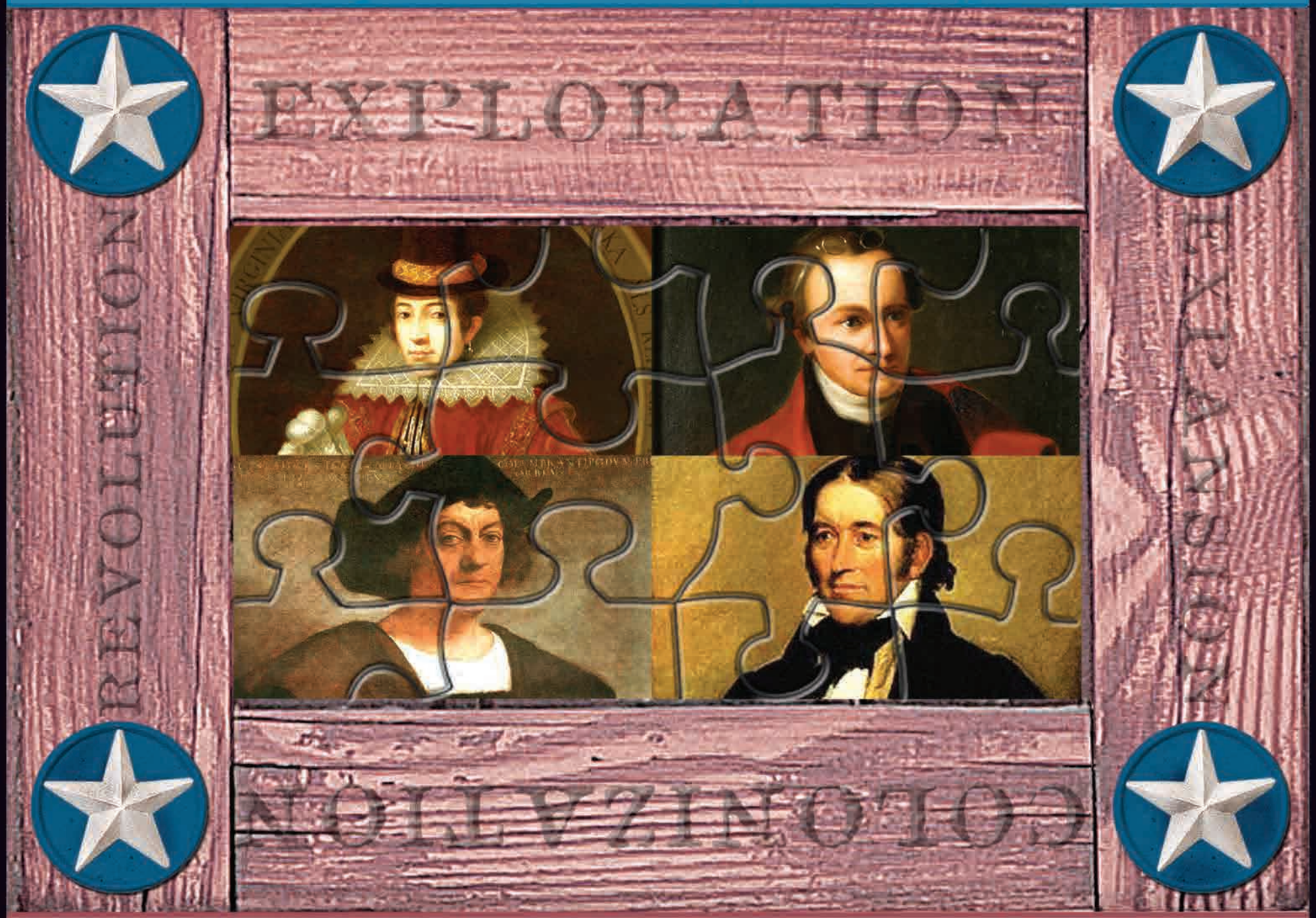
VOL. 1 — The Explorers to the Jacksonians

All American History

Uniting America's Story, Piece by Piece



A full year's curriculum in 32 weekly lessons

CELESTE W. RAKES

Student Reader

All American History: Uniting America's Story, Piece by Piece Student Reader
by Celeste W. Rakes
Vol. I of the All American History series

Published by Bright Ideas Press
P.O. Box 333, Cheswold, DE 19936
www.BrightIdeasPress.com

Cover and interior design by Pneuma Books, LLC
Visit www.pneumabooks.com for more information.

ISBN-13: 978-1-892427-12-0
ISBN-10: 1-892427-12-5

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rakes, Celeste W.
All American history / Celeste W. Rakes.
p. cm.
Includes bibliographical references and index.
Contents: v. 1. Uniting America's story, piece by piece : student reader.
ISBN 1-892427-12-5 (hard cover : alk. paper)
1. United States — History — Textbooks. I. Title.

E178.1.R27 2006
973 —dc22 2005021128

11 10 09 08 07 06 6 5 4

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE

Ten years ago, three other homeschooling moms and I decided to form a co-op and offer classes for our children and for other homeschooled students who would like to participate. My responsibility in the co-op was to teach American history. Although I graduated from college with a degree in history and was certified to teach it, I had never done so in a traditional classroom setting. However, after teaching my own children at home and tutoring others, I had formed some definite ideas about how I wanted to approach teaching this course.

As I began making plans for the class, I spent many hours looking through history curricula (some with which I was very familiar and others that were new to me). Although each program had aspects that I liked, none of them had everything I wanted. Finally, I decided to attempt to develop my own program to use in teaching the class. Those first feeble efforts were the seeds of *All American History*.

INTRODUCTION

In developing my program to teach American history, I had several specific goals in mind. First of all, I knew that I wanted to structure the material both chronologically and thematically. After I had completed my research, I found that I had enough information for eight distinct themes or units. Once I had finished writing those unit studies, I found that I had produced eight lessons for each unit — enough for a two-year program! By organizing my curriculum around these thematic units, I hoped to create a simple and memorable framework for my students to "plug in" the historical information that they learned.

My second goal was to provide my students with the basic factual information that I felt they should learn for each unit. Many history curricula provide a wealth of suggestions for projects and activities but require the teacher or student to gather the information necessary to do them. Although my program offers many opportunities for further exploration, it can still be used effectively without spending countless hours looking for information at the public library or buying a large number of history books to have on hand at home. Those students who want to tackle the research projects in each lesson can easily do so using a computer with Internet access.

In addition to establishing a helpful learning structure and supplying the essential historical information, I also hoped to create a variety of educational experiences for my students to enhance their study and understanding of American history. Too often the study of history means reading a boring textbook, regurgitating the facts from that textbook on a test, and possibly writing the answers to a few homework questions and a report or two. That is not what I wanted history to mean to my children and to my co-op students! I wanted them to experience and believe that history is not boring — that it is the story of real people through the ages

In order to provide a diversity of educational experiences, I attempted to incorporate into my curriculum many study options beyond the mastering of basic historical information. These included:

- reading opportunities (biographies and historical fiction for each unit)
- writing projects (creative writing, as well as the compilation of fact sheets into notebooks on several topics)
- artistic and other hands-on work (original art projects, as well as flags, pictures of historical figures to associate with important events, maps to label, timelines to produce)

I also made a special effort to emphasize the social and cultural aspects of American history, much more so than most history curricula do. My belief is that history comes alive for students when they learn how people in past periods of history lived – what kind of clothes they wore, the houses they lived in, the foods they ate, the games they played, the schools they attended, and so forth. In developing this curriculum, I spent much time researching this aspect of history and trying to make it accessible to the students.

My final goal in creating this history program was to provide opportunities for my students to cement in their minds the important information from each unit. Again, I wanted to develop a variety of methods to accomplish this. The factual information that the students read and discuss includes impact bullets at the end of each lesson, summarizing the main points. Each lesson also has simple review questions that highlight the significant details. Finally, there are several hands-on activities and games for each unit that serve the purpose of review.

