite limitations usually experienced by colonial women, her education and personality made her economically successful, and her children went on to become political leaders in the new United States.

The second group of interviewees will play the roles of slaves. Three are not based on real historical individuals. Slaves generally had only first names. Jemmy (sometimes called Cato) and Olaudah Equiano are real historical figures. Encourage students to use good printed and online resources about the history of slavery.

- Josh, a fictional slave on a small tobacco farm in colonial Virginia, would do the same work and probably eat the same food as his master. Organization was by the gang system, with workers kept in the fields all day with close supervision in the labor-intensive nature of tobacco culture.
- Ellen, a fictional house slave on a South Carolina indigo plantation, would have had easier tasks, better food, and nicer clothing than field hands; however, house slaves also had no privacy and little family time. Cooking was only one of the tasks of house slaves; other tasks involved cleaning, manufacture of clothing and other necessities, and child care.
- William, a fictional field slave on a South Carolina rice plantation, would have been part of a task system of organization; slaves were given specific tasks to accomplish each day and, when the tasks had been satisfactorily completed, they might have some remaining time free. The role-player will need information about the daily life and work on a rice plantation.
- Jemmy or "Cato" was the historical African leader of the Stono Rebellion. In 1739, a group of about fifty slaves killed a number of whites in the hopes of gaining freedom, perhaps in the Spanish colonies. The rebellion was put down but resulted in a heightened sense of anxiety among whites and increased restrictions on slaves.
- Olaudah Equiano, a former slave who purchased his own freedom, wrote a book about his experiences and became active as an abolitionist. He was an international figure, having lived in Africa, the West Indies, Philadelphia, and England. The role-player should focus on his vivid narrative of the slave trade.

The final group of interviewees includes people outside the plantation system. While tobacco, rice, and indigo dominated the Southern economy during the colonial period, students need to remember that many people existed outside the plantation economy by necessity or choice. In this group, only Sarah Carter is fictional; the others are real historical individuals.

- Benjamin Powell was a carpenter in Williamsburg, Virginia. Skilled carpenters were much in demand in the South. In the Chesapeake colonies, slave owners often trained as much as 10 percent of their workers in trades like carpentry and cooperage to keep plantations self-sufficient. Farther South, it was customary to hire independent carpenters, both white and free black.
- Charles Woodmason, an Anglican preacher, kept a journal of his travels in the Carolina backcountry from 1766 to 1768. An immigrant from England, he prospered as a merchant and plantation owner but lost status and wealth when he applied for an appointment as stamp distributor under the Stamp Act in 1765. He then abandoned the Tidewater area to serve as an itinerant preacher on South Carolina's western frontier.
- Sarah Carter, a fictional wife in backcountry Carolina, would show that women on the frontier played a major economic role in sustaining life, but this area of history is understudied compared to that in the Tidewater area. Some helpful information can be found in an essay by Johanna Miller Lewis, "Women and Economic Freedom in the North Carolina Backcountry," a chapter in Larry D. Eldridge's *Women and Freedom in Early America*. Additional resources include *Artisans in the North Carolina Backcountry* by Johanna Miller Lewis, *Georgia's Frontier Women: Female Fortunes in a Southern Colony* by Ben Marsh, and *Women's Life and Work in the Southern Colonies* by Julia Cherry Spruill.
- Daniel Boone, a hunter, guide, and surveyor, was responsible for opening up the Wilderness Road that led settlers west of the Appalachians. He wrote a book about his experiences.
- Mary Musgrove, the daughter of an English trader and a Creek Indian, became a trader, businesswoman, interpreter, and landowner. She was also a diplomat in negotiations between the colony of Georgia and the Creeks.
- Attakullakulla, a Cherokee warrior and chief, traveled to London as a young man. On his return, he was instrumental in negotiating between the Cherokee and the British to secure the best trade arrangements possible.

The lesson begins by disputing the validity of the stereotype of the colonial South as a "land of cotton." The heart of the lesson is a set of role-playing interviews. The lesson concludes with a look at architectural evidence for the diversity of the Southern experience. Before the lesson, have students read the material in their textbooks about the Southern colonies in the eighteenth century. Also, locate pictures of eighteenth-century southern homes, including Daniel Boone's 1773 cabin and Thomas Jefferson's Monticello.

Procedure

1. Ask students whether they know the lyrics of the first verse of the song "Dixie." ("I wish I was in the land of cotton, old times there are not forgotten / Look away! Look away! Look away! Dixie Land.") Conduct a discussion about the phrase "land of cotton." Was the South a "land of cotton" in the eighteenth century? (No. Short staple cotton, which could be grown in many areas of the South, was unprofitable until the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1793. Long staple or sea island cotton, which could only be grown in limited areas, was introduced only toward the end of the century.) Ask students to create titles for the Southern Colonies in the eighteenth century (Maryland and Virginia—land of tobacco; North Carolina—land of hides and timber; South Carolina and Georgia—land of rice and indigo).

2. Distribute **Handout 36**, and have students read the information. Ask for volunteers to play the roles of the people listed on the handout, a job that requires a combination of research and judicious imagination. Explain that the remaining students will be interviewers; they will need to conduct research in order to create open-ended questions for the interviewees so that the class will develop a clear view of the real colonial South.

3. When students have finished their preparation, stage interviews. Remind student role-players that their goal is to convey the struggles, accomplishments, and personalities of their characters. Remind interviewers of the importance of speaking clearly and loudly, asking open-ended questions, and posing follow-up questions.

4. To conclude the lesson, show students pictures of Southern homes such as the Daniel Boone cabin and Thomas Jefferson's Monticello. Ask students which one best represents the Southern colonies. (Both are representative of how people lived.) Remind students to keep this variety in mind when they study the South in future lessons.

Voices of the Colonial South

Directions: Read the following thumbnail sketches of historical and fictional people in the South during the eighteenth century.

William Byrd II of Westover

Location	Charles City County, Virginia
Role	Tobacco planter, lawyer, diarist; founder of the city of Richmond
Research Hint	Conduct an online search for William Byrd II. (Be careful to get the right person.) Read some of his diary entries, especially those involving slaves.

Evelyn Byrd

Location	Westover Plantation, Virginia
Role	Daughter of William Byrd
Research Hint	Look for Evelyn Byrd on the Internet, and supplement your findings with information from books about the lives of women in colonial Virginia. Use your imagination too, but watch out for overly romantic myths.

Eliza Lucas Pinckney

Location	South Carolina
Role	Operator of three plantations; developer of indigo as a crop for export
Research Hint	Search the Internet for Pinckney's letters as well as for her biography.

Josh

Location	Virginia
Role	Fictional field slave on a small tobacco farm, working with a master and two other slaves
Research Hint	Use a good general book on slavery such as *The Peculiar Institution: Slavery in the Antebellum South* by Kenneth Stampp or *Roll, Jordan, Roll: The World the Slaves Made* by Eugene Genovese. Also search the Internet for information about colonial tobacco culture.

Ellen

Location	Indigo plantation in South Carolina
Role	Fictional house servant on a large plantation
Research Hint	Use a good general book on slavery. Also search the Internet for information about women's work in colonial times.

William

Location	Large rice plantation in South Carolina
Role	Fictional field slave employed in rice cultivation
Research Hint	Use a good general book on slavery. Also search the Internet for information about rice cultivation.

Jemmy or Cato

Location	South Carolina
Role	African slave, leader of the Stono Rebellion in 1739
Research Hint	Use the Internet to find information about the Stono Rebellion.

Olaudah Equiano

Location	Various
Role	Former slave, author, and abolitionist
Research Hint	Find Equiano's autobiography online, and read about his experiences during the Middle Passage.

Benjamin Powell

Location	Williamsburg, Virginia
Role	Highly skilled carpenter
Research Hint	Learn more about the Benjamin Powell House, which still exists in Colonial Williamsburg, Virginia.

Charles Woodmason

Location	Backcountry South Carolina
Role	Anglican preacher
Research Hint	Read selections from his journal to learn not only about the life of a traveling minister but also about the people he served on the Carolina frontier.

Sarah Carter

Location	North Carolina frontier
Role	Fictional housewife, married to John Carter
Research Hint	Look for books and Web sites with information about the life and work of women in the Carolina/Georgia backcountry.

Daniel Boone

Location	Kentucky
Role	Hunter, guide, and surveyor
Research Hint	Boone led an exceptionally active life but was able to find time to write his autobiography. Look for it on the Internet.

Mary Musgrove

Location	Georgia
Role	Trader, interpreter, and negotiator
Research Hint	Her Creek name was Coosaponakeesa, so some Web sites may list her under that name.

Attakullakulla

Location	Tennessee
Role	Warrior, chief, and diplomat of the Cherokee
Research Hint	His earlier name was Oukounaco, and he traveled to London under that name.

Part 3

Revolution and Constitution, 1763–1800

A tradition of salutary neglect, an increase in taxation to pay for foreign wars, and the growth of an independent spirit in the American colonies contributed to a growing movement that demanded separation from the faraway British crown. By the mid-eighteenth century, a European war against the French had spread to the North American continent. British attempts to collect increased taxes and trade duties to help pay the enormous cost of the war resulted in a colonial rebellion. In declaring their independence, the colonies took an enormous risk. The rebellion soon became an all-out war, involving not just the American colonies and Great Britain, but several of Britain's European enemies as well. The American victory, aided by help from the French, Spanish, and Dutch, resulted in the formation of a loose confederation of states with a weak central government and no court system. A new document of governance, the Constitution, was written and ratified at the end of the eighteenth century and was quickly tested by a rebellion over a whiskey tax.

Lesson 21

British Colonial Policy: A Tradition of Neglect

Objective

- To demonstrate that Britain's long-standing failure to attend to colonial affairs contributed to deteriorating relations with the American colonies after the French and Indian War

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 1: Historical Causation

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-1: Explain how imperial competition and the exchange of commodities across both sides of the Atlantic Ocean influenced the origins and patterns of development of North American societies in the colonial period

Notes to the Teacher

Seventeenth-century mercantile theory suggested that nations could become rich, powerful, and self-sufficient with the acquisition of large colonial empires. At the time of the establishment of the thirteen American colonies, Parliament and the Stuart kings were involved in a civil war and revolution to determine the character of the modern British state: Was it to be run by a divine right absolute monarch or by a Parliament subject to constitutional restrictions? These conflicts caused the British to emphasize, for decades, domestic rather than colonial problems. From 1689 to 1713, Britain's major concern focused on resolving problems of the Glorious Revolution and preventing the French king, Louis XIV, from upsetting the balance of power. As a result of Britain's internal problems and foreign concerns, the American colonies were allowed to develop their own political institutions and a substantial degree of free enterprise. Prime Minister Robert Walpole's preference for salutary neglect only continued a policy that had long been in effect. This lesson assumes that students have some knowledge of the mercantile system, the development of colonial political institutions, and Britain's imperial wars of the eighteenth century.

In this lesson, students assume the role of a French observer traveling in the American colonies in late 1763. They develop a list of questions they might ask while interviewing the royal governor of New York and a member of the Massachusetts legislature to explain deteriorating relations between Britain and the colonies.

