

U.S. Regents - Unit 1

Colonial Foundations, 1607 - 1763

European colonists in North America faced a number of challenges to establishing permanent settlements. From conflicts with Native Americans, to developing a sustainable economy to creating structures of governance, the original 13 British colonies developed varying solutions, at times leading to vast regional differences.

Key Questions

- What was the impact of European colonization on the natives peoples of North America?
- What factors contributed to the development of regional differences between the British colonies in North America?
- Which political thoughts and political systems from England influenced the development of colonial political structures in North America?

Key People

Christopher Columbus

Roger Williams

John Peter Zenger

John Smith

Anne Hutchinson

Benjamin Franklin

John Rolfe

Samuel de Champlain

George Washington

John Winthrop

Key Vocabulary / Events

Columbian Exchange

Virginia House of
Burgesses

smallpox

Jamestown Colony

Self-Governance

Plymouth Colony

triangular trade

Salutary Neglect

Mayflower Compact

Middle Passage

French & Indian War

New England Colonies

indentured servant

Albany Plan of Union

Middle Colonies

chattel slavery

Treaty of Paris (1763)

Southern Colonies

mercantilism

The Story of Christopher Columbus

Primary Source 1: Translation of the Columbus letter

The following document was originally written in Latin by Christopher Columbus in 1493 to publicize his voyage. It has been adapted from the original text into paragraphs.

On the thirty-third day after I departed, I came to the Indian sea, where I found many islands inhabited by men . . . all which I took possession for our most fortunate king [King Ferdinand]. . .

All these people lack, as I said above, every kind of iron; they are also without weapons, which indeed are unknown; nor are they competent to use them, not on account of deformity of body, for they are well formed, but because they are timid and full of fear. . . when I sent two or three of my men to some of the villages, that they might speak with the natives, and as soon as they saw our men approaching, they would quickly take flight. And this was not because any hurt or injury had been inflicted on any one of them, for to everyone whom I visited and with whom I was able to converse, I distributed whatever I had, cloth and many other things, no return being made to me. . . .

They show greater love for all others than for themselves; they give valuable things. . . being satisfied even with a very small return, or with nothing; however, I forbade that things so small and of no value should be given to them, such as pieces of plates, dishes, and glass, likewise keys and shoelace tips although if they were to obtain these, it seemed to them like getting the most beautiful jewels in the world. It happened, indeed, that a certain sailor obtained in exchange for a shoelace tips as much worth of gold as would equal three golden coins; and likewise other things for articles of very little value, especially for new silver coins, and for some gold coins, to obtain which they gave whatever the seller desired, as for instance an ounce and a half and two ounces of gold, or thirty and forty pounds of cotton, with which they were already acquainted. They also traded cotton and gold for pieces of bows, bottles, jugs and jars, like persons without reason, which I forbade because it was very wrong; and I gave to them many beautiful and pleasing things that I had brought with me, no value being taken in exchange. . . .

. . . They firmly believe that all strength and power, and in fact all good things are in heaven, and that I had come down from thence with these ships and sailors; and in this belief I was received there after they had put aside fear. . . . They are coming with me now, yet always believing that I descended from heaven

Source: Osher Map Library-Smith Center for Cartographic Education

www.oshermaps.org/special-map-exhibits/columbus-letter/iii-translation

Analysis Questions - Primary Source I

1. Who wrote this primary source? Why might that be important for historians or researchers to notice?

2. When was the document written?

3. Why was the document written?

4. What was the relationship between Columbus, his men, and the Native Americans like?
Describe the interactions between Columbus, his men, and the Native Americans - were they mostly positive or negative? Use at least two pieces of evidence from the text to support your answer.

Primary Source 2: *Your heroes are not our heroes: A matter of perspective, a matter of experience.* By Ramon Rivera, the Jatibonicu Taino Tribal Nation, 19 July 2001

Columbus ran his flagship, the Santa Maria, aground on the island of Haiti on Christmas Eve in 1492. The Arawak people helped rescue Columbus and his men and helped salvage the shipwrecked Santa Maria. The Arawak people helped Columbus dismantle the wrecked flagship and erect a fort with the salvaged timbers. When Columbus left Haiti he rewarded the Arawak [Taino] people by kidnapping 25 of them, and selling the seven or eight survivors of the return voyage to Spain, into slavery.