LESSON 14

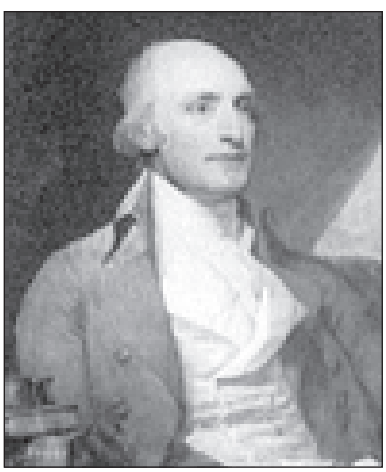
ATMOSPHERE

THE LORDS PROPRIETOR'S COLONY OF CAROLINA

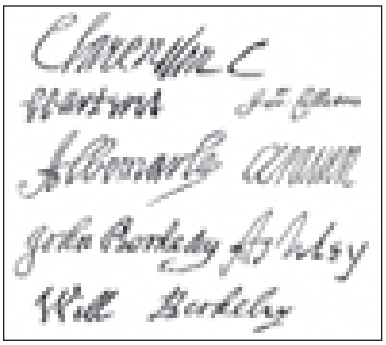
In 1663, King Charles II granted eight prominent English nobles land in America that stretched from Virginia to Spanish Florida. These high-ranking Englishmen, who had helped Charles recover the throne after the Puritan Revolution, became known as the Lords Proprietor. They included Sir William Berkeley, Sir George Carteret, Sir John Colleton, Anthony Ashley Cooper (Earl of Shaftesbury), George Monck (Duke of Albemarle), Edward Hyde (Earl of Clarendon), William Lord Craven, and John Lord Berkeley.

More than thirty years earlier, King Charles I had awarded the same area to Sir Robert Heath. During the years that Heath held the charter to this region it was named Carolana. At the time that Charles II revoked Heath's charter and gave it to the eight Lords Proprietor, there were no good maps or descriptions available of Carolana (changed to Carolina).

The Lords Proprietor were not interested in living in Carolina. Their goal was to make money by having colonists use the land to produce wine, silk, and olive oil. At first the proprietors hoped to attract settlers to Carolina from Virginia and New England. In fact, a



Sir Ashley Cooper, the Earl of Shaftesbury
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-D419-179 — some question exists as to whether this portrait is actually Cooper, but it is presumed so.]



Signatures of the Lords Proprietor
Courtesy of North Wind Picture Archives

small number of Virginians had already settled around Albemarle Sound in the northern part of Carolina around 1653. However, the Lords Proprietor soon decided that the southern part of Carolina offered more economic potential than the north, and they began concentrating on settling South Carolina first.

THE GEORGIA CHARTER

The English colony of Georgia was established as a result of the efforts of James Oglethorpe. It was a unique colony founded for humanitarian and military reasons. Oglethorpe served in the English army as a young man and was later elected to Parliament, working on a committee that investigated conditions in the country's prisons.

Then in 1732, Oglethorpe and some influential friends obtained a charter for land in America in the region southwest of the Carolinas, between the Savannah and Altahama Rivers. They named the region Georgia in honor of King George II. They also asked permission to start a colony there for London's poor; the majority of the settlers would be debtors who had been imprisoned. The colony would be set up as a charity and administered by twenty trustees. A committee of over one hundred clergymen began to raise money and gifts of supplies and equipment for Georgia. Both preachers and poets predicted that this new English colony would become a Garden of Eden, where people would live together in harmony and prosperity.

EVENT

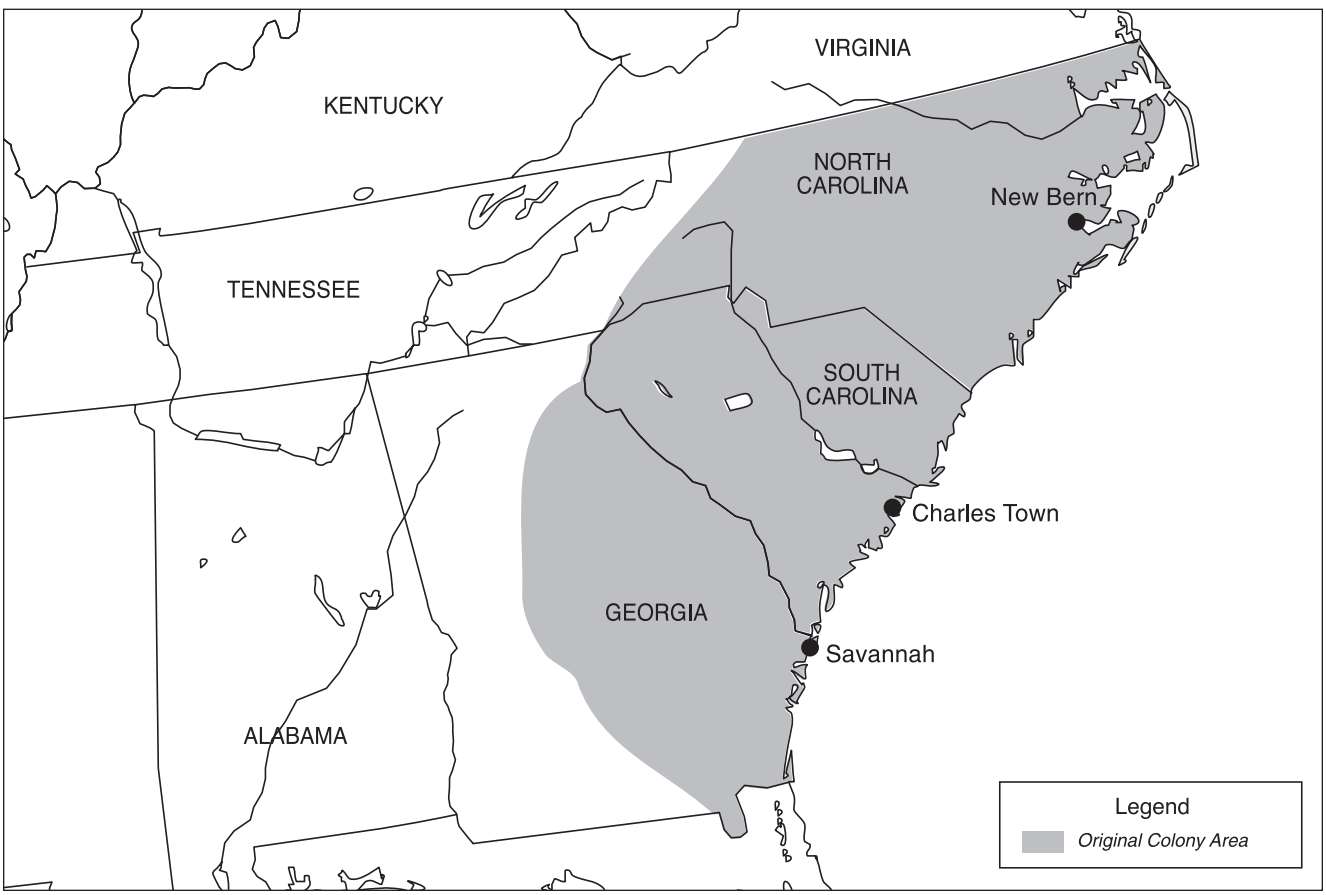
ESTABLISHMENT OF NORTH CAROLINA

Because North Carolina proved to be a tough land to tame, it grew more slowly than South Carolina. Its geography was much like Virginia's — with a tidewater (coastal) region, then a piedmont (plateau), and a mountainous region beyond. Although North Carolina had a number of rivers flowing into the ocean, its coastline did not have good harbors. For many years, North Carolina's only settlements were small settlements of tobacco farmers in the isolated

northern Albemarle region, which was separated from Virginia by swamps. New Bern was the largest of these settlements. In addition to exporting tobacco, these colonists also shipped naval supplies to England.

Most of the Albemarle settlers were former indentured servants and other poor whites, who had been squeezed out of Virginia by the low price of tobacco. These tobacco farmers were dedicated to the principles of personal liberty. They managed to get rid of any governor sent to rule them — deposing one, imprisoning another, and banishing a third. However, they also struggled to survive economically, suffering through hurricanes, droughts, and the exorbitant fees charged by the Virginia ports that they depended upon to export their

The North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia colonies



tobacco. Over time many religious outcasts and dissenters from Europe joined these independent-minded Albemarle tobacco farmers in North Carolina.

In 1677, a group of North Carolinians were involved in an attempt to overthrow English control of their colony. These colonists, led by John Culpeper, seized the governor of the colony and threw him in jail. Then they established their own government with Culpeper as governor. Eventually, the Lords Proprietor had this rebellion (which became known as Culpeper's Rebellion) put down. Culpeper went back to England to negotiate a compromise with the Lords Proprietor, but instead he was arrested and charged with treason. He was acquitted, his life was spared, and he returned to America.