Procedure

1. Ask students why the relationship between the American colonies and Great Britain was deteriorating at the end of the eighteenth century. (The British government placed emphasis on domestic issues rather than colonial problems. As a consequence, Britain's colonies were left on their own to develop their institutions.) Inform students that they will be assuming the role of a French observer who is traveling in the American colonies immediately after the British victory in the French and Indian War.

2. Distribute **Handout 37**. Have students read part A and take notes on the information about colonial developments prior to the French and Indian War. Divide the class into small groups to discuss the notes and to develop a list of the required questions for each interviewee.

Suggested Responses

Royal Governor

- Why has England been so slow in developing a policy of economic regulation for her American colonies?
- How can the New England colonies, which lack a staple crop for export, fit into the British mercantile model?
- In retrospect, how wise do you find Sir Robert Walpole's policy of salutary neglect?
- How do you expect to keep colonies like Pennsylvania content in the subordinate position of mercantile colony?
- What effect has distance had on the implementation of the British colonial policy?
- As of today (1763), what do you believe constitutes an effective policy toward the thirteen American colonies?

Massachusetts Legislator

- Why do most American colonials continue to view themselves as loyal British subjects?
- To what extent does the notion of permanent subordination to the needs of the mother country bother you?

- How do you react to the criticism that the American colonies have been self-centered and ungrateful for the benefits they have received from England?
- To what extent have the American colonies taken advantage of distance and Britain's lack of supervision to gain an unusual degree of autonomy?
- In what respect do you view life in the colonies as better than that in England?
- In what way do you anticipate that Britain's recent victory in the French and Indian War (the Seven Years' War on the Continent) will alter colonial attitudes toward the mother country?

3. Reassemble the class into a large group to try to develop a consensus list of the most perceptive questions to ask each individual.

4. Conclude the lesson by assigning part B. Invite volunteers to share their conclusions about the likely effects of the French and Indian War on British-colonial relations.

Suggested Response

In view of the removal of foreign enemies from their borders, American colonists can be expected to have become less, rather than more, sympathetic to the financial and imperial problems of the mother country.

British Colonial Policy: A Tradition of Neglect

Part A.

Directions: Assume that you are a French observer traveling in the American colonies in late 1763. On your return home, you expect to write a series of articles on the status of the American colonies in the British Empire. You will interview both the royal governor of New York and a member of the Massachusetts legislature. In doing background research for your interviews, you have listed several critical pieces of information regarding both British and colonial developments. Your task now is to list the six most perceptive questions you can formulate to ask each official.

Essential British Developments, 1607–1763

- "Sir Robert Walpole, who became the king's chief minister in 1721, believed that it was to England's interest to let the colonies flourish without interference; his policy of 'salutary neglect' continued until the 1760s."[1]
- "The English government wrongfully assumed that once the colonies were established, often without any help other than a written charter, they could be ignored much of the time. Most people in England had little interest in the colonies; the few who had direct dealings with settlers in the New World were merchants, concerned only with markets or raw materials."[2]
- "The recent war [French and Indian War] had almost doubled the English national debt, which had stood at £70,000,000 in 1756 and had risen to £130,000,000 in 1763. Taxpayers already grumbled at the rates and would certainly grumble more if asked to bear the total burden of imperial defense. Means would have to be found, it seemed to the ministers, to shift some of the expense to the colonists, who had also profited from the war and whom the garrisoned posts would protect."[3]
- "Neither Crown nor Parliament created much in the way of special machinery for colonial affairs, and for the most part regular executive agencies expanded their activities to include the colonies. Final authority over the colonies resided in the Privy Council, but the actual task of supervision was carried on by committees of the Council, regular agencies, and one specially constituted board [Board of Trade]."[4]
- "The result of this conjunction of too much organization for detail and too little concern for unity—especially when intensified by distance, slowness of communication, inferiority of personnel, corruption, bribery, and colonial obstinacy—was a large measure of self-government for the colonies."[5]

[1]Charles Sellers, Henry May, and Neil R. McMillen, *A Synopsis of American History, Vol. 1*, 3rd ed. (Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1974), 21.
[2]Charles S. Miller and Natalie Joy Ward, *History of America: Challenge and Crisis, Vol. 1* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1971), 94.
[3]Oscar Handlin, *The History of the United States, Vol. 1* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967), 193.
[4]Clinton Rossiter, *The First American Revolution: The American Colonies on the Eve of Independence* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1956), 106.
[5]Ibid., 108.

Essential Colonial Developments, 1607–1763

- "Connecticut and Rhode Island, both founded without authority from the Crown, were granted royal charters of incorporation at the time of the Restoration. . . . In these two colonies the pattern of self-government was most firmly established. Although the Crown retained considerable authority over their military, diplomatic, and commercial affairs, the extent of supervision was spotty and discontinuous."[6]
- "By 1765 the assembly was dominant in almost every colony in continental America. The royal power of disallowance was still strong enough to prevent a complete overriding of the governor and other imperial officials, but shrewd observers were beginning to realize that only the full power of Parliament was now equal to the centrifugal practices of the assemblies."[7]
- "In the old colonial system a colony was to be a colony in the most obvious sense of the word: a perpetually subordinate agricultural and extractive area that served the mother country as a source of raw materials, a safety valve for excess or unwanted population, and a market for finished goods."[8]
- "The key economic fact about colonial New England was that it was an area fitted by nature for commerce rather than agriculture. New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts formed the most unsatisfactory group of colonies, 'the most prejudicial Plantation to this Kingdom,' from the English point of view, for they produced no important staple for export."[9]
- "Whatever the state of economic theory in colonial America, economic fact pointed toward the future. The long-run trend of the colonial economy was one of expansion—in population, productivity, capital accumulation, opportunity, social mobility, goals of enterprise, and openmindedness of economic thought."[10]
- "The region lying between Albany and Baltimore supported the best-balanced economy in colonial America. Like New England a booming commercial area, it was far less dependent on circuitous trading to pile up remittances to England. . . . Toward the middle of the eighteenth century it took the lead from New England in the number and productivity of its manufacturing enterprises. Climate, soil, topography, and ingenuity combined to make the middle colonies, especially Pennsylvania, the soundest economic unit in the imperial structure."[11]

Part B.

Directions: Develop a one-sentence conclusion that explains why the recent British victory in the French and Indian War appears to foreshadow difficult times ahead in British-colonial relations.

[6]Rossiter, *First American Revolution,* 103.
[7]Ibid., 117–18.
[8]Ibid., 31.
[9]Ibid., 40.
[10]Ibid., 39.
[11]Ibid., 44–45.

Lesson 22

The Path to Revolution, 1763–1776

Objective

- To understand the causes of the American Revolution

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 1: Historical Causation

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-2: Explain how the exchange of ideas among different parts of the Atlantic World shaped belief systems and independence movements into the early 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

During many decades of internal strife and foreign wars, Britain allowed the American colonies considerable latitude to develop without interference. In that time, the colonies indeed established a mature society in many respects different from that of the mother country. In this context, the end of the French and Indian War in 1763 marked a major turning point in British-colonial relations. The mother country, having just won a major victory over the French in America as well as elsewhere in the world, had a vast new empire to control and a staggering national debt. British officials believed it was only just that the American colonials should pay their fair share for the protection of the most powerful country in the world and consequently, for the first time, imposed revenue taxes on them. The timing could not have been worse. The French and Indian War had just removed the major foreign threat facing the American colonies when the British gained control of all the land east of the Mississippi River. Thus, the British attempted to end the policy of salutary neglect and tax the colonists for protection at the very moment that the colonists felt the least need of assistance from the mother country.

In this lesson, students complete a chart on the rationale for a series of British actions and colonial reactions between 1763 and 1776. Then they write thesis statements on the causes of the American Revolution, using evidence from the charts to support their interpretations of those causes.

Procedure

1. Ask why Britain's American colonies developed independent political and economic institutions. (The colonies were quite distant from the mother country. Britain neglected colonial policy to concentrate on more pressing issues in Europe. This neglect combined with the British victory in the French and Indian War—which freed the colonies from the last threat from a foreign power—to create a feeling of separation between the colonies and the mother country.) Warfare in the eighteenth century was expensive, and the British Parliament felt that it was only right that the American colonies pay a share of the cost. As a result, Britain established a new policy of taxation in order to pay down the debt.

2. Distribute **Handout 38** for students to complete.

Suggested Responses

1763 was a turning point because the British attempted to clamp down on the colonies and impose revenue taxes; also, it was a turning point because the colonists felt secure without British protection. The Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776.

British Rationale

Proclamation of 1763—This was a temporary measure to gain time to devise a more permanent solution to conflict between Native Americans and settlers.

Sugar Act—Colonists should be taxed for cost of the empire at a rate comparable to levels of taxation for those at home.

Currency Act—Colonists were required to pay British merchants in gold and silver, rather than inflated colonial paper currency.

Stamp Act—A tax was imposed on the colonists for their own protection.

Repeal of Stamp Act and passage of Declaratory Act—Britain backed down on a particularly hated tax but retained the principle of British supremacy.

Townshend Duties—These duties reiterated the British belief that England had a legitimate right to collect taxes from the colonies for the protection received. The English gave in to the colonists to the extent of using the kind of indirect taxes about which the colonists had not complained before 1763.

Tea Act—This was an attempt to save the British East India Company, which had been floundering since the repeal of all Townshend duties except the tax on tea. The act was an attempt to conceal a tax by lowering prices for British tea with reduced transportation costs.

Quartering Act of 1774—This required colonists to help provide housing for soldiers sent to protect them.

Coercive or "Intolerable" Acts—Americans were punished for property lost in the Boston Tea Party.

Lexington and Concord—The British attempted to capture colonial leaders and war supplies to prevent the possibility of a successful colonial revolt.

Colonial Rationale

Reaction to the Proclamation of 1763—Colonists saw the Proclamation as an attempt to keep them under Britain's control.

Reaction to the Sugar Act—Colonists believed Britain had no right to tax for revenue without the colonists having representation in Parliament.

Reaction to the Currency Act—Mercantilism had created a chronic trade deficit for the colonies; the British were asking the impossible in demanding payments in gold or silver when colonial resources were continually being drained.

Reaction to the Stamp Act—Britain had no right of taxation without representation, and no offenders should be tried in admiralty courts without juries.

Reaction to the repeal of Stamp Act and passage of Declaratory Act—Colonists had forced Britain to back down, but they overlooked the ominous implications of the Declaratory Act.

Reaction to the Townshend Duties—Colonists believed the indirect taxes they had accepted earlier as a legitimate way to control trade in mercantilism were now being used to collect revenue; they considered this another example of taxation without representation.

Reaction to the Tea Act—Even though British tea became cheaper, colonists were still being taxed without representation.

Reaction to the Quartering Act of 1774—Colonists viewed this, too, as an indirect form of taxation without representation, since they were expected to house and feed British soldiers. They also questioned Britain's motive in sending troops to America when foreign enemies had been removed; perhaps the troops were there primarily to control the colonists.

Reaction to Coercive or "Intolerable" Acts—Colonists viewed the acts as sweeping and unjustified denials of their liberties.

Reaction to Lexington and Concord—Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* provided a rationale for freeing America from British tyranny, by force if necessary. The British had killed colonists and provided cause for further resistance.