On Columbus's second voyage, he returned with 17 heavily armed ships 1500 men, cannon, guns, crossbows, and attack dogs. All of which he used to fulfill his wishes of conquest of these Children of God. After his attempts of conquest and enslavement were met with resistance his descriptions of these people became less complementary. The Native people were forced to pay a stipend to the Spanish. This stipend consisted of food, gold, cotton. . . . Failure to produce tribute to the Spanish brought swift and terrible punishment. Those who did not comply were given an attitude adjustment that consisted of violent removal of their nose, ear, hand or foot. Those who actively resisted were burned alive. The Native people were even forced to carry the Spanish, to spare the Spanish the drudgery of walking

So great were the cruelties and horrible degradations that the Native people suffered at the hands of Columbus and his men, that entire villages would be in panic at the sight of a single Spaniard. The whole populations of some villages would, upon the approach of Spanish soldiers, hurl themselves from cliffs, hang themselves, shoot one another with arrows, or take poison to avoid life under the boot of Spanish oppression. Others abandoned their cultivated fields and homes to hide in the forested hills where many thousands starved to death . . .

After the surrounding Islands of the Caribbean were likewise depopulated, the African slave trade began to replace the now all but extinct Native people. Estimates of the Native population of Haiti in 1492 range up to 8 million people. In 1496, according to the results of a Spanish census, the Native population had dropped to approximately 3 million. By 1516 only 12,000 remained. In 1542 [only] 200 remained alive. By 1555, nearly all 8 million were gone.

I am often asked by my non-Native friends why many Native Americans resent the celebration of Columbus Day. Above can be found a few of the reasons why.

Analysis Questions - Primary Source 2

1. Who wrote this primary source? Why might that be important for historians, researchers, students or teachers to notice the author of this source?
2. When was the document written?
3. How does the author describe the relationship between Columbus, his men, and the Native American peoples? Use at least two pieces of evidence from the text to support your answer.

Name: _____

Date: _____

Writing Task

The documents provided on the previous pages provide two very different views of Christopher Columbus and his exploration of the Caribbean. In the space below, please answer each of the questions.

- A. How would you describe the differences between the two accounts?
 - Use examples from both sources to explain the differences
- B. Why do you think that two such different historical accounts of Columbus's exploration exist?
- C. Why would a historian, teacher, or student want to use both sources in order to understand the impact of Columbus?

The Columbian Exchange

The Columbian Exchange was the “exchange of plants, animals, foods, human populations (including slaves) communicable diseases, and ideas between the Eastern and Western hemispheres that occurred after 1492,” according to Wikipedia. The term “Columbian Exchange,” coined in 1972 by historian Alfred Crosby, took hold and became not only standard shorthand for the phenomenon which it exemplified, but also a perspective for witnessing societal and ecological events.

When Christopher Columbus made landfall with his crew in the Caribbean in October 1492, two worlds with separate evolutionary histories met. When Europeans began to settle America’s east coast, they brought with them and cultivated familiar crops – wheat and apples – as well as familiar weeds, such as dandelion and chickweed. In the 1600s, they introduced cattle and horses, which flourished in the New World climate.

Devastating diseases were introduced to the American population which had no resistance to them. John R. McNeill, professor of history at Georgetown University, points out that “when the first inhabitants of the Americas arrived across the Bering land bridge between 20,000 and 12,000 years ago, they brought few diseases with them ... they had no domesticated animals, the original source of human diseases such as smallpox and measles. In addition, as they passed from Siberia to North America, the first Americans had spent many years in extreme cold, which eliminated many of the disease-causing agents that might have traveled with them.” Consequently, between 1492 and 1650, over 90% of the Native American population died in epidemic after epidemic of smallpox, measles, mumps, whooping cough, influenza, chicken pox, and typhus. The loss of labor caused by pathogens indirectly led to the establishment of African slavery among European immigrants in the Americas, resulting in the importation of malaria and yellow fever from Africa, causing even more destruction of the Native American population.

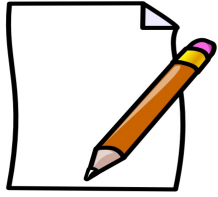
The export of American flora and fauna did not revolutionize the Old World as the influx of European agriculture altered the New World ecosystem. According to Crosby, “the New World’s great contribution to the Old is in crop plants. ... Maize, white potatoes, sweet potatoes, various squashes, chiles, and manioc” augmented and invigorated the European cuisine. Very few New World creatures traversed the ocean — the muskrat, the gray squirrel, and a few others, but they did not precipitate large scale changes in Old World ecosystems. Although some diseases made the ocean voyage from New World to Old, they did not have appreciable effects on the European population. Crosby stated that, although some deaths were attributed to ailments from America, “the total is insignificant compared to Native American losses to smallpox alone.”