Many North Carolina settlers were cruel and dishonest in their dealings with the Native Americans, cheating them of their land unmercifully. Finally in 1711, the Tuscarora tribe sought revenge by raiding several North Carolina settlements and burning, scalping, and murdering the colonists there. Because they had been sold guns by some of the settlers, the Tuscarora braves were actually much better armed than the colonists. Thousands were killed during two years of fighting. Settlers from South Carolina and Virginia eventually came to the rescue of their North Carolina neighbors, bringing men and money that enabled them to break up the power of the Tuscarora. However, the Lords Proprietor did little or nothing to help the North Carolina colonists during the Tuscarora attacks.

ESTABLISHMENT OF SOUTH CAROLINA

To recruit English settlers for South Carolina, Anthony Ashley Cooper talked the other proprietors into putting up money to print pamphlets telling of Carolina's wonders. The proprietors also decided to give one hundred acres of land to heads of families who settled there and to offer freedom of religion. Finally in August 1669, three ships — the *Carolina*, the *Port Royal*, and the *Albemarle* — set sail from England and headed to South Carolina. On board were approximately 140 people from many different religious backgrounds. Although the *Albemarle* and the *Port Royal* were wrecked in storms at sea, the

Carolina and a ship rented in Bermuda finally reached the coast of South Carolina in March 1670. When the Englishmen arrived on the Carolina coast, they chose a site for settlement. The area was briefly known as Albemarle Point, but its name was soon changed to Charles Town (even later changed to Charleston).

Because this original site was swampy and unhealthy, the settlement was eventually moved to a nearby peninsula, where the Ashley and Cooper rivers met and formed a nice sheltered harbor. Although the colonists at Charles Town never experienced a starving time, the first ten years of the settlement were difficult. Food was often in short supply, and the threat of an attack from the Spanish at St. Augustine always loomed.

Charleston c. 1780
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-46162]

During this first decade, a large number of English settlers came to South Carolina from Barbados, an English colony in the West Indies. These settlers, who became known as the Goose Creek Men, opposed the proprietary government of South Carolina and sought more local government control. They demanded and received a representative assembly, which constantly disagreed with the governor and the council appointed by the proprietors. A significant matter of dispute between the proprietors and many South Carolina settlers was the proprietors' practice of charging quit rents for use of the land.

From the beginning, the settlers at Charles Town were able to sell furs and naval supplies, such as tar and turpentine, to England. However, the proprietors soon became discouraged because they were receiving little profit from their colony. Rice, which grew well in the nearby swamps, eventually became the staple crop that ensured Charles Town's prosperity. The settlers at Charles Town also began to grow indigo, a plant used to dye cloth a rich purple color.

Indigo was an ideal second crop to grow with rice because it needed no attention in winter (the season when rice must be planted). But both rice and indigo required a cheap labor force, which the Carolina settlers found in African slaves. By 1708, South Carolina's economy was based on slave labor, and African slaves outnumbered whites in the colony. Some of these Africans would develop their own language called Gullah, a combination of English, French, and several African languages, which is still spoken by some in South Carolina today.

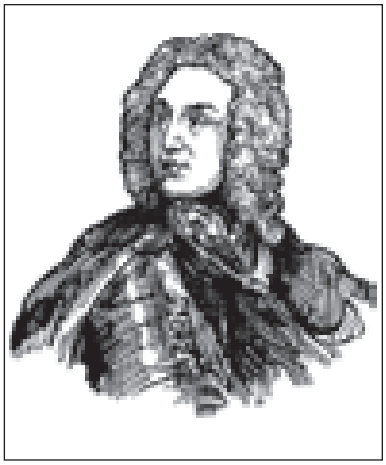
In the early 1680s, the proprietors began to concentrate on recruiting religious dissenters to South Carolina. From 1682 to 1684, five hundred English Presbyterians and Baptists arrived in the colony. Later, French Huguenots would come as well — with tastes and ideas that contributed to the creation of an aristocratic Charles Town society. As the city began to grow in both size and wealth, it emerged as the busiest seaport and largest city in the South. It developed into a sophisticated and cosmopolitan city with beautiful Georgian-style houses owned by wealthy planters and merchants. Younger sons of English nobility were especially attracted to this elegant city.

DIVISION OF SOUTH CAROLINA AND NORTH CAROLINA

For a long time, the people of North Carolina experienced many difficulties. However, the colony eventually succeeded because of its settlers' determination. By 1712, North Carolina was officially separated from South Carolina. Seventeen years later, King George I paid the Lords Proprietor a large sum of money for their land, and North Carolina and South Carolina became royal colonies. South Carolina remained quite prosperous, whereas North Carolina's economic growth continued more slowly.

ESTABLISHMENT OF GEORGIA

By the fall of 1732, more than one hundred colonists (thirty-five families) had been accepted by the trustees to go to Georgia. These colonists, along with James Oglethorpe, departed England on a ship named the *Ann* and arrived in Charles Town in January 1733. The South Carolina settlers were delighted by their arrival, because Georgia would serve as a buffer between them and the Spanish in Florida. A few Spanish priests and soldiers had settled in Georgia after the establishment of St. Augustine, but the Spanish had only a weak hold on the region.



James Oglethorpe
Line drawing courtesy of Amy Pak

Oglethorpe, along with Colonel William Bull from Charles Town, sailed south to look for a site to plant the Georgia colony. They chose a location eighteen miles inland from the mouth of the Savannah River. In February 1733, the Georgia colonists landed at Yamacraw Bluff and began establishing their new settlement, which they named Savannah after the river and the Savannah tribe. By fall, one out of nine of the Georgia settlers had died, primarily due to diseases such as dysentery and influenza. Food, however, was not a problem, because the colonists had supplies from England, South Carolina, and the Native Americans.

This first English settlement in Georgia was laid out by Oglethorpe with the help of Colonel Bull. Each family who was part of the new community was given a home and a garden plot totaling five acres, as well as another forty-five acres outside of Savannah for its main farming grounds. Oglethorpe designed the city with broad streets and squares at intervals to serve as marketplaces. Oglethorpe also made

Tomochichi
Courtesy of North Wind Picture Archives

signing a treaty of peace and friendship with the nearby Creek tribe a priority. In fact, Tomochichi, the Creek chief, became Oglethorpe's good friend. The local natives learned to trust and respect Oglethorpe and they were willing to fight alongside the English against the Spanish.

Georgia's trustees had decreed that only Protestants were to be allowed in the colony. However, when a group of Jews sailed into Savannah, Oglethorpe welcomed them. In the first years of the colony, many persecuted Protestants immigrated to Georgia from all over Europe. Most colonists were either English adventurers or those seeking religious freedom. In fact, few English debtors ever reached Georgia. Most of them decided that life in prison would be better than life in the Georgia wilderness and refused to leave England.

Overbearing Trustees

Georgia's colonial charter provided for a governor to be named by the trustees. However, the trustees never appointed one, and they ruled Georgia by their own regulations. Over time the settlers rebelled against their decisions, and the trustees began to relax some of their requirements. For instance, the trustees had decided that the chief occupation in Georgia should be raising silk and required every landholder to plant at least one hundred mulberry trees to feed silkworms. The colonists soon resisted this regulation because Georgia's climate was not suitable for raising silkworms. The trustees relented and allowed the colonists to grow rice and produce naval stores from the pine forests.

Another unpopular decision by Georgia's trustees was to limit the amount of land each settler could own. They did this to prevent land speculation. The most allowed was usually ten to fifty acres, although those who would pay passage to bring over ten servants were given five hundred acres. Settlers were not allowed to own their land for ten years and were charged quit rents for its use. The trustees eventually changed this policy. Although slavery was prohibited by the trustees, colonists soon began to sneak in slaves because they were not able to clear and farm enough of their land alone. In 1750, slavery was made

legal in Georgia, and within fifteen years one half of the colony's population was African slaves. The trustees reversed themselves for the final time when they decided to no longer prohibit strong liquor in Georgia.

Dissatisfied with the trustees' overbearing rule of Georgia, Oglethorpe sailed back to England in 1743. He never returned to Georgia; he had lost his fortune trying to establish the colony. The trustees of Georgia surrendered their charter in 1752, and Georgia became a royal colony. By that time, Savannah had become an important seaport, and Augusta had become the largest fur-trading center in the South.