3. Distribute **Handout 39**, and have the class complete it as a large-group activity.

Suggested Responses

1. a. Perhaps a sort of commonwealth status with equality within the empire would have averted revolution.
   b. The colonists would have had to accept taxation and a status short of independence.
2. Each side viewed every event from its own perspective without considering the wants and needs of the other.
3. Students may see the dominant cause in the political subordination explicit in the Declaratory Act and implicit in the Stamp Act and other taxes levied without representation; alternatively, they may conclude that the British intention to keep colonists in a position of economic subordination was intolerable.
4. a. Officials created antagonism by altering traditional relations between Britain and the colonies without regard for colonial wants and needs.
   b. Radicals galvanized mass support by propagandizing examples of purported British tyranny, such as the Boston Massacre and the "Intolerable" Acts.
   c. Before they took the drastic step of supporting independence and war, they used a long series of legal and nonviolent protests to change British views. By their example, moderates drew a different and wider following supportive of independence. One might mention, in particular, the role of merchants, planters, and moneyed interests.
5. a. The fast succession of new regulations gave colonists little time to adjust to new British expectations. Also, new regulations came at a time the colonists felt most secure from foreign threats.
   b. Distance and lack of easy communication created difficulties for both sides in understanding the viewpoint of the other side.
   c. Repeal of the Stamp Act and most Townshend duties gave the colonists a sense that they had gained the upper hand and had forced a British retreat.
6. Students should recognize the impact of British administrative errors of judgment and political and economic grievances and make some attempt to establish priorities. Discuss why quite different theses might shed light on the conflict.

 Name:

Moving toward Revolution

Directions: Research the events leading to the American Revolution, and complete the chart. Explain why both 1763 and 1776 were turning points in American history.

Significance of 1763 as a Turning Point: _____

British Action	Rationale	Colonial Reaction	Rationale
Proclamation of 1763		resentment and failure to comply	
Sugar Act		Boston experimented with boycotts	
Currency Act		smoldering resentment	
Stamp Act		petitions, boycott, violence	
Repeal of Stamp Act and Passage of Declaratory Act		rejoicing over repeal; ignoring Declaratory Act	

British Action	Rationale	Colonial Reaction	Rationale
Townshend Duties		boycotts, petitions, newspaper attacks	
Tea Act		protest, Boston Tea Party, boycott	
Quartering Act of 1774		protest in assemblies	
Coercive or "Intolerable" Acts		boycott, convening First Continental Congress	
Lexington and Concord		Thomas Paine's *Common Sense*	

Significance of 1776 as a Turning Point: _____

Causes of the Revolution

Directions: Answer the following questions.

1. In 1769, the English political philosopher Edmund Burke said, "The Americans have made a discovery, or think they have made a discovery, that we mean to oppress them; we have made a discovery, or think we have made a discovery, that they intend to rise up in rebellion against us. We know not how to advance; they know not how to retreat."
   a. What kind of "advance" or adjustment might the British have made to halt the escalation of the colonial rebellion?

   b. What kind of retreat would the colonists have had to make to be acceptable to Britain?

2. How does the information on **Handout 38** help to explain the lack of meaningful compromise between Britain and the colonies in the years between 1763 and 1776?

3. Was the dominant concern of the colonists economic or political? Explain your answer.

4. What role do you believe each of the following played in producing wide-based support for independence in the colonies?
   a. Inept British officials, such as Charles Townshend and George Grenville

   b. Dedicated radicals, such as Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry

   c. Responsible moderates, such as John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and Thomas Jefferson

5. How did each of the following affect relations between the mother country and the colonies?
   a. Timing of new regulations

   b. Distance and lack of an easy means of communication

   c. Repeals of the Stamp Act and most Townshend duties

6. Write a one- or two-sentence thesis on the causes of the American Revolution.

Lesson 23

The War for Independence: The Global Context

Objective

- To demonstrate that the War for Independence was a world war with far-reaching global consequences, which became increasingly difficult for the British to win as America gained important European allies

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 5: Contextualization

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-2: Explain how the exchange of ideas among different parts of the Atlantic World shaped belief systems and independence movements into the early 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

In North America, three countries—France, Spain, and Great Britain—fought continuous wars over trade beginning in the late seventeenth century. The French and Indian War, which began in the Ohio River Valley, also was fought in other parts of the world. Great Britain and Prussia fought against France and Spain in a series of wars that would eventually lead to British dominance in North America and a desire among the defeated for revenge. The American Revolution provided the opportunity to achieve that goal.

When the American colonies rebelled in 1776, they did what no other country had done successfully and established precedents that other nations would follow. The act of declaring independence announced that a new nation was entering the world stage. The new nation gained legitimacy, which it needed to seek alliances and borrow money to support its war effort, thus bolstering its chances for success. While other monarchies might pause before interfering in a civil war between colonies and a mother country, largely because of fears of potential problems with their own populations, Great Britain's European enemies, out of revenge, chose to support the fledgling nation. The War for Independence was transformed into a world war, fought not only in North America but also in India, the

Caribbean, and Europe, diminishing the British chances of winning. Without the help of Spanish, French, and Dutch allies, the new nation would not have won the war.

In this lesson, students discuss the aid and assistance the new nation received from its European allies and examine the War for Independence in a global context. They discuss the reason why the creation of the Declaration of Independence was an act with global significance and write a paragraph discussing its global impact.

Procedure

1. Ask students for examples of some of the negative arguments the Continental Congress might have confronted prior to the writing of the Declaration of Independence.

   ### Suggested Responses

   - As a newly independent nation, America would not have the protection of its mother country.
   - The colonies had no professional army or navy.
   - The colonies had little cash reserves.
   - Not all colonists supported independence.
   - Native Americans were willing to support the side that promised them the best deal.

2. Ask students to identify some of the positive arguments.

   ### Suggested Responses

   - Great Britain had to move men and supplies across the ocean.
   - If the war was lengthy, the British would have to spend large amounts of money to fight it.
   - Alliances with Britain's enemies could be sought.
   - America had strong leaders, such as George Washington.

3. Ask students to suggest countries with whom the colonies might ally themselves (France, Spain, the Netherlands). Then ask what the benefits of these alliances would be (loans, munitions, and naval help).

4. Ask to what extent the War for Independence could be considered a global war. (It was fought in North America, the West Indies, Europe, and Asia. It involved the major European powers of the day—Great Britain, France, Spain, and the Netherlands.)

5. Distribute **Handout 40**, and have students use their textbooks, the Internet, and other resources to find the information.

Suggested Responses

1. Franklin accepted a treaty of alliance with France which gained America official recognition and a promise of military assistance, which was strengthened with the American victory at Saratoga.
2. The combined French and Spanish fleets outnumbered the British fleet. The British declared war on the Dutch when they joined the League of Armed Neutrality and provided Americans with vital supplies of munitions. France sent money, men, supplies, and parts of its navy to aid the Americans and widened the scope of the war to Europe, forcing Britain to change its war plan. British troops had to be deployed to Ireland, abandon Philadelphia, and concentrate their strength in New York. The British also had to protect their colonies in India and the Mediterranean.
3. Neutral nations led by Russia remained passively supportive of the American cause and demanded that Great Britain respect their rights at sea.
4. Gibraltar
5. The United States gained independence, territory in the Ohio River Valley, and shipping rights on the Mississippi River. Great Britain established itself as a dominant naval power.
6. Native Americans did so in an effort to protect their own position.
7. France
8. The Netherlands
9. France
10. German principalities
11. Thaddeus Kosciuzko
12. Great Britain
13. Native Americans
14. The Netherlands

6. Explain that one of the most ardent supporters of American Independence was pamphleteer and polemicist Thomas Paine. Divide the class into small groups of three or four students. Distribute **Handout 41**, and have students read the quotation in part A. Ask students why Paine believed that a declaration of independence was necessary. (Without it, America could not seek new alliances; with such a declaration, America could attain the rank of other nations. It was necessary to explain American grievances with the Crown, assure other nations of America's peaceful intent, and allow someone to mediate the quarrel with the British.)

7. Refer students to a copy of the Declaration, and ask them what is the most important part of the document. Focus student attention on the portions intended for a global audience, which declare that America was free and independent of Great Britain. This would give America equal footing with the rest of the world, with rights, privileges, and responsibilities, including the rights to borrow money and seek alliances.
8. Have students complete part B of the handout.

Suggested Responses

1. d
2. c
3. b
4. a

9. Assign a short paragraph explaining why the Declaration of Independence was a significant factor within a global context in the success of the American Revolution. Have selected students share their paragraphs.

America Fights a Global War

Directions: Use your textbook and other sources to answer the following questions about the American Revolution.

1. What part did Benjamin Franklin play in gaining the vital alliance with the French?

2. Describe American alliances with the French, Spanish, and Dutch and their overall impact on America's victory. How did these alliances complicate and eventually doom the British side?

3. How did the neutrality of Russia and other nations affect the outcome of the American Revolution?

4. Where did the greatest battle of the American Revolution involving a strategic European location and a hundred thousand troops take place?

5. What two nations benefited most from the American Revolution?

6. Who formed alliances with both the Americans and the British? Why?

7. Which nation regained slave-trading outposts in present-day Senegal?

8. Who received important ports, cities, and concessions in Southeast Asia in return for not interfering with British shipping?

9. Who provided 80 percent of the gunpowder used by the American army during the war?

10. Which European group provided most of the mercenaries who came to America to fight for Britain?

11. Which Polish immigrant served as a general in the American army and then returned to his homeland to lead an independence movement?

12. What country did France and Spain protect from invasion?

13. What group lost land because of the Paris Peace Conference at the end of the war?

14. What country was the first to recognize America and provided important munitions to America from its Caribbean colonies?

Declaring Independence

Part A.

Directions: Read the paragraph below, and explain why Thomas Paine believed that a declaration of independence was necessary.

> The most extensive presentation of the case for independence to "the customs of states" came in January 1776 in the closing pages of Thomas Paine's best-selling pamphlet *Common Sense*. Paine argued that "nothing can settle our affairs so expeditiously as an open and determined declaration for Independence." Only independence would permit a mediator to negotiate peace between the United States and Great Britain; without such mediation, "we may quarrel on for ever." Foreign alliances could not be secured without it: France and Spain would hardly support the colonies if they were to be asked only to aid reconciliation with Britain. Charges of rebellion would also persist if independence were not declared: "we must in the eye of foreign Nations be considered as Rebels." Moreover, it was essential for a "manifesto to be published, and despatched to foreign Courts," explaining colonial grievances, the lack of redress, and the necessity of separation, "at the same time assuring all such Courts, of our peaceable disposition towards them, and of our desire of entering into trade with them." Until such a manifesto was dispatched, "the custom of all Courts is against us, and will be so, until by an Indepandence, we take rank with other Nations."[1]

Part B.

Directions: Match the following people with the descriptions of connections to the Declaration of Independence.