IMPACT

- In the 1630s, King Charles I awarded the coastal area from Virginia to Spanish Florida to Sir Robert Heath. During the period that Heath held the charter, the region was named Carolana. In 1663, King Charles II revoked Heath's charter and gave it to eight prominent English nobles who had helped him recover the throne after the Puritan Revolution. These eight men became known as the Lords Proprietor.

- Due to its geography, North Carolina grew more slowly than South Carolina. For many years, the only settlements in North Carolina were small groups of independent-minded tobacco farmers in the isolated northern Albemarle region. A group of them were involved in Culpeper's Rebellion, an attempt to overthrow proprietary control of the colony.

- The Lords Proprietor were interested in making money by having colonists use their land to produce wine, silk, and olive oil. They established a settlement at Charles Town in 1670, which brought them little profit at first. Rice and indigo (which

depended upon slave labor) eventually became the staple crops that ensured Charles Town's economic survival.

- By 1712, North Carolina was officially separated from South Carolina. South Carolina continued to prosper, and North Carolina's economic growth remained slow.

- The colony of Georgia, established by James Oglethorpe in 1732, was founded for humanitarian and military reasons. Oglethorpe and some influential friends were given permission to establish a colony there for London's poor. It was also hoped that Georgia would serve as a buffer between the Spanish in Florida and the other English colonies.

- Oglethorpe was dissatisfied with the proprietors' overbearing rule of the Georgia Colony and returned to England in 1743, having lost his personal fortune. In 1752, the trustees of Georgia surrendered their charter, and Georgia became a royal colony. By this time, Savannah was an important seaport and Augusta was a large fur-trading center.

LESSON 15

Colonial Family Life . . . . . 1600s — 1700s A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

A TYPICAL AMERICAN COLONIAL FAMILY

By 1750, the typical American colonial family consisted of a mother, a father, and about seven children. Although there were few divorces, there were many remarriages due to the death of a spouse. Almost one in four colonial children had lost at least one parent by the age of five, and one in two had lost one or both parents by age fourteen.

However, few widows or widowers stayed single for long because it was very difficult in colonial society for one person to support and raise a family. All the members of a colonial family relied upon one another for food, shelter, clothing, and a sense of belonging.

EVENT

COLONIAL MARRIAGE AND CHILDREN

Colonial men were recognized as head of their households; their word was considered law. When children disobeyed, their fathers were not reluctant to discipline them. Women in colonial society were also subject to the authority of their husbands, fathers, or older brothers.

American women during this period in history were not allowed to own property in their own name, to vote, or to run for public office.

Men and women in colonial America tended to marry at a slighter younger age than their European counterparts. Most colonial girls married by age sixteen or seventeen, and most boys went to work by age fourteen. Couples in the colonies often had babies every two years until they reached their late thirties. However, childbirth was quite a dangerous experience for both mother and child, and one out of four babies born in the American colonies died before reaching adulthood.

The colonial children who survived the early years of life and reached the age of three were expected to start helping the household with simple chores, such as feeding the farm animals or washing the dishes. There were few differences in the way colonial adults and children lived; both young and old worked hard and had little free time. In fact, most of childhood was spent learning skills needed for adult life. Colonial families spent almost all of their time together — eating three meals together daily and spending an hour or two together around the fireplace at night. In the evenings they enjoyed doing handicrafts, reading the Bible aloud, and discussing the day's events.

EDUCATION FOR COLONIAL CHILDREN

Schools varied greatly from region to region in the American colonies. In the New England colonies, Puritans were very concerned about education. They believed that it was important for children to learn to read in order to be able to read the Bible. The first school in New England was established in Boston in 1635, and the first American college (Harvard) was founded a year later.

Harvard
Line drawing courtesy of Amy Pak

By 1642, the Massachusetts Bay Colony had passed a law requiring parents to teach their children to read. Five years later, the Olde Deluder Satan Act required every town with more than fifty families to establish a grammar school. Shortly thereafter, the other New England colonies, except Rhode Island, enacted similar laws. Although girls were taught to read, they were not allowed to attend grammar schools or college. However, they could attend dame

schools for a few years, which were private elementary school classes taught by women in their homes.

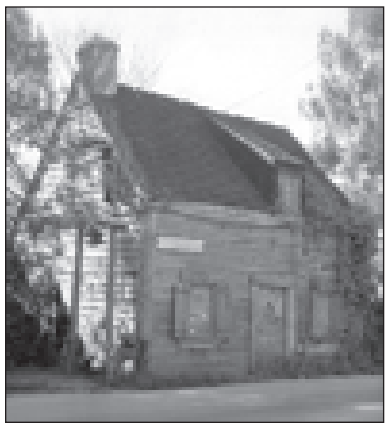
In 1683, the first school in Pennsylvania was founded. After this date, every Quaker community provided for the elementary teaching of its children in some fashion. More advanced training was offered at the Friends Public School in Philadelphia, which still operates today as the William Penn Charter School. Although this school was free to the poor, parents who could afford the tuition were required to pay it. In Philadelphia there were also numerous private schools with no religious affiliation. Girls were not allowed to attend school unless they were Quakers, but the daughters of the wealthy were instructed by private tutors in music, dance, painting, French, grammar, and sometimes even bookkeeping.

Children in the Southern colonies were usually taught at home — either by their parents or by private tutors. Wealthy planters and merchants imported these private tutors from Scotland or Ireland. Thus, the upper classes in the Tidewater region had no interest in supporting public education. The fact that plantations were spread so far apart also made the formation of community schools difficult. When southern boys became teenagers, they were sent away to college or to Europe. The first southern college, William and Mary, was founded in 1693 near Jamestown. By the late colonial period, the Southern colonies had passed laws making it illegal to teach slaves how to read and write. Slaveholders and other southern whites had become frightened at the possibility of literate Africans planning and succeeding in an uprising.

Schools in all of the colonies were usually small. Most children learned to read using a thin, paddle-shaped, wooden board called a hornbook. This board had a paper sheet that was covered with a thin layer of bull's horn and listed the alphabet in both small and capital letters. It also often contained the benediction and the Lord's Prayer and usually hung on a string around the student's neck — ready for use at any time. The *New England Primer* was first published in 1690, and it was the first textbook used in the colonies. It combined the hornbook with the authorized catechism and

taught the alphabet using two-line rhymes. Many of its poems had religious references.

> A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.
> Better is a little with the fear of the Lord, than great treasure and trouble therewith.
> Come unto Christ all ye that labor and are heavy laden and he will give you rest.
> Do not the abominable thing which I hate saith the Lord.
> Except a man be born again, he cannot see the kingdom of God.
> Foolishness is bound up in the heart of a child, but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him.
> Godliness is profitable unto all things, having the promise of the life that now is, and that which is to come.
> Holiness becomes God's house for ever.
> It is good for me to draw near unto God.
>
> — from the *New England Primer*



One-room schoolhouse
National Archives print [52-1034]

Generally, students of all ages attended class in one large room, and one teacher taught all of them. Most colonial teachers were men, and they were called schoolmasters. Many were retired soldiers in need of a job, although some of the best were clergymen with college degrees. Course work for colonial children generally consisted of the three Rs — reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic. Sometimes, grammar, history, and geography were also taught. Penmanship was especially emphasized; legible handwriting was considered the sign of a cultured person. Generally, the teaching methodology used was rote learning.

Many colonial children only attended school when their parents did not need them to work at the family farm or shop. The school year was usually short — just a few months a year. The school day often started at eight in the morning, with a lunch break from eleven to one, and dismissal at four in the afternoon. Students sat on hard benches, and many did not have desks. Most classrooms had no pencils, paper, or blackboards, and they had few books. Most often,

students wrote with goose-quill pens, which they dipped into homemade ink and used to write on pieces of birch bark.Colonial students were often punished for being tardy, falling asleep in class, answering questions incorrectly, or not learning their lessons quickly enough. For punishment a student might have memorized a long passage or written certain sentences over and over. Other methods of school discipline included placing the student in the corner wearing a dunce cap or a sign that said "fool" on his chest. There were also whippings with a hickory switch or birch rod. Some schoolmasters used the peg, which involved fastening the pupil's hair to a clip that was pegged to the wall at a height that kept him standing on tiptoes.

COLONIAL CLOTHING

During the colonial period, wealthy Americans were able to import silken and linen garments from Europe, whereas other settlers made their clothing from natural materials produced in the colonies.

Clothing Styles for Colonial Men

Colonial men in all levels of society wore breeches as their lower-body garments. Through the years, the length of the breeches and the materials used to make them varied. In the eighteenth century, upper-class men's breeches came to just beneath the knee. Leggings covered the leg from the knee to the top of the foot, and stockings were worn underneath the leggings.

In the eighteenth century, a gentleman's shirts were often made of linen, and his best shirts had wide cuffs and ruffles at the neck. Colonial upper-class men were hardly ever seen without a waistcoat, which was a vest that came down to the upper part of the thigh. They also wore some type of neckwear, usually a cravat draped about the throat and loosely tied in front. The uppermost layer of a gentleman's outfit was a coat worn over the waistcoat and breeches. As time went on, men's waistcoats and outer coats grew shorter, and their breeches became tighter and fancier.

Working-class men typically wore trousers that covered the leg. Men's shoes were made in a variety of styles, and black was by far the

Upper-class man
National Archives print [RG30NBox263]

Working-class men
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-57493]

Upper-class woman
National Archives print [RG30NBox263]

most common color. Buckles were the primary means of fastening shoes, and upper-class men usually wore high heels. Boots were worn for riding, working, and sporting.

Eighteenth century men commonly wore wigs. By mid-century, wigs were available for most levels of society, and certain styles of wigs were associated with particular professionals. These wigs were constructed from human, horse, goat, or yak hair, and their styles changed constantly with fashion and personal preference. At home, men usually wore tri-corner hats instead of wigs.

Clothing Styles for Colonial Women

Colonial upper-class women wore gowns that consisted of a bodice and a skirt joined together. The skirt opened in front to reveal a separate petticoat. For formal occasions these gowns were made of elaborate silk brocade and worn with formal gloves, lace-trimmed caps, pearl necklaces, and fans. Corsets, worn around the waist to minimize it, were an essential female foundation garment. As the years passed, women's skirts grew wider and wider and their corsets tighter and tighter.

Working-class women in the colonies usually wore dresses with straight skirts that came down to their ankles and bodices that laced up the back. Aprons covered their dresses as they took care of the day's work.

During the colonial period, American women kept their hair covered. They wore caps to dress their heads and to keep them from having to wash their hair as frequently. When going out, ladies almost always wore hats for fashion and for protection against the sun. Women also wore elbow-length, fingerless gloves (called mitts); heavy ones gave warmth in winter and light ones offered protection from the sun. Cloaks, covering the hair and dress, were worn for warmth as well. Women's shoes were made of leathers, worsteds, and silk fabrics and typically had high heels.

Clothing Styles for Colonial Children

Very young colonial children of both sexes wore dresses with close-fitting bodices. These bodices were usually fastened at the back and

often had leading strings with bands attached to the shoulders to help parents guide their children as they learned to walk.

At age five or six years, colonial boys were breeched — put into their first pair of pants. Both boys and girls wore slippers in the winter and shoes of soft leather in the summer. Wealthy children might have store-bought shoes with hard soles from Europe. Colonial girls and boys, as well as their parents, typically wore bright-colored clothing — blues, reds, purples, and yellows.

Working-class women
National Archives print [208-LU-25J-5]

Clothing Styles for Puritans and Quakers

For over one hundred years the Puritans of New England were known for their distinctively plain style of clothing. In fact, laws were passed in the early years of Massachusetts Bay regarding clothing requirements; but these laws grew less strict as time went on.

Puritan men wore dark plain coats and breeches, wool stockings, and black hats with wide brims and high crowns. They kept their hair short and rarely wore wigs. Puritan women dressed in long-sleeved dark gowns and stiff undergarments. Their clothing had no lace trim or bright ribbons, and they wore no gold or silver jewelry or make-up. American Quakers were similarly known for their plain clothing and lack of ornamentation.

COLONIAL HEALTH AND HYGIENE

The average life expectancy for an American during the colonial period was less than twenty-five years. Many children and adults died from diseases like malaria, cholera, pneumonia, smallpox, scarlet fever, tuberculosis, and rickets. Many illnesses were also caused by contaminated drinking water and spoiled food. Most colonists who became sick were treated at home by the housekeeper or mistress of the house, who used a supply of medicinal herbs and other simple remedies. Local barber-surgeons were only consulted after all other treatments failed.

By the time of the American Revolution, there were only a few American doctors trained in a medical school. Most physicians were either self-trained or trained by another doctor, and they usually

Puritan dress
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-74739]

limited their treatments to rich people who were chronically ill. Colonial doctors had little knowledge of the real causes and cures of most diseases, and they had few effective painkillers and medicines to give to their patients. Two common treatments for illness were to bleed patients using leeches and to purge their digestive systems to remove harmful "humors" — imaginary fluids blamed for causing illness.

Colonial homes had no running water, bathrooms, or septic systems. There were outdoor toilets of wood or brick called privies, as well as chamber pots that would be used inside and then dumped outside. Most colonists did not believe in bathing every day or even every week because they considered a layer of dirt to be protection against germs. Usually a bath consisted of washing with a cloth dipped in a cold basin of water.

COLONIAL NUTRITION, EATING, AND COOKING HABITS

The American colonists originally wanted to eat the same foods that they had eaten in England and in other parts of Europe. However, many of those foods did not grow well in America, so the colonists learned to eat and cook new foods like corn, beans, squash, and pumpkins. They also learned to farm, hunt, and fish like the Native Americans.

Colonial homes usually contained no stoves or ovens, and, of course, colonial families had no freezers or refrigerators. Food was cooked in a big kettle over an open hearth. Most meals were stews — meat, corn, turnips, and other vegetables cooked together. Heavy brown bread was cooked in the steam that rose from the stew. Meat was preserved with smoking, and vegetables were preserved with pickling in vinegar. On Sundays, many colonial families ate baked beans, which were slow cooked with molasses and a piece of salt pork in the fireplace kettle all night.

Because most colonists believed that water made them sick, they drank very little of it. They also drank little milk because cows were not plentiful. Colonists did drink fruit juices, such as peach

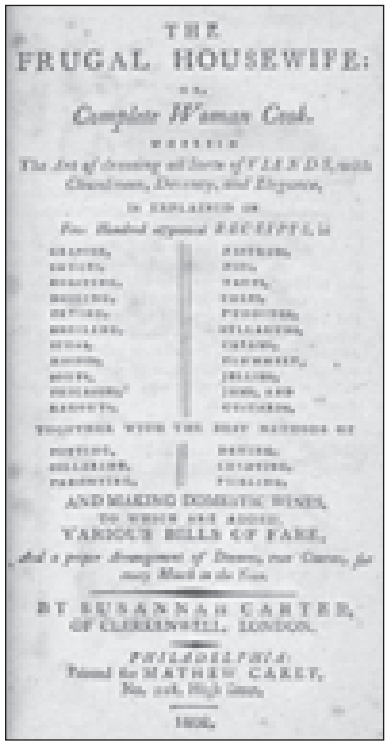
juice and apple cider, as well as beer and rum. It was not uncommon for colonial children to drink whiskey.

For many years there were no cookbooks published in the American colonies. Any cookbooks used by the colonists were brought over from England, and mothers passed on their favorite recipes by teaching them to their daughters. In 1742, a Williamsburg printer named William Parks was responsible for publishing what appears to be the first cookbook published in the colonies — *The Compleat Housewife: Accomplish'd Gentlewoman's Companion.* This 228-page volume was originally compiled in London by Eliza Smith, and by 1742 was in its fifth London edition. On the eve of the American Revolution, this cookbook was still popular in the Virginia Colony. There are six known copies of the Williamsburg edition still in existence today.

Colonial children
National Archives print [RG30NBox263]

By the mid-eighteenth century, the English had realized that there was a market for their cookbooks in the colonies and began issuing American editions of their original publications. Susannah Carter's cookbook, *The Frugal Housewife*, was first printed in England in 1742. In 1772, she reissued the book with accommodations for American cooks. The Boston printer Paul Revere was responsible for producing the printing plates for the American edition. This particular cookbook could be found in the homes of many of the wives and mothers of the men who signed the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution.