_____ 1. Said that the true cause was independence, not reconciliation, because with independence the new nation could receive assistance from other nations

_____ 2. Made a motion that became the formal declaration of independence

_____ 3. Appointed a committee to develop a formal statement of independence, which listed the grievances of the American colonies against the Crown, provided an explanation of separation, and encouraged other British colonies to declare independence

_____ 4. Wrote the Declaration of Independence, which argued that the colonies rebelled because Great Britain abused their natural rights

a. Thomas Jefferson
b. Continental Congress
c. Richard Henry Lee
d. Thomas Paine

[1]David Armitage, *The Declaration of Independence: A Global History* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 2007), 36–37.

Lesson 24

The Declaration of Independence

Objective

- To analyze the Declaration of Independence as a rhetorical document

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 7: Appropriate Use of Relevant Historical Evidence

Thematic Learning Objective: America in the World

WOR-2: Explain how the exchange of ideas among different parts of the Atlantic World shaped belief systems and independence movements into the early 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

Thomas Jefferson, who was chosen to draft the Declaration of Independence, attended the College of William and Mary, which emphasized classical thinking rather than a purely theological base for education. He was thoroughly familiar with the ideas of the Enlightenment and had read the works of the French *philosophes* and John Locke. Jefferson based his major premise in the Declaration of Independence on the concept of the social contract. He wrote a reasoned argument in support of revolution against the British government. Before this lesson, assign students to use their textbooks for appropriate background on events leading to the Declaration of Independence. Emphasize the document in the context of the times. Also assign students to complete a first reading of the document itself.

In this lesson, students consider the Declaration of Independence in detail and develop a structure for analyzing other documents. They identify and explain the basic elements of a document: author, purpose, audience, roots, structure/content, and effects.

Procedure

1. Conduct a class discussion based on the following questions.
   - Who wrote the Declaration of Independence? (Thomas Jefferson headed a committee of five assigned by the Continental Congress to draft such a document.)
   - What is the purpose of the Declaration of Independence as stated in the introductory paragraph? (It aims to justify revolution and separation from England.)
   - Why was justifying revolution so necessary? (The American colonies were the first ever to revolt against a mother country.)

- What groups did the Continental Congress hope to sway by this document? (It was specifically addressed to the king and, indirectly, to Parliament. The Congress hoped that it would gain the support of large numbers of Tories, uncommitted colonists, and the enemies of Britain—Spain, Holland, and particularly France. Jefferson may have had a vision that the document would serve as a model for later colonies anticipating revolution and as a standard by which to judge the country's progress toward equality.)
- How do we know that Jefferson addressed the Declaration of Independence to a literate audience? (The logical structure and sophisticated vocabulary both suggest that it was intended for an educated audience.)
- What other people helped create a climate for revolution among the masses before 1776? (One might mention Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, and Thomas Paine.)

2. Distribute **Handout 42**, and have students use it to analyze the Declaration of Independence. Encourage frequent references to the document itself.

Suggested Responses

1. The Continental Congress had become frustrated over Britain's "long train of abuses and usurpations" and lack of progress toward resolving differences between the colonies and the mother country.
2. Announcing independence gave colonists a cause for fighting; it raised the possibility of foreign aid since other countries would no longer view assistance as meddling in another country's internal affairs; it also raised hopes that colonists captured by the mother country would be treated as prisoners of war rather than traitors.
3. The colonies were giving up the protection of the strongest nation in the world and trade advantages with the mother country. Moreover, they had enjoyed decades of stable government; there was no guarantee that the revolution would end with separation from England and not develop into a class war as well.
4. People create a government; a government should protect the people's unalienable rights to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." If it does not do so, the people should "alter or abolish" the government.
5. People create a government to protect their unalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. If the government fails to protect these natural rights, the people have the right to alter or abolish their government.

6. Jefferson had to prove that the British violated the colonists' rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.
7. Jefferson listed ways the British had violated the colonists' rights to the pursuit of happiness, liberty, and life.
8. Jefferson tried to build to a climax, with the most serious grievances last.
9. King George III
10. Jefferson described the acts in general terms so that those in other countries or, perhaps, in later generations could understand the gist of the complaints.

3. Continue the discussion with the following questions.
   - What legal means of protest had the colonists already taken to convince the British to change their ways? (The colonists had petitioned, warned, reminded the British of the circumstances of their emigration to America, appealed to them, and conjured them with ties of their common kindred.)
   - How had the British responded to these appeals? (They had ignored them.)
   - What conclusion did Jefferson then draw? (The colonists had no choice but to separate from England, since legal appeals had had no effect.)
   - How do we know that the colonists were God-fearing people? (The Declaration of Independence appeals to the "Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions.")
   - What rights of an independent country did Jefferson list? (An independent country had the right to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, and establish commerce.)
   - What sacrifices were the signers willing to make to gain independence? (They pledged their "lives, fortunes, and sacred honor.")
4. Explain that signing the Declaration of Independence put the signers on Britain's "most wanted" list. The British considered the signers guilty of treason, and many signers suffered considerably in the first few years of their act of defiance. Five were captured and imprisoned, in each case with brutal treatment. Twelve signers' houses were burned, and seventeen lost everything that they owned. Several others lost wives or other family members, and nearly all were, at one time or another, driven from their homes.

5. Distribute **Handout 43**, and have students complete it.

Suggested Responses

1. The Proclamation of 1763 forbade colonists to move beyond the Appalachians until problems with the Native Americans had been resolved by the Crown.
2. This statement might refer to customs officials armed with writs of assistance.
3. The British kept troops in Boston, for example.
4. Britain imposed several quartering acts.
5. It might refer to those involved in the Boston Massacre.
6. The Navigation Acts had closed outside trade for decades, and Britain closed the port of Boston after the Boston Tea Party.
7. Britain imposed the Molasses Act, Sugar Act, Stamp Act, and Townshend duties, among others, without colonial representatives in Parliament.
8. It refers to the Quebec Act, which was passed at the time of the Coercive or "Intolerable" Acts.
9. Boston lost its charter after the Boston Tea Party.
10. Britain and the colonies had already fought, at Lexington and Concord, for instance.
11. The British hired Hessian mercenaries to fight.
12. The British impressed colonial seamen into their navy.

6. Ask students the following questions.
   - What are the short-range and long-range effects of the Declaration of Independence? (In the short term, the declaration gave the colonists a cause and gained foreign support, but it had little immediate effect on the British. Over time, however, the Declaration of Independence has served as a model for other countries and later generations.)
   - What often-quoted ideal stated by Jefferson is in the Declaration of Independence? ("All men are created equal.")
   - In what respects was it an ideal rather than reality in 1776? (Slavery existed; women, African Americans, and Native Americans were not treated as equals of white males. Only men who owned property could vote.)
   - In what respects are we still striving for the ideal today? (We still work to create equal opportunity for minorities, women, and handicapped persons.)

The Declaration of Independence

Directions: Read the Declaration of Independence carefully. Then answer the following questions.

1. What was the cause for issuing the Declaration of Independence?

2. Merely declaring independence did not gain British recognition of colonial independence. What advantages could the colonists gain by announcing independence from Great Britain?

3. In view of the possible advantages of a declaration of independence from Great Britain, what factors caused the colonies to proceed with great caution?

4. According to Thomas Jefferson, who has the right to create a government? What is the purpose of government? What should people do if the government fails to fulfill its purpose?

5. Summarize Jefferson's major premise or assumption in the Declaration of Independence.

6. If Jefferson assumed the right of revolution—as no other practical politician before him had done—what did he have to prove to justify a declaration of independence from Great Britain?

7. How did Jefferson organize the rest of the Declaration of Independence?

8. Why did Jefferson list the violations in reverse order, putting the pursuit of happiness first?

9. Who is the "he" mentioned repeatedly in the Declaration of Independence?

10. Why did Jefferson write rather vaguely about the complaints rather than listing the specific acts of the British that had so alienated the colonists?

A Catalog of British Offenses

Directions: These grievances against the British Crown are expressed in the Declaration of Independence. To what specific acts might each refer?

1. "He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states . . ."

2. "He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance."

3. "He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies . . ."

4. "For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us"

5. "For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states"

6. "For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world"

7. "For imposing taxes on us without our consent"

8. "For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province . . ."

9. "For taking away our charters . . ."

10. "He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us."

11. "He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages . . ."

12. "He has constrained our fellow-citizens taken captive on the high seas to bear arms against their country . . ."

Lesson 25

The Articles of Confederation and the Constitution

Objectives

- To compare and contrast the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of the United States
- To read and analyze the main arguments for and against ratification of the Constitution through selections from the Federalist and Anti-Federalist papers

AP* Correlations

Skill Type II

Skill 4: Comparison

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Thematic Learning Objective: Ideas, Beliefs, and Culture

CUL-4: Analyze how changing religious ideals, Enlightenment beliefs, and republican thought shaped the politics, culture, and society of the colonial era through the early Republic

Notes to the Teacher

After the American Revolution, the question still lingering on the minds of the Founding Fathers was what kind of nation they wanted to build. Was this new country going to be a loose confederation of largely independent states? Was it going to be a tight federation with a national government? After the drafting of the Declaration of Independence, the Second Continental Congress appointed a committee of thirteen to draft a constitution for a confederated type of government. The final draft of the Articles of Confederation was approved by the Second Continental Congress in 1777 and was sent to the states for final ratification. The Articles were the unofficial constitution of the states during most of the Revolutionary War; the Articles became the official constitution of the states in 1781. All thirteen states had to ratify the Articles of Confederation.

In 1786, Charles Pinckney of South Carolina proposed that Congress revise the Articles of Confederation. The Virginia legislature, upon the recommendation of James Madison, called for a convention of all thirteen states to meet in Annapolis, Maryland, to agree to revisions. Only a few states sent delegates to the Annapolis Convention, so they recommended meeting again in Philadelphia in 1787. Although given permission only to

revise the Articles, the delegates met in closed-door meetings and wrote a new constitution. Those who favored adoption of the new constitution and the creation of a stronger federal government are known as Federalists. Those who favored amending the Articles and keeping the confederation are known as Anti-Federalists.

In this lesson, students read and analyze both the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of the United States. Students determine what kind of government was established under each. They conclude the lesson by reading selections from both Federalist and Anti-Federalist writings to determine the arguments in support of each side, in preparation for a class debate on the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. Students may need several days to complete this lesson. Students will need access to the complete Articles of Confederation and to the Constitution of the United States.

Procedure

1. Ask students to identify the most important task facing the Founding Fathers at the end of the Revolutionary War. (They needed to determine the type of government the new nation would have.) Ask what possible forms of government could be established (a loose confederacy or a tight federalist government).

2. Distribute **Handout 44**, and have students read the Articles and the Constitution and fill in the columns. Divide the class into small groups, or have students work as individuals. Have half the students focus on the Articles and the other half focus on the Constitution. Once all students are finished, have students share information.