> There are indeed already in the world various books that treat on this subject, and which bear great names, as cooks to kings, princes and noblemen, and from which one might justly expect something more than many, if not most of those I have read, perform; but found myself deceived by my expectations; for many of them to us are impractiable, others whimsical, others unpalatable, unless to depraved palates; some unwholesome; many things copies from old authors, and recommended without (as I am persuaded) the copiers ever having had any experience of the palatableness, or had any regard to the wholesomeness of them; which two things ought to


THE
FRUGAL HOUSEWIFE:
OR,
Complete Woman Cook.
AND MAKING DOMESTIC WINES,
TO WHICH ARE ADDED,
VARIOUS BILLS OF FARE,
BY SUSANNAH CARTER,
OF CLERKENWELL, LONDON.
PHILADELPHIA:
Printed for MATHEW CAREY,
1802.

Title page of an 1802 edition of *The Frugal Housewife*
Public Domain

> be the standing rules, that no pretenders to cookery ought to deviate from. These receipts are all suitable to English constitutions, and English palates, wholesome, toothsome, all practicable and easy to be performed.
>
> — from *The Compleat Housewife*

In New England the growing season was short, so it was difficult for settlers in that region to grow enough fruits and vegetables to feed their families. These colonists rarely ate fresh vegetables. Instead, they consumed a lot of meat and fish and cooked the vegetables that they ate in sauces. When boats brought goats and cows from England, the colonists were able to have fresh milk, butter, and cheeses. Sugar was quite expensive and had to be shipped from England. Most people cooked with molasses, also brought over from England but cheaper than sugar, or with maple syrup (made from sap drained from maple trees). Two typical New England dishes included flapjacks (like pancakes) and hasty pudding, made from cornmeal, salt, and water and served with maple syrup and milk.

In the Middle colonies there was a longer growing season and better soil. The Dutch and Germans who settled there brought their own culinary traditions with them. The Dutch enjoyed cheeses, cookies, cakes, and pastries. The Germans ate a lot of cabbage and rye bread and had many different ways to cook pork. Colonists in the Middle colonies often built brick ovens into the inside wall of their fireplaces. Later, they moved these ovens outside of the fireplace, and eventually cast iron stoves became popular. Women baked cookies, cakes, breads, and pies about once a week.

The South had a good climate for crops and a long growing season. Many different types of food could be grown there, and Southerners also ate a lot of meat. Because of the warm weather, food spoiled quickly in the Southern colonies. The bad flavor of spoiled food was often hidden by adding spices like black pepper or chili pepper. Southerners often enjoyed eating hominy with their meats and vegetables. Hominy is corn with the hulls removed from the kernels (Indian style). Another popular southern dish was succotash — lima

Depiction of a colonial New England farmhouse
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-102852]

beans and hominy or white corn cooked with butter, sugar, salt, pepper, and cream. African Americans in the South ate spicier foods than the European colonists. Some of their favorites included black-eyed peas, okra, and peanuts. An African specialty was hoppin' John, which consisted of black-eyed peas, onion, seasoning, and bacon served with rice.

Few colonial homes had separate dining rooms or even dinner tables. In order to eat, a family might lay boards across a packing case brought from Europe or on top of a workbench. Most food was served in bowls and eaten on wooden boards called trenchers. Forks were considered to be an unnecessary luxury when they were first brought over from Europe, but spoons were used. At meals children were generally expected to be quiet; "speak not" was the rule.

IMPACT

- Colonial men were recognized as head of their households, with both children and women subject to the authority of their fathers, husbands, or older brothers. There were few differences in the way colonial adults and children lived; everyone worked hard. Colonial families spent almost all of their time together.

- Schools varied from region to region in the colonies. In New England, Puritans were very concerned about education and quickly established public schools and colleges. In the mid-Atlantic colonies, such as Pennsylvania, there were numerous private schools with no religious affiliation. Children in the Southern colonies were usually taught at home by their parents or private tutors.

- Clothing styles varied for upper-class and lower-class colonial men and women. In the eighteenth century, many men wore wigs, and women usually kept their hair covered with caps or hats. Very young colonial children of both sexes wore dresses

with close-fitting bodices, but at age five or six boys were breeched.

- The average life expectancy for colonial Americans was less than twenty-five years. There were only a few American doctors trained in medical schools, and they had little knowledge of the real causes and cures of most disease.

- American colonists wanted to eat the same foods that they had eaten in Europe. However, many of those foods did not grow well in America. So the colonists learned to grow and eat new foods like corn, beans, squash, and pumpkin and to hunt and fish like the Native Americans.

LESSON 17

The French and Indian War. . . . . 1754 — 1763 A.D.

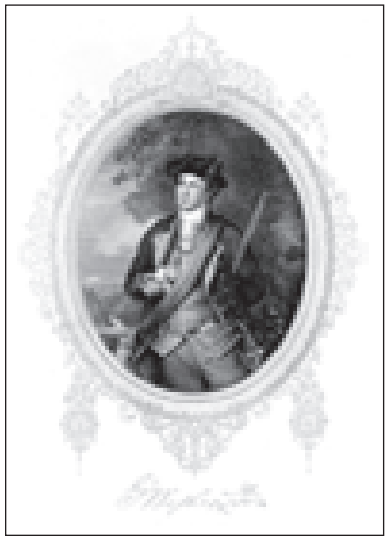
ATMOSPHERE

A COLONIAL EXTENSION OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

What became known as the French and Indian War was actually a colonial extension of the Seven Years' War in Europe, in which the British fought the French, Austrians, and Spanish. Although fighting began in 1754, the French and Indian War did not officially begin until May of 1756. This seven-year conflict pitted England against France, and most Native Americans allied themselves with the French. This was an imperial struggle over colonial wealth, trade, and territory that would decide which European power would control North America. The bloodiest American war in the eighteenth century, the French and Indian War cost more American lives than the American Revolution and involved people on three continents.

By 1750, British territory in the New World consisted of much of the east coast of North America, whereas the French held eastern Canada and the Louisiana territory. Tensions between the British and French in North America had been rising for a number of years, and each side wanted to increase its land holdings there. The French had founded a string of forts, missions, and fur-trading posts in the region bounded by the four major cities of Quebec, Montreal, Detroit, and

Capture of Fort Duquesne
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-57648]



Colonel George Washington
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-112547]

New Orleans. As the British began to move west, clearing land and hunting game, the French and Indian trappers became angry at losing their hunting grounds. The result was that bands of Native Americans, encouraged by the French, began raiding British frontier settlements.

In an effort to keep the British from expanding into the Ohio River valley, the French began to build a chain of new forts from the St. Lawrence River to the Mississippi River in the early 1750s. But the British crown had already claimed this region. One of these French forts, Fort Duquesne, was built near Pittsburgh — an area that the British said belonged to their Virginia colony. In late 1753, the British governor of Virginia sent a twenty-one-year-old surveyor named George Washington to Fort Duquesne to tell the French to leave the area.

When the French refused to go, the governor sent Washington back with a small militia force of about 150 men. Washington and his men fired on the French patrol unsuccessfully. The Virginians were forced to retreat, but they received authorization to build a fort nearby — a crude fortress they named Fort Necessity. A large French force soon surrounded Fort Necessity, trapping Washington and his soldiers inside. A third of the Virginians were killed, and Washington was forced to surrender and return to Virginia with the message that the Ohio Territory belonged to the French. This clash marked the beginning of the French and Indian War.

EVENT

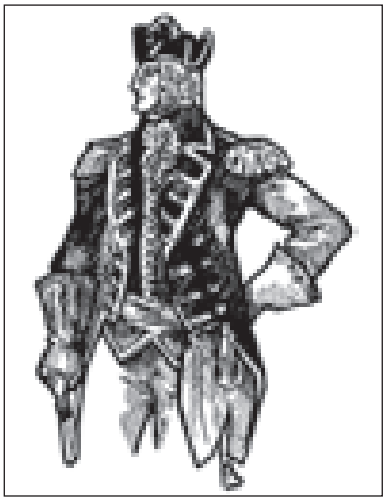
FIRST PHASE OF THE FIGHTING (1754 – 1755)

During 1754 the American colonists managed on their own against the French. Virtually all of the American native tribes decided to ally themselves with the French; only the Iroquois sided with the British. The Iroquois had been enemies of the French since Champlain had sided against the Iroquois in their war with the Huron. Their Indian allies provided a great advantage, but the French in America did suffer

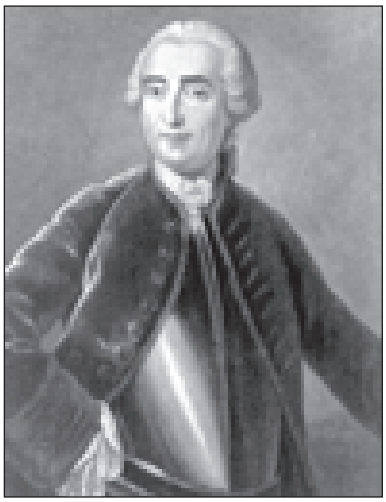
from two major disadvantages: they had to rely on soldiers hired by the French fur-trading companies and they had to rely on food from the homeland. The British American colonies were protected by their own militias and they were able to produce their own food.

On the other hand, the British colonies each had their own government, and they did not always work well together. The French forces had the advantage of being controlled by a single government. Furthermore, French settlements were close together, making them easier to defend.

In 1755, the British sent Major General Edward Braddock to oversee the British colonial forces. Accompanied by George Washington, Braddock and his force of over fourteen hundred men headed to Fort Duquesne in another attempt to oust the French. On their way, Braddock and his men were surprised by a French and Indian ambush and were badly routed. British regiments, trained in the linear European way of combat, found it difficult to win in the forests of America against the French and Indians, who used guerrilla tactics. General Braddock himself was mortally wounded near Fort Duquesne, leaving Washington to extricate the British and colonial forces from the wilderness. Once again the French had maintained their control of the Ohio River valley. In the North, however, they were successful in winning a battle on Lake George and establishing Fort Edward on the Hudson River and Fort William Henry on Lake George in upstate New York.



Major General Edward Braddock
Line drawing courtesy of Amy Pak

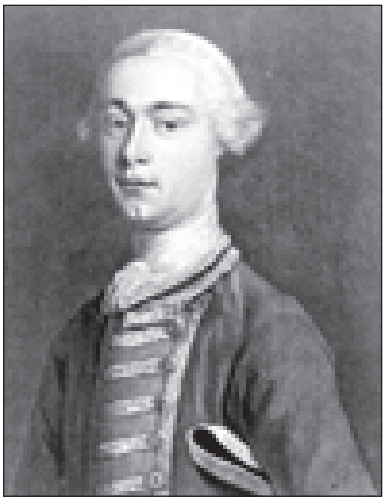


General Louis Montcalm
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ61-239]

SECOND PHASE OF THE FIGHTING (1756 – 1757)

By 1756 the British and French governments had formally declared war, and the conflict spread from America to the West Indies, India, and Europe. Although the fighting in America became part of a global conflict known as the Seven Years' War, the British were especially determined not to allow the French to become victorious on the battlefield in the New World. The new British commander-in-chief, Lord Loudoun, managed the war effort closely, demanding exact counts of soldiers and money from the colonies. American colonial assemblies began to refuse to cooperate with the British.

General Jeffrey Amherst
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-57636]



General James Wolfe
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-48404]

Although the French were outnumbered almost two to one by the British and the colonials, they dominated the battlefield during this phase of the war. In 1756, the British were soundly defeated by the French under General Louis Montcalm at Fort Oswego on Lake Ontario in upstate New York. Following the battle, Montcalm was horrified to discover that their Indian allies had killed many wounded British soldiers, taken scalps, and made slaves of other captives. In 1757, the British soldiers at Fort William Henry surrendered to Montcalm and his men, who promised them safe passage back to England. Again, the Native Americans fighting with the French massacred more than 180 British soldiers and took over 300 captive. This battle and the massacre that followed were portrayed by James Fenimore Cooper in *The Last of the Mohicans*.

THIRD PHASE OF THE FIGHTING (1758 – 1763)

The tide began to turn in favor of England in 1758 when Lord William Pitt came out of retirement to direct the British war effort. Under Pitt's guidance, the British began adapting their war strategies to the landscape and terrain of the American frontier. Pitt eventually began to give the American colonists greater independence in pursuing the war effort, which increased their cooperation and enthusiasm. He promised payment to them in proportion to their support of the war and gave colonial assemblies control over recruitment. Thousands more British soldiers were sent to America to fight, and British generals Jeffrey Amherst and James Wolfe began to score victories in battles. Meanwhile, the French were beginning to be abandoned by many of their Native American allies.

In July 1758, the French fortress of Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island was captured by Amherst and Wolfe and their forces. This victory gave the British control of the Bay of St. Lawrence. Then British and American forces burned Fort Duquesne before retreating north. In the same year, British troops captured Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario, which was the main supply center for French forces in the Great Lakes region. With this victory, the British were able to completely cut off the French troops from reinforcements of men, food, and weapons.

During the next year of fighting, the British captured Fort Niagara, which completed their domination of the Great Lakes area. A British expedition led by General Amherst also seized Fort Ticonderoga and Crown Point, opening British passage to Montreal. Another British group, commanded by General Wolfe, sailed up the St. Lawrence River. Just outside the French city of Quebec, the British met the French in battle on the rainy morning of September 13, 1759. The French suffered a massive defeat in a dramatic uphill attack by the British. General Wolfe and the French general Montcalm were both killed. Quebec, the strongest French fortress in Canada and the lynchpin of French power in North America, fell into England's dominion.

By September of 1760, the British controlled the American frontier. The French army had formally surrendered to General Amherst in Montreal and to Major Robert Rogers at Fort Detroit, the last two French strongholds in America. Although scattered fighting would continue for the next few years in Canada, basically the war in America was over. The Seven Years' War continued elsewhere for several more years, with Spain becoming involved against the British early in 1762. However, strong British sea power completely destroyed any hopes of a French victory.

The Plains of Abraham
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-6879]

TREATY OF PARIS

The treaty ending the French and Indian War was signed in Paris on February 10, 1763. The Treaty of Paris, which also ended the European Seven Years' War, gave all of North America east of the Mississippi River, except for New Orleans, to England. The French turned over their claim to New Orleans and the lands west of the Mississippi to Spain as compensation for Spain's surrender of Florida to the British.

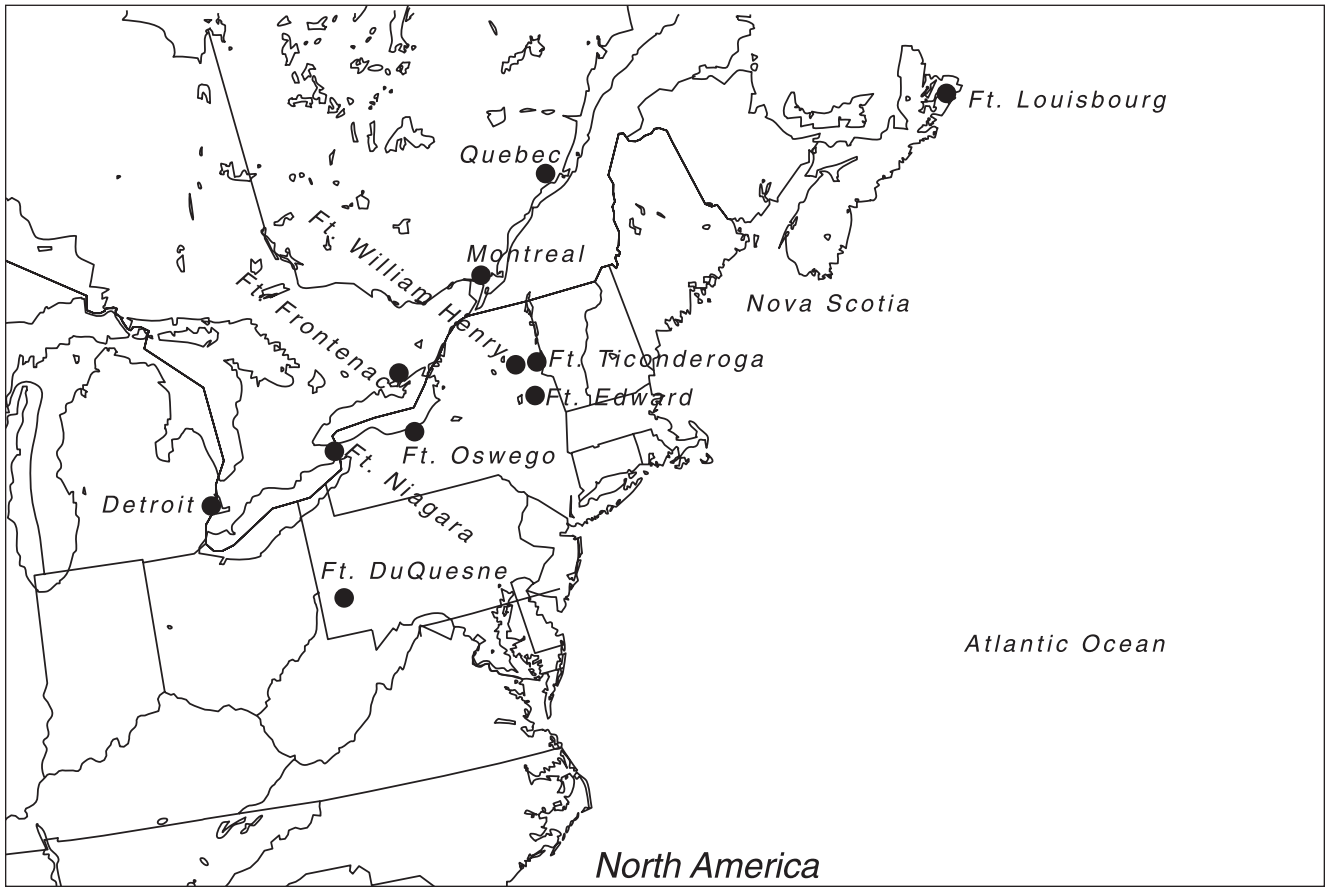
Although the war with the French was over, the British continued to fight with Native Americans over land claims. Shortly after the Treaty of Paris was signed, Pontiac's Rebellion flared up. Many of the battlefields were the same as those in the French and Indian War (Forts Pitt, Niagara, Detroit). The Indians, however, were already exhausted by years of fighting, and they capitulated to the British in