Suggested Responses

1. Type of Government
   Articles—loose confederation of mostly independent states
   Constitution—firm union of people
2. Mode of Ratification
   Articles—ratification by every state legislature
   Constitution—ratification by three-fourths of state conventions or legislatures
3. Legislative Branch
   Articles—unicameral legislature
   Constitution—bicameral legislature

4. Mode of Representation, Election, and Term in Office of Legislature

   Articles—two to seven representatives from each state, based on the amount of taxes each state pays; each state gets one vote in Congress; delegates are appointed annually by state legislatures

   Constitution—Senate and a House of Representatives; two senators represent each state, each senator with one vote; senators chosen by the state legislatures for six-year terms; no direct election of senators until the Seventeenth Amendment in 1913; one representative to the House for every thirty thousand individuals in 1788, each representative with one vote; representatives chosen by a direct vote of the people for two-year terms

5. Executive Branch

   Articles—none, delegates of the legislative branch elect one of their members annually to serve as president

   Constitution—one, separate executive branch, elected by the electoral college for four-year term, no term limits until the Twenty-Second Amendment in 1951

6. Judicial Branch

   Articles—judicial decisions left up to the state and local courts; Congress the final arbiter of disputes between different states

   Constitution—separate Supreme Court and inferior courts established by Congress

7. Taxes

   Articles—states levy taxes, pay into the common treasury based on the value of all land within each state

   Constitution—Congress has the power to collect taxes; bills for raising revenue originate in the House of Representatives

3. Divide the class in half. Assign one half to be Federalists and one half to be Anti-Federalists. Distribute and review **Handout 45**, which describes the procedure for the class debate. If you wish, select three students to serve as judges.

4. Distribute **Handout 46** for students to complete. Review responses.

Suggested Responses

1. Hamilton proposed to discuss the insufficiency of the government established under the Articles and to speak in support of the establishment of a republican form of government, which would protect and preserve liberty and property.
2. The Constitution had prominent officials supporting it, as well as commercial interests which wanted a strong government to protect their interests. It would be difficult to preserve the current union, and that would affect the safety and prosperity of the people.
3. Jefferson believed that it was not necessary to argue for change on the basis of one rebellion and that a country and its leaders need to be challenged from time to time by rebellion.
4. No government can govern a nation of the vast size of the United States. With a strong central government, the states would lose powers, and the central government would become despotic and dependent on force to maintain control. The Constitution did not contain a bill of rights to protect the individual rights of the people. A standing army could be used to suppress the liberty of the people, to collect taxes, and to pass arbitrary measures.

5. Conduct a class debate on the adoption of the Constitution.
6. Assign students to write a short paragraph explaining why the Constitution was a success and the Articles a failure at insuring the formation of a prosperous and cohesive nation.

 Name:

Overview of the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution

Directions: Read the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of the United States, and complete the chart with information about the documents.

Topic	Articles of Confederation	Constitution of the United States
1. Type of Government		
2. Mode of Ratification		
3. Legislative Branch		
4. Mode of Representation, Election, and Term in Office of Legislature		

Topic	Articles of Confederation	Constitution of the United States
5. Executive Branch		
6. Judicial Branch		
7. Taxes		

Rules for Federalist and Anti-Federalist Debate

Directions: Read and follow the rules of the debate. The class will be divided into two equal sides, with the teacher or a panel of students serving as judge.

1. Opening Preparation Time: 5 minutes for each side

   Each side will select four representatives and begin organizing the argument. The first four will present the information from the reading or outside information. Each person is responsible for presenting a different point.

2. Opening Statement for Side A: 5 minutes

   The team will clarify its position. During this stage of the debate, each person should have a specific position to present.

3. Cross-Examination Time for Side B: 3 minutes

   Questions for the opposing team should be based on the reading and points brought up during the opening statement. Anyone from side B may ask questions during this time, and anyone from side A may answer.

4. Opening Statement for Side B: 5 minutes

   The team will clarify its position. During this stage of the debate, each person should have a specific position to present.

5. Cross-Examination Time for Side A: 3 minutes

   Questions for the opposing team should be based on the reading and points brought up during the opening statement. Anyone from side A may ask questions during this time, and anyone from side B may answer.

6. Questions from the Judge(s): 5 minutes for each side

   The judges will ask questions of each side. Only the team being asked the questions is allowed to answer, and anyone from that team may answer the questions.

7. Rebuttal/Closing Statement Preparation: 2 minutes for each side

   Each team will prepare and select a representative to give a closing statement.

8. Rebuttal/Closing Statement: 2 minutes for each side

   One person from each side will present a closing statement.

9. Judgment

   The judge(s) will determine the winning side.

Federalists and Anti-Federalists

Directions: Read the following information, and answer the questions in preparation for a class debate on ratification of the Constitution.

Document 1

Alexander Hamilton, *The Federalist Papers,* No. 1 (1787)

I propose, in a series of papers, to discuss the following interesting particulars—the utility of the UNION to your political prosperity—the insufficiency of the present Confederation to preserve that Union—the necessity of a government at least equally energetic with the one proposed to the attainment of this object—the conformity of the proposed Constitution to the true principles of republican government—its analogy to your own state constitution—and lastly, the additional security, which its adoption will afford to the preservation of that species of government, to liberty, and to property.

Document 2

Alexander Hamilton, Conjectures about the New Constitution (September 1787)

The new Constitution has in favor of its success these circumstances: A very great weight of influence of the persons who framed it, particularly in the universal popularity of General Washington. The good-will of the commercial interest throughout the states, which will give all its efforts to the establishment of a government capable of regulating, protecting, and extending the commerce of the Union. The good-will of most men of property in the several states, who wish a government of the Union able to protect them against domestic violence, and the depredations which the democratic spirit is apt to make on property, and who are besides anxious for the respectability of the nation. The hopes of the creditors of the United States, that a general government possessing the means of doing it, will pay the debt of the Union. A strong belief in the people at large of the insufficiency of the present Confederation to preserve the existence of the Union, and of the necessity of the Union to their safety and prosperity; of course, a strong desire of a change, and a predisposition to receive well the propositions of the convention.

Document 3

Thomas Jefferson to William Stephens Smith (November 13, 1787)

God forbid we should ever be 20 years without such a rebellion. The people cannot be all, and always, well informed. The part which is wrong will be discontented in proportion to the importance of the facts they misconceive. If they remain quiet under such misconceptions it is lethargy, the forerunner of death to the public liberty. We have had 13 states independent 11 years. There has been one rebellion. That comes to one rebellion in a century and a half for each state. What country before ever existed a century and half without a rebellion? And what country can preserve [its] liberties if their rulers are not warned from time to time that their people preserve the spirit of resistance? Let them take arms. The remedy is to set them right as to facts, pardon and pacify them. What signify a few lives lost in a century or two? The tree of liberty must be refreshed from time to time with the blood of patriots and tyrants. It is [its] natural manure. Our Convention has been too much impressed by the insurrection of Massachusetts: and in the spur of the moment they are setting up a kite to keep the hen-yard in order.

Document 4

Dissent of the Minority of the Pennsylvania Convention (December 18, 1787)

We dissent, first, because it is the opinion of the most celebrated writers on government, and confirmed by uniform experience, that a very extensive territory cannot be governed on the principles of freedom, otherwise than by a confederation of republics, possessing all the powers of internal government; but united in the management of their general, and foreign concerns. . . . We dissent, secondly, because the powers vested in Congress by this constitution, must necessarily annihilate and absorb the legislative, executive, and judicial powers of the several states, and produce from their ruins one consolidated government, which from the nature of things will *be an iron banded despotism*, as nothing short of the supremacy of despotic sway could connect and govern these United States under one government. . . . That the new government will not be a confederacy of states, as it ought, but one consolidated government, founded upon the destruction of the several governments of the states. . . . The powers of Congress under the new constitution, are complete and unlimited over the *purse* and the *sword*, and are perfectly independent of, and supreme over, the state governments; whose intervention in these great points is entirely destroyed. . . . We dissent, thirdly, because if it were practicable to govern so extensive a territory as these United States includes, on the plan of a consolidated government, consistent with the principles of liberty and the happiness of the people, yet the construction of this constitution is not calculated to attain the object, for independent of the nature of the case, it would of itself, necessarily produce a despotism, and that not by the usual gradations, but with the celerity that has hitherto only attended revolutions effected by the sword. . . . The first consideration that this review suggests, is the omission of a Bill of Rights ascertaining and fundamentally establishing those unalienable and personal rights of men, without the full, free, and secure enjoyment of which there can be no liberty . . . A standing army in the hands of a government placed so independent of the people, may be made a fatal instrument to overturn the public liberties; it may be employed to enforce the collection of the most oppressive taxes, and to carry into execution the most arbitrary measures. An ambitious man who may have the army at his devotion, may step up into the throne, and seize upon absolute power. . . . As this government will not enjoy the confidence of the people, but be executed by force, it will be a very expensive and burthensome government.

1. What did Alexander Hamilton propose in Document 1?

2. In Document 2, what three factors made the Constitution preferable to the Articles of Confederation?

3. In Document 3, what is the benefit of a rebellion from time to time?

4. In Document 4, what problems do the dissenters see in the Constitution?

Lesson 26

The Constitution: A Study in Historiography

Objective

- To read excerpts from various American historians who have dealt with historiography of the Constitution

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Skill Type IV

Skill 8: Interpretation

Thematic Learning Objective: Politics and Power

POL-5: Analyze how arguments over the meaning and interpretation of the Constitution have affected U.S. politics since 1787

Notes to the Teacher

There is much debate among historians over what the true intentions of the Founding Fathers were with regard to the U.S. Constitution. In 1913, Charles Beard developed a thesis which stated that America's Founding Fathers created the Constitution to protect their individual property. This was neither a new nor a particularly insightful idea, but it created a backlash in American historiography.

In this lesson, students read excerpts from various schools of thought with regard to the Constitution and write a topic sentence for each excerpt. To conclude, students respond to a prompt dealing with American historiography and the Constitution and write thesis statements.

Procedure

1. Write the word *historiography* on the board, and ask students to write down what they think it means (theory of history, history of history, philosophy of history, historians studying the process of doing history, the act of studying history). Have paired students compare and contrast answers before reviewing responses as a class.

2. Ask why historians sometimes disagree on the interpretation of a historical event. (People disagree because they see things from different points of view; different perspectives give individuals different views; historians come from various backgrounds, so they have diverse ways of seeing things.) Ask students to identify some variables that might

affect these perspectives (economic situations, political party affiliations, jobs, religious beliefs, geography).

3. Explain that there are many schools of historical thought and that views often change over time. Share the following points:
   - Very early American historians based their views on the providence of God, while the rationalists of the eighteenth century were secular and scientific in interpretation.
   - Nationalistic historians of the nineteenth century centered on the themes of progress, liberty, and the Anglo-American destiny to triumph over inferior peoples and spread freedom across the globe.
   - The Progressives saw a movement toward a liberal democratic state in which private property and free enterprise were the best ways to provide opportunity for the common people.
   - The Consent and Consensus historians of the 1940s and 1950s promoted the study of a general agreement on fundamental principles, with no veering to right or left.
   - Conservative historians, whose roots are in the 1950s, believe that history should promote the traditional characteristics of society and that history should be interpreted using a moral guide, since they see historical problems as religious and moral problems.
   - The historians of the New Left believe that Americans need a usable past that includes all of the nation's negative features and a stew of races, classes, genders, and ethnicities, all of which should be celebrated.
   - Peoples' historians believe that history should focus on ordinary people rather than on those in positions of power and that diaries, letters, and other documents are invaluable to understand and deal with the cultural differences that are often at the bottom of global conflicts.