1765. Although conflict ceased for a time, enmity between Native Americans and the British in America would be an ongoing problem for many years to come.

RESULTS OF THE WAR

The French and Indian War effectively ended French political and cultural influence in most of North America. The British gained massive amounts of land, greatly strengthening their hold on the continent, and established their commercial and naval supremacy. However, war expenses and increased military costs following the war led the British Parliament to levy the first direct taxes it had ever imposed on the American colonies (they had levied a limited number of external

Significant French and Indian War battlesites



taxes or trade duties in the past). This action, along with other restrictive measures, played a major role in the worsening relationship between England and her colonies, which would eventually lead to the Revolutionary War.

For the first time, American colonists had united together against a common enemy. This unifying experience established George Washington as the first American war hero. The colonial militiamen fighting in the war had seen themselves as volunteers in a "people's army," in contrast to the British army, which they considered to be coercive and authoritarian. The battle experience that these American fighting men gained would prove beneficial when the time came for them to fight England for their independence.

IMPACT

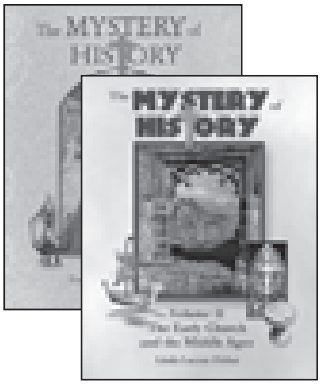
- The French and Indian War, a colonial extension of the Seven Years' War, pitted the British against the French, who were allied with most Native Americans tribes, in a struggle that decided which European power would control North America.

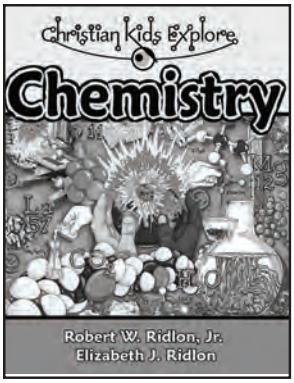
- Although the French dominated the fighting during the early years of the war, England became victorious when they adapted their war strategies to the terrain of the American frontier and succeeded in gaining the cooperation and support of the colonial assemblies.

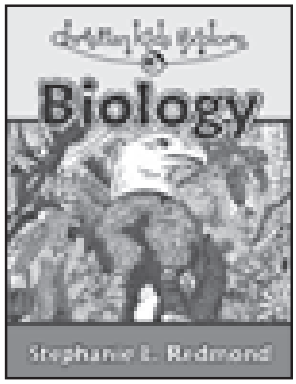
- The Treaty of Paris of 1763 (ending the French and Indian War) established England's supremacy in North America. However, expenses from the war greatly increased England's debt, leading to the levying of taxes on the American colonists — a move that contributed to the deterioration of England's relationship with her colonies and eventually to the outbreak of the American Revolution.

- The French and Indian War united the American colonies for the first time against a common enemy. George Washington was established as the first American hero, and the battle experience gained in this war would prove helpful to the colonists when they fought England for their independence.

ALSO AVAILABLE FROM BRIGHT IDEAS PRESS...







All American History Volumes I and II by Celeste W. Rakes

Containing hundreds of images and dozens of maps, *All American History* is a complete year's curriculum for students in fifth grade–high school when combined with the Student Activity Book and Teacher's Guide (yet adaptable for younger and older students).

There are 32 weekly lessons, and each lesson contains three sections examining the atmosphere in which the event occurred, the event itself, and the impact this event had on the future of America.

- Student Activity Book
- Teacher's Guide
- Student Reader

The Mystery of History Volumes I, II, and III by Linda Hobar

This award-winning series provides a historically accurate, Bible-centered approach to learning world history. The completely chronological lessons shed new light on who walked the earth when, as well as on where important Bible figures fit into secular history. All Ages.

- Volume I: Creation to the Resurrection
- Volume II: The Early Church & the Middle Ages
- Volume III: The Renaissance, Reformation, and Growth of Nations

CHRISTIAN KIDS EXPLORE... SERIES

Christian Kids Explore Biology by Stephanie Redmond

One of Cathy Duffy's 100 Top Picks! Elementary biology that is both classical and hands-on. Conversational style and organized layout makes teaching a pleasure. 1st–6th.

Christian Kids Explore Earth & Space by Stephanie Redmond

Another exciting book in this award-winning series! Author Stephanie Redmond is back with more great lessons, activities, and ideas. 1st–6th.

Christian Kids Explore Chemistry by Robert W. Ridlon, Jr., and Elizabeth J. Ridlon

Another great book in this award-winning series! Authors Robert and Elizabeth Ridlon team up for 30 lessons, unit wrap ups, and even coloring pages all about the fascinating world of chemistry. 4th–8th.

Christian Kids Explore Physics by Robert W. Ridlon, Jr. and Elizabeth J. Ridlon

The universe that we live in is the result of God's thoughtful design and careful building. Physics gives us a glimpse into the materials, laws, and structures of that universe. 4th–8th.

FOR ORDERING INFORMATION, CALL 877.492.8081 OR VISIT WWW.BRIGHTIDEASPRESS.COM

Since 1992 we've providec user-friendly resources for homeschoolers.

Now We're Excited to Present
Our Brightest Idea Yet...

Illuminations

Psalm 119:105

Lighting Your Path Toward Excellence

Practical	Fun	Affordable	Encouraging
We can do this!	*We can enjoy this!*	*We can get this!*	*We're not alone!*

An all-inclusive curriculum based on *The Mystery of History* and *All American History* series.
The curriculum includes:

- Bible
- Literature
- Language Arts
  - Grammar
  - Writing
  - Copywork
  - Spelling
  - Vocabulary
- Science
- Humanities
- Geography
- History
- Life Skills
- Projects
- Mom Support.

3rd-8th Grades & Highschool
On CD or as a Digital Download

"We have just entered week 10 of both *The Mystery of History* 1 and Illuminations Year 1 - and we are LOVING it! I really want to communicate JUST how much these tools are affecting my life and walk with the Lord, as well as that of my 11-year-old daughter."

"The Family Study Guides alone are worth at least triple the money! I didn't realize how great those Graphic Organizers are! It's amazing how it has helped my son to write out his answers and thoughts in a much more structured and understandable way."

Your Complete, Chronological, Customizable Guide to a Christian Education!

For a free sample go to http://Illuminations.BrightIdeasPress.com 877.492.8081

Bright Ideas PRESS

Bright Ideas Press books are available
online or through your favorite
Christian bookstore or homeschool supplier.

HEY PARENTS!

Here's a great place to:
Read curriculum reviews
See sample chapters of new books
Sign up for an exciting and useful e-zine
Join our Yahoo groups
Check our homeschool conference schedule
Explore Geography, History, and Science resources
Find great deals on our products!

Secure, online ordering available

WWW.BRIGHTIDEASPRESS.COM