4. Distribute **Handout 47**, and have students read the excerpts from the works of historians dealing with interpretation of the Constitution. Direct students to develop a topic sentence, a one-sentence summary of ideas, for each reading.

Suggested Responses

> *Bancroft*—American society is made up of many different individuals, and the individuals who framed the Constitution tried to ensure the maximum amount of equality and individuality.

Beard—The Constitutional Convention was called by and the Constitution was ratified by a small minority in the country, and the document creates a strong national government designed to protect the economic interests of those hurt financially under the Articles of Confederation.

Warren—Those individuals who supported ratification of the Constitution believed in a national union, and those individuals who opposed ratification feared the creation of a strong central government; any historian who interprets the debate in purely economic terms fails to interpret motives accurately.

Jensen—The transformation from the Articles of Confederation to the ratification of the Constitution represented a fundamental shift in the balance of power, when the fight for and against centralization, which had been around since the beginning, opened the way for a more conservative element in American society to assume control.

Perry—The Constitution represented a shift in American society from revolution to reconstruction; in 1783, factionalism and personal jealousies were rife, and the Constitution reminded Americans that they must submit their individual interests to the general good and obey the law.

Brown—The move to adopt the Constitution was, no doubt, begun by a small group of men, but they were not motivated strictly by economic desires.

Zinn—Support for the Constitution came not just from the wealthy elite, for it protected the economic interests of small property owners as well and enabled them to maintain control over minorities with little coercion in the name of patriotism.

5. Have students develop thesis statements based on the following prompt:

   Assess the validity of the assertion that the Constitution of 1787 was designed primarily to protect the interests of the wealthy class.

Suggested Response

The individuals who ratified the U.S. Constitution believed in creating a strong central government which, because the ratification process was done by a small number of the total population representing the wealthiest groups in American society, aimed at maintaining the status quo and protecting the economic interests of the wealthy class.

Historians Debate the U.S. Constitution

Directions: Read the excerpts carefully; take notes where appropriate. After reading each selection, develop a one-sentence topic statement summarizing the author's main idea.

George Bancroft, *History of the Formation of the Constitution of the United States of America* (1884)

The constitution establishes nothing that interferes with equality and individuality. It knows nothing of differences by descent, or opinions, of favored classes, or legalized religion, or the political power of property. It leaves the individual alongside of the individual. No nationality of character could take form, except on the principle of individuality, so that the mind might be free, and every faculty have the unlimited opportunity for its development and culture. As the sea is made up of drops, American society is composed of separate, free, and constantly moving atoms, ever in reciprocal action, advancing, receding, crossing, struggling against each other and with each other; so that the institutions and laws of the country rise out of the masses of individual thought, which, like the waters of the ocean, are rolling evermore.[1]

Charles Beard, *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (1913)

The movement for the Constitution of the United States was originated and carried through principally by four groups of personality interests which had been adversely affected under the Articles of Confederation: money, public securities, manufactures, and trade and shipping.

The first firm steps toward the formation of the Constitution were taken by a small and active group of men immediately interested through their personal possessions in the outcome of their labors.

No popular vote was taken directly or indirectly on the proposition to call the Convention which drafted the Constitution.

A large propertyless mass was, under the prevailing suffrage qualifications, excluded at the outset from participation (through representatives) in the work of framing the Constitution.

The members of the Philadelphia Convention which drafted the Constitution were, with a few exceptions, immediately, directly, and personally interested in, and derived economic advantages from, the establishment of the new system.

The Constitution was essentially an economic document based upon the concept that the fundamental private rights of property are anterior to government and morally beyond the reach of popular majorities.

The major portion of the members of the Convention are on record as recognizing the claim of property to a special and defensive position in the Constitution.

In the ratification of the Constitution, about three-fourths of the adult males failed to vote on the question, having abstained from the elections at which delegates to the state conventions were chosen, either on account of their indifference or their disenfranchisement by property qualifications.

The Constitution was ratified by a vote of probably not more than one-sixth of the adult males. . . .

[1]George Bancroft, *History of the Formation of the Constitution of the United States of America* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1884), 443.

The leaders who supported the Constitution in the ratifying conventions represented the same economic groups as the members of the Philadelphia Convention; and in a large number of instances they were also directly and personally interested in the outcome of their efforts.

In the ratification, it became manifest that the line of cleavage for and against the Constitution was between substantial personalty interests on the one hand and the small farming and debtor interests on the other.

The Constitution was not created by "the whole people" as the jurists have said; neither was it created by "the states" as Southern nullifiers long contended; but it was the work of a consolidated group whose interests knew no state boundaries and were truly national in their scope.[2]

Charles Warren, *The Making of the Constitution* (1928)

In recent years there has been a tendency to interpret all history in terms of economics and sociology and geography—of soil, of debased currency, of land monopoly, of taxation, of class antagonism, of frontier against seacoast, and the like—and to attribute the actions of peoples to such general materialistic causes. . . . But its fundamental defect is, that it ignores the circumstance that the actions of men are frequently based quite as much on sentiment and belief as on facts and conditions. It leaves out the souls of men and their response to the inspiration of great leaders. It forgets that there are such motives as patriotism, pride in country, unselfish devotion to the public welfare, desire for independence, inherited sentiments, and convictions of right and justice. The historian who omits to take these facts into consideration is a poor observer of human nature. No one can write true history who leaves out of account the fact that a man may have an inner zeal for principles, beliefs, and ideals. . . . [T]he men who urged and framed and advocated the Constitution were striving for an idea, an ideal—belief in a National Union, and a determination to maintain it, and the men who opposed the Constitution were also fighting for the preservation of an idea—self-rule as opposed to control by a central government which they feared would destroy their local governments. Historians who leave these factors out of account and who contend that these men were moved chiefly by economic conditions utterly fail to interpret their character and their acts.[3]

Merrill Jensen, *The Articles of Confederation* (1940)

The fact that the Articles of Confederation were supplanted by another constitution is no proof either of their success or of their failure. . . . An analysis of the disputes over the Articles of Confederation makes it plain that they were not the result of either ignorance or inexperience. On the contrary, they were a natural outcome of the revolutionary movement within the American colonies. The radical leaders of the opposition to Great Britain after 1765 had consistently denied

[2]Charles Beard, *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1913), 324–25.
[3]Charles Warren, *The Making of the Constitution* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1928), 3–5.

the authority of any government superior to the legislatures of the several colonies. From 1774 on, the radicals continued to deny the authority of a superior legislature whether located across the seas or within the American states. The reiteration of the idea of the supremacy of the local legislatures, coupled with the social and psychological forces which led men to look upon "state sovereignty" as necessary to the attainment of the goals of the internal revolution, militated against the creation of such a centralized government as the conservative elements in American society desired. It can be said that the constitution which the radicals created, the Articles of Confederation, was a constitutional expression of the philosophy of the Declaration of Independence.

Today "states' rights" and "decentralization" are the war cries of the conservative element, . . . [and] in the eighteenth century decentralization and states' rights meant local self-government, and local self-government meant a form of agrarian democracy. The mass of the population was composed of small farmers, who in the long run could control the politics of their individual states. Since this was the belief of the fathers of the constitution of 1787, who were thus in substantial agreement with the radical leaders of 1776, the testimony might very well be regarded as conclusive. . . .

Those ideas upon which it is necessary to place the inadequate but necessary label of "conservative" were as well expressed in 1776 as in 1787. . . . The vital change which took place between 1776 and 1787 was not in ideas nor in attitudes but in the balance of political power. The radical organization which had brought about the Revolution disintegrated with success, for the radicals had won their real goal, local self-government. Radical leaders returned to their states to enjoy the results of their efforts unhampered by a central government of extensive power. . . . Some of them had realized in 1776 that centralization was their protection: a central government to suppress internal rebellions, to regulate trade, and to control the actions of the state governments as the British had controlled the colonial governments.

The fight for centralization did not stop with the completion of the Articles of Confederation. Discontent with the document was expressed in the private correspondence of [many conservative leaders]. . . . Even before they were finally ratified Hamilton proposed a revolutionary convention to create the kind of government the conservatives wanted. . . .

The Articles of Confederation were designed to prevent the central government from infringing upon the rights of the states, whereas the Constitution of 1787 was designed as a check upon the power of the states and the democracy that found expression within their bounds. . . . The distrust of centralization, of government spread over a great area, was the product of both political theory and practical experience. The rise of radicalism had been checked often enough to teach the radicals that central governments, however democratic in form, were fundamentally undemocratic in action.

This government, the product of the forces which brought about the American Revolution, . . . failed to maintain the organization they had created to bring about the American Revolution. The radical movement was essentially a movement of parties within states, and their political and social aims were to a great extent local. To achieve their purpose, local independence, unity of all the states had been necessary. What the radicals failed to see was that they must continue their union if they were to maintain their local independence under the Articles of Confederation.[4]

[4]Merrill Jensen, *The Articles of Confederation* (Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1940), 239–44.

Ralph Barton Perry, *Puritanism and Democracy* (1944)

When the Federal Constitution was under discussion in the year 1787–88 the problem of the colonists had shifted from revolution to reconstruction. It was a time of recoil and suspended activity. Even the conquest of the continent had lost much of its momentum. Men felt the pains and costs of change rather than its impetus. . . .

The sentiment and emphasis which are effective for purposes of revolution are the precise opposites of those required "to institute new Government." Revolution is associated with the defiance of authority and the resort to violence; it is the task of political reconstruction to persuade men once again to obey. Revolution begets the feeling that a man can have what he wants; reconstruction compels him again to submit his particular interest to law and to the general good. . . . In 1783 factionalism and personal jealousies were rife. The defects of human nature and the evils of anarchy were everywhere apparent. It was natural that in such a mood, and in response to the exigencies of such a crisis, there should be a swing toward political conservatism.

The Federal Constitution, then, expressed a fear of the excesses of revolutionary democracy, and of the mind of the masses. These fears inspired John Adams, Alexander Hamilton, and other leaders of the Federalist party; they represented the mood of reconstruction, as had Samuel Adams that of revolution. The motive of these leaders was to set such limits to popular government as should save it from self-destruction. Neither they nor Burke and the Whig party in England had any intention of denying popular government, but they desired that government should express the sober second thought of the people rather than their haste or passion. . . .

It should be added that the Federalists represented not only a conservative emphasis on strong government and a delay of the popular will, but also the economic interest of the financial and mercantile classes of the eastern seaboard.[5]

Robert Brown, *Charles Beard and the Constitution* (1956)

The movement for the Constitution, like most important movements, was undoubtedly started by a small group of men. They were probably interested personally in the outcome of their labors, but the benefits which they expected were not confined to personal property or, for that matter, strictly to things economic.[6]

[5]Ralph Barton Perry, *Puritanism and Democracy* (New York: Vanguard Press, 1944), 130–33.
[6]Robert Brown, *Charles Beard and the Constitution* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1956), 196.

Howard Zinn, *A People's History of the United States* (1980)

The Constitution, then, illustrates the complexity of the American system: that it serves the interests of a wealthy elite, but also does enough for small property owners, for middle-income mechanics and farmers, to build a broad base of support. The slightly prosperous people who make up this base of support are buffers against the blacks, the Indians, the very poor whites. They enable the elite to keep control with a minimum of coercion, a maximum of law—all made palatable by the fanfare of patriotism and unity.[7]

[7]Howard Zinn, *A People's History of the United States* (New York: HarperCollins Publishers, 1980), 99.

Lesson 27

Testing the Constitution: The Whiskey Rebellion and the Frontier

Objectives

- To describe basic principles underlying Federal architecture
- To analyze the significance of Shays's Rebellion and the Whiskey Rebellion in the formation and function of the federal government

AP* Correlations

Skill Type III

Skill 6: Historical Argumentation

Skill Type IV

Skill 8: Interpretation

Thematic Learning Objective: Identity

ID-5: Analyze the role of economic, political, social, and ethnic factors on the formation of regional identities in what would become the United States from the colonial period through the 19th century

Notes to the Teacher

In 1783, the British ceded lands in the former Indian Reserve west of the Appalachians to the United States; this agreement more than doubled the territory of the new country. With the promise of this rich new land came many new problems for both state governments and the new Confederation government. One was the intensification of the divide between the settlers on the frontier and the more urban and settled society on the Eastern seaboard.

The divide had been apparent for some time. In 1763, Scots-Irish frontiersmen in Pennsylvania, tired of Indian attacks and without faith in the help of the colonial government, massacred a group of noncombatant Christian Indians. The colonial government offered protection to other Indians and brought 140 of them to Philadelphia. Benjamin Franklin led a delegation to meet the so-called Paxton Boys and persuaded them to disband. The murderers were never apprehended, and other incidents of a similar nature continued to occur in the backcountry.

From 1766 to 1771, the Regulator movement in the Carolinas flourished. An influx of Scots-Irish immigrants on Indian land in South Carolina had provoked the Cherokee War of 1759–63; after the war, the countryside was further disturbed by bands of armed men wreaking havoc on isolated settlements. In the absence of local government to ensure safety, a group of settlers formed a vigilante group of regulators whose actions to

punish outlaws eventually forced the legislature in Charleston to provide a circuit court to the backcountry. In North Carolina, the government on the frontier was in the hands of corrupt officials who fleeced the backcountry settlers with taxes, fees, and lawsuits. The Regulators' vigilante actions there caused Governor William Tryon to send the militia to defeat them in 1771. These events left the West resentful toward the power structures dominated by the East. Along with the violence of the Revolution, they provide the context in which Shays's Rebellion and the Whiskey Rebellion should be studied.

Excise taxes on goods produced had long been despised by those who had to pay them. In 1755, Dr. Samuel Johnson defined an excise tax as "a hateful tax levied upon commodities and adjudged not by the common judges of property but wretches hired by those to whom excise is paid." This sentiment was shared by the farmers on whom the whiskey tax was imposed. They or their fathers were the generation that had fought the Stamp Act and other British impositions; the participants in the Whiskey Rebellion were not willing to let their new and hard-won government impose the same sort of tax.

The frontiersmen who participated in the Whiskey Rebellion lived difficult lives. Most settlers got less than one hundred uncleared acres. Houses were usually log cabins with mud floors and minimal furniture. Families supplied their own food and clothing. Medical care was usually nonexistent, as were good roads. There were few schools. The threat of Indian raids was always present, and life in general was violent and hard. The Western settlers resented the wealthy Eastern speculators who bought thousands of acres of good land and had squatters evicted, even though the owners were not using it themselves.

Many of these speculators used their wealth to build and furnish great homes in the Georgian and Federal styles. Federal architecture is similar to Georgian, but with a few more elegant touches, such as a semicircular window over the front door. Both reject the flourishes of the Baroque and Rococo movements in favor of simplicity, balance, and order. Both borrow from the Classical aesthetic of ancient Greece and Rome. Good examples include Montpelier Mansion in Maryland, Woodlawn Plantation in Virginia, Dumbarton House and Decatur House in Washington, D.C., and Gore Place in Philadelphia. This lesson would be an excellent one for a field trip if you live in an area that has historical Federal homes.

The lesson begins with a visual analysis of an example of Georgian architecture to make students aware of the love of order, balance, and reason shared by the educated men of the Eastern seaboard. Students then consider a series of rebellions which broke into that orderly Eastern world from the West, with particular attention to the events of Shays's Rebellion and the Whiskey Rebellion. Finally, students contemplate recent events in the context of the divisive issues that drove these rebellions.

Note that a picture of the exterior of Montpelier Mansion, built by Major Thomas Snowden and his wife Anne Ridgeley Snowden between 1781 and 1785, is needed for procedure 1. Many suitable images can be found on the Internet.

Procedure

1. Describe Georgian and Federalist architecture, and display a picture of Montpelier Mansion. Ask students to study the picture and list words or phrases that describe the house (formal, balanced, orderly, symmetrical, geometric). Tell students that the architects of the late eighteenth century cared so much for balance and order that, when there was a door at one end of a room, they would often build a false door that led nowhere on the other.

2. Ask students how the owner of a house like this, who clearly valued order and balance, would feel about rioting and lawlessness. Explain that alarm and anger were common among the wealthy landowners and merchants along the East Coast when they learned of trouble in the frontier.

3. Use a map to point out the new territory that was added to the United States by the Treaty of Paris. Note the dates of new states (Kentucky in 1792 and Tennessee in 1796). Ask students what European powers still claimed and partially controlled the rest of North America (Spain in Florida and the Southwest, Britain in Canada). Point out that Native American tribes really controlled most of the interior in 1783.

4. Ask students to describe what life was probably like for settlers who built homes in the western parts of the original thirteen states or who crossed the Appalachians in the decade after the Revolution.

5. Tell students that on several occasions settlers on the western frontier—which was called the backcountry—grew angry about actions (or inactions) of the state governments or the national government, which were all located in the eastern parts of the states. Point out the incident of the Paxton Boys in 1763 and the Regulator movement in North Carolina in 1764–71. Then distribute **Handout 48**, and have students work in pairs to complete the chart. Follow with general class discussion.

Suggested Responses

Shays's Rebellion

Who—Farmers were in debt to merchants and owed taxes. Daniel Shays was a former Revolutionary captain who was a leader of the "Committee of the People."

What—Farm communities mustered militias, which closed courts so they could not foreclose on debtors. The rebellion ended when militias from eastern Massachusetts marched west and defeated the rebels. Fifteen were condemned, and two were actually executed. Shays went to Vermont, and the unrest ended when the economic depression ended.

When—1787–88

Where—western Massachusetts

Why—The British dumped cheap goods after the Revolutionary War, and Americans had few exports to balance imports. The resulting trade deficit created a loss of hard currency with little coinage in circulation. Banks then called in loans and refused to issue new ones, leading to a severe depression from 1784 to 1788. Farmers, always a debtor class, were particularly hard hit with taxes, debts, and subsequent forced sales.

So What—Conservative nationalists gained additional support for a stronger national government, which bolstered their efforts in the 1787 Constitutional Convention and encouraged ratification of the Constitution in 1789.

Whiskey Rebellion

Who—Poor farmers in western areas converted corn into whiskey, an easily transportable product, to earn money to pay for necessities and taxes.

What—Tax collectors had writs served on men who had not paid taxes, usually because they lacked the money to do so. An armed uprising broke out, several tax collectors were tarred and feathered, several men were killed, and the mob threatened the city of Pittsburgh, which bought them off with food and drink. President George Washington raised an army of thirteen thousand, larger than the army he had commanded in the Revolution, and occupied the territory. Twenty men were eventually arrested, only two convicted, and Washington pardoned them.

When—1794

Where—western Pennsylvania

Why—Congress had passed an excise tax of ten cents per gallon on whiskey, which generally sold for a dollar a gallon. There was a long history of opposition to excise taxes. In addition, settlers along the frontier had a list of complaints:

- Not enough protection from Indian raids
- No spending on roads or canals so that they could get goods to market
- Not enough surveyors to mark land boundaries fairly
- No restrictions on speculators from the East (including Washington himself) grabbing the best western lands

So What—The federal government demonstrated its willingness to use military power to enforce its demands (although very little excise money was ever collected and Thomas Jefferson's administration repealed the tax). The incident showcased issues that would continue to be problematic: the extent of the powers of new federal government; the relationship of rural

western areas to governments in eastern, more urban areas; the methods by which political dissent should be expressed; the opposing interests of the wealthy elite and a poverty-stricken debtor class.

6. Ask students to list examples of similar divisions between regional and economic groups in the modern United States. (Students might consider voting patterns in state and national elections or discussion about health care reform.) Ask students what they predict for future unity or disunity in the United States. (Students foreseeing disunity might cite political talk show extremism and angry debate; students foreseeing unity might point to the peaceful resolution of electoral disputes and the process of lawmaking in Congress.)

 Name:

A Rebellious Nature

Directions: Using the graphic organizer below and the classic questions of a news reporter, compare Shays's Rebellion and the Whiskey Rebellion.

Questions	Shays's Rebellion	Whiskey Rebellion
Who were the participants?		
What happened?		
When did it occur?		
Where did it happen?		
Why? What were the causes?		
So What? Why is this a significant event in U.S. history? What impact did it have on later events?		

Lesson 28

The Settlement of the Northwest Territory

Objectives

- To compare the provisions of the Northwest Ordinance with the Bill of Rights
- To understand how Thomas Jefferson's plan for the Northwest Territory affected Indian tribes in the region

AP* Correlations

Skill Type I

Skill 1: Historical Causation

Thematic Learning Objective: Peopling

PEO-1: Explain how and why people moved within the Americas (before contact) and to and within the Americas (after contact and colonization)

Notes to the Teacher

The Northwest Territory was the term used for the region between the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, the northern tier of the lands ceded by the British to the new American government in 1783. The land had been reserved by British law for native tribes in the Proclamation of 1763, an action that compounded colonial resentment of the mother country and contributed to the Revolution. After the war, ordinary settlers and wealthy speculators were eager to see the region develop. Anxious to raise funds for itself and to reward Revolutionary War veterans, Congress passed two significant pieces of legislation which reflected the thinking of Thomas Jefferson.

The Land Acts of 1784 and 1785, written by a committee led by Thomas Jefferson, suggested a method for achieving statehood and imposed a mathematical grid on the Territory to avoid the chaos that had plagued Kentucky and Tennessee. (Jefferson proposed such a grid, on a smaller scale, for the design of the capital city in Washington, D.C. Pierre L'Enfant, the French engineer and architect who was hired to design the city, envisioned instead a city of grand boulevards, monumental public buildings, and open spaces. The resulting compromise is magnificent but challenges D.C. drivers even today.) To the arrangements in the Land Acts, the Northwest Ordinance added a provision for a territorial governor and judges; it also set conditions for electing a legislature, finalized a method of achieving full statehood, and listed the rights of citizens in the territory.

This system was an extremely important contribution of the national government under the Articles of Confederation.

The population of settlers in the Territory grew rapidly in the next few decades, but the population of indigenous people fell drastically due to violence, disease, and starvation. According to historian Michael Rogin, the American population grew from 3.9 million in 1790 to 13 million in 1830. By 1840, 4.5 million Americans were in the Mississippi Valley. In 1820, there were 120,000 Indians east of the Mississippi, but by 1844, only 30,000 were left.

Many tribes had tried to protect themselves by fighting with the British against the Americans during the Revolution. When the British signed a treaty and ceded the western lands, the Indians were still at war. Sporadic incidents and outright wars between the tribes and the U.S. military continued for decades.

Several treaties were signed by Indian delegates in the 1780s, but the tribes repudiated them, saying that the delegates lacked authority. The Northwest Indian War, or Little Turtle's War, followed in 1785–94, with a large confederation of Indians, including Tecumseh, fighting the Americans; the war ended with the defeat of the Indians at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794. The Treaty of Greenville was signed in the following year, drawing a new boundary line between Indians and settlers. The Indians withdrew to the west; however, settlers continued to flow across the boundary line.

Black Hawk was a member of the Sauk, or Sac, tribe. In 1804, his tribe and others were forced to leave their homeland after General William Henry Harrison, using hostages and alcohol, negotiated a treaty with some of the Indians to cede lands for two thousand dollars. Black Hawk denied that the Indians had any right to sell the land and led his people back to the ceded lands; the settlers responded to this invasion with force. Black Hawk attacked unsuccessfully several times and even allied himself with the British in the War of 1812. In 1832, Black Hawk was defeated, captured, and imprisoned. Eventually, he and his surviving band were relocated to Kansas; he died in 1838. As a prisoner, he dictated his autobiography to a government interpreter.

The lesson begins with an exercise to demonstrate Jefferson's sense of ideal geographical planning. Students then review the main terms of the congressional legislation that established the Northwest Territory and compare some of the provisions of the Northwest Ordinance to the later Bill of Rights. Then they discuss the impact that the migration of hundreds of thousands of settlers had on the Indian tribes still living in the area. You will need a street map of Washington, D.C., for this lesson.

Procedure

1. Show students a street map of Washington, D.C., and tell them how the capital came to be planned. Ask whether any students have ever looked down on the landscape from an airplane when flying over the Midwest states; they would have seen the results of grid planning on a larger scale, with straight roads and the land divided into squares and rectangles. Explain that this concept of applying a grid to the land was a favorite idea of Thomas Jefferson, primary author of the Land Act of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787.

2. Distribute **Handout 49**, and have students answer the first four questions to review the Land Act of 1785.

   ### Suggested Responses

   1. The Northwest Territory was the land east of the Mississippi River, south of the Great Lakes, and north of the Ohio River.
   2. The land was to be divided into townships six miles square. Each township would be further divided into one-mile square sections.
   3. One section of each township was set aside to be sold or rented to pay for building schools and hiring teachers. Some townships were reserved for veterans of the Revolution. The remaining townships were available for sale to land speculators and the general public at not less than $1 an acre.
   4. *Advantages*—Congress would earn badly needed money for operating expenses and debt repayment. Veterans would receive compensation. Land-hungry settlers who had enough money would be able to purchase land at a relatively cheap rate.

      Disadvantages—Many settlers who were in need of land could not afford it and infiltrated the area illegally. Extensive tracts of land were purchased by speculators, including George Washington and Patrick Henry, thus denying that property to settlers. The influx of settlers caused additional friction with Indian tribes.

3. Ask students what Congress did in response to the increased violence and the influx of illegal settlers. (Congress passed the Northwest Ordinance.) Have students answer the remaining questions on the handout.

Suggested Responses

5. A governor for the territory would be appointed by Congress, along with a court of three judges. They could impose any laws of the existing states. The governor would also serve as commander-in-chief of the militia and had the power to appoint military officers below the rank of general and civil officials. When there was proof of five thousand free male settlers, the district could elect an assembly, with one representative for every five hundred free male settlers. Only men who owned fifty or more acres could vote. Any measures passed by the assembly required the governor's approval.
6. Three to five states were to be created out of the territory. When a state had sixty thousand free inhabitants, it would be admitted into the confederation on an equal footing with older states; its citizens could write a constitution and elect a state government.
7. Students who think the system undemocratic will cite the governor's power to veto legislation, the fact that women were excluded from both the count of settlers needed to elect representatives and the right to vote, and the property qualification for suffrage. Students arguing that it was democratic may cite the early selection of representatives, the exclusion of slavery from the Territory, and the relatively low property qualification for suffrage. (Property qualifications existed in the United States until the mid-nineteenth century.)

4. Distribute **Handout 50**, and read the information aloud, clarifying any questions students may have about the legal language. Have them locate a copy of the Bill of Rights in their textbook and note the date it was ratified. Then have them compare the two documents and complete the chart. See the Teacher Resource Page on page 232 for suggested responses.
5. Ask students what additional provisions are made in Articles 3 and 6 (provision for education, protection of the rights of Indians, and prohibition of slavery).
6. Ask students whether the Indians' rights were respected. (No. The tribes were systematically deprived of land, which led to increased outbreaks of hostilities.) Have students review the history of the relations between the two groups.
7. Share with students the information from Notes to the Teacher about population change in the region between the Mississippi and the Appalachians. Explain that statistics like these contributed to a mistaken belief that the Indian cultures would become extinct. In fact, Native American numbers did continue to decline until the end of the nineteenth century but increased strongly in the twentieth.

8. Use information in Notes to the Teacher to tell students about Black Hawk. Distribute **Handout 51**, and ask a student to read it aloud. Ask how Black Hawk views his own Sauk people and the white settlers. (He sees his people as happy and prosperous in former times but now miserable, as honest and faithful to the memory of ancestors. He thinks that whites have tricked his people, trust a deathbed conversion for salvation, and care little about ancestors.)

9. Tell students that Black Hawk's pattern of resistance and eventual defeat would continue throughout the nineteenth century as the reverse side of Manifest Destiny.

Suggested Responses, Handout 50

Fundamental Rights	Northwest Ordinance	Bill of Rights
Freedom of religion	Article 1	Article 1
Freedom of speech	—	Article 1
Freedom of the press	—	Article 1
Freedom of assembly	—	Article 1
Freedom to petition	—	Article 1
Right to bear arms	—	Article 2
No forcible quartering of soldiers in time of peace	—	Article 3
No unreasonable search or seizure	—	Article 4
No double jeopardy	—	Article 5
Right to refuse to testify against oneself	—	Article 5
Right of due process	Article 2*	Article 5
Just compensation for eminent domain seizures	Article 2	Article 5
Right to counsel	—	Article 6
Right to a fair and speedy trial (habeas corpus)	Article 2	Article 6
Right of trial by jury	Article 2	Articles 6, 7
No excessive bail or cruel or unusual punishment	Article 2	Article 8

*Not explicitly stated but implied in the phrase "judicial proceedings according to the course of the common law." The right to counsel and the right against self-incrimination were not provisions of traditional English common law. They were evolving into recognized rights in both England and the United States during the 1700s.

Congress and the Northwest Territory

Directions: Using your textbook and other available sources, answer the following questions.

1. What were the boundaries of the Northwest Territory?

2. How was the land to be divided into sections?

3. How would the land be allocated?

4. What were the advantages and disadvantages of this plan?

5. What were the provisions for government and self-rule in the Northwest Ordinance of 1787?

6. What were the provisions for statehood?

7. Was this a democratic system? Why or why not?

The Northwest Ordinance and the Bill of Rights

Directions: Compare the following excerpts from the Northwest Ordinance to a copy of the Bill of Rights. What provisions of the Bill of Rights are included in the Northwest Ordinance? Which are missing? In the chart, list the rights in your own words, and then identify the article or amendment that guarantees each right.

From the Northwest Ordinance

Article 1. No person, demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments, in the said territory.

Article 2. The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of *habeas corpus,* and of the trial by jury; of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature; and of judicial proceedings according to the course of the common law. All persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offenses, where the proof shall be evident or the presumption great. All fines shall be moderate; and no cruel or unusual punishments shall be inflicted. No man shall be deprived of his liberty or property, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land; and, should the public exigencies make it necessary, for the common preservation, to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same. And, in the just preservation of rights and property, it is understood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the said territory, that shall, in any manner whatever, interfere with or affect private contracts or engagements, *bona fide,* and without fraud, previously formed.

Article 3. Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged. The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and, in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity, shall from time to time be made for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

Article 4. . . . The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same, shall be common highways and forever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory as to the citizens of the United States, and those of any other States that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impost, or duty therefor.

Article 5. There shall be formed in the said territory, not less than three nor more than five States . . . . And, whenever any of the said States shall have sixty thousand free inhabitants therein, such State shall be admitted, by its delegates, into the Congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original States in all respects whatever, and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and State government: *Provided,* the constitution and government so to be formed, shall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in these articles; and, so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of free inhabitants in the State than sixty thousand.

Article 6. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: *Provided, always,* That any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service as aforesaid.

 Name:

Fundamental Rights	Northwest Ordinance	Bill of Rights

The Autobiography of Black Hawk

Directions: During his imprisonment, Black Hawk dictated his autobiography to a government interpreter. The book was published in 1833. Read the following excerpts, and be prepared for class discussion.

Here, for the first time, I touched the goose quill to the treaty—not knowing, however, that, by that act, I consented to give away my village. Had that been explained to me, I should have opposed it, and never would have signed their treaty, as my recent conduct will clearly prove.

What do we know of the manner of the laws and customs of the white people? They might buy our bodies for dissection, and we would touch the goose quill to confirm it, without knowing what we are doing. This was the case with myself and people in touching the goose quill the first time.

We can only judge of what is proper and right by our standard of right and wrong, which differs widely from the whites, if I have been correctly informed. The whites *may do bad* all their lives, and then, if they are *sorry for it* when about to die, *all is well*! But with us it is different: we must continue throughout our lives to do what we conceive to be good. If we have corn and meat, and know of a family that have none, we divide with them. If we have more blankets than sufficient, and others have not enough, we must give to them that want. But I will presently explain our customs and the manner we live. . . .

. . . We always had plenty—our children never cried with hunger, nor our people were never in want. Here our village had stood for more than a hundred years, during all which time we were the undisputed possessors of the valley of the Mississippi, from the Ouisconsin to the Portage des Sioux, near the mouth of the Missouri, being about seven hundred miles in length. . . .

If another prophet had come to our village in those days, and told us what has since taken place, none of our people would have believed him! What! to be driven from our village and hunting grounds, and not even permitted to visit the graves of our forefathers, our relations and friends?

This hardship is not known to the whites. With us it is a custom to visit the graves of our friends, and keep them in repair for many years. The mother will go alone to weep over the grave of her child! The brave, with pleasure, visits the grave of his father, after he has been successful in war, and repaints the post that shows where he lies! There is no place like that where the bones of our forefathers lie, to go to when in grief. Here the Great Spirit will take pity on us!

But, how different is our situation now, from what it was in those days! Then we were as happy as the buffalo on the plains—but now, we are as miserable as the hungry, howling wolf in the prairie![1]

[1]*Life of Black Hawk*: *Ma-ka-tai-me-she-kia-kiak,* ed. Milo Milton Quaife (Chicago: R. R. Donnelly and Sons, 1916), 86–87.

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