In Crosby’s original work, he eschewed ideological statements. He reminded his readers that neither the Old nor New World was inferior or superior to the other; the encounter between two

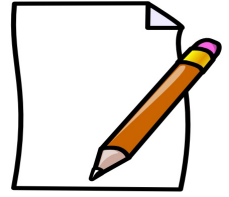
worlds was fundamentally an exchange. By 1988, he summarized his long view of the encounter in this way:

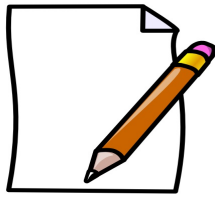
“My point is ... that the impact of the Encounter is so massive that we should consider it with the same sense of scale as we do events connected with the endings and beginnings of the geological periods and eras and their influence on the direction of evolution on the planet.”

	Answer [your words]	Evidence from text
What is the author's view on the Columbian Exchange?		
What is the relationship between the Eastern and Western Hemisphere after 1492?		
Which hemisphere benefited more from the interaction after 1492?		

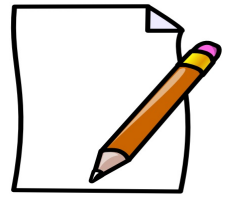


Class Notes / Vocabulary





Class Notes / Vocabulary



The Roanoke Island Colony: Lost, and Found?

By **THEO EMERY** AUG. 10, 2015

MERRY HILL, N.C. — Under a blistering sun, Nicholas M. Lucchetti swatted at mosquitoes as he watched his archaeology team at work in a shallow pit on a hillside above the shimmering waters of Albemarle Sound. On a table in the shade, a pile of plastic bags filled with artifacts was growing. Fragments of earthenware and pottery. A mashed metal rivet. A piece of a hand-wrought nail.

They call the spot Site X. Down a dusty road winding through soybean fields, the clearing lies between two cypress swamps teeming with venomous snakes. It is a suitably mysterious name for a location that may shed light on an enigma at the heart of America's founding: the fate of the "lost colonists" who vanished from a sandy outpost on Roanoke Island, about 60 miles east, in the late 16th century.

On and off for three years, Mr. Lucchetti and colleagues with the First Colony Foundation have been excavating parts of the hillside, hoping to find traces of the colonists. As if clues in a latter-day treasure hunt, hidden markings on a 16th-century map led them to the spot on the sound's western shore, which Mr. Lucchetti had previously surveyed.

Mr. Lucchetti, 66, chose his words carefully as he described the fruits of their latest work. "I'm trying to make sure that I say this correctly," he said. "We have evidence from this site that strongly indicates that there were Roanoke colonists here."

In Chapel Hill, N.C., on Tuesday, the foundation will reveal its findings, which have been submitted for peer review, and the theory that at least a few of the settlers moved inland to Site X.

The announcement, along with separate findings from another excavation on a coastal island, is sure to stir excitement. Some scholars who have seen the evidence are supportive of the findings, but at least one sees the evidence as too slight to draw firm conclusions. All agree that more digging is needed. The new findings are likely to set off a new round of questions: Why would some of the settlers have split off to the inland site? Where did they go after that? And what became of the rest of the Roanoke colonists?

"We need to know more," said Eric Klingelhofer, a vice president for research at the foundation and a history professor at Mercer University in Macon, Ga. "This whole story is a blank — a blank page, a blank chapter of history, and I think archaeology is the only way to come up with answers."

The story of the Lost Colony of Roanoke has long lent a spooky note to grade schoolers' study of American history. In 1587, an intrepid Englishman named John White took more than 100

settlers to Roanoke Island, which lies inside the chain of barrier islands that is today called the Outer Banks. It was Sir Walter Raleigh's second attempt to colonize North Carolina, but the first to include civilians and families. White's granddaughter, Virginia Dare, was the first child born in the New World to English parents, just a few weeks after their arrival.

A resupply trip sent White back to England, but a naval war with Spain delayed his return. When he finally came back, three years after he left, the settlers had vanished, but they had left behind cryptic clues: the word "Croatoan" carved into a fence post, and the letters "CRO" on a tree. Many people believe these referred to what is now Hatteras Island, 50 miles south. A search run by a separate group has been going on there for the last several years.

Part tragedy, part mystery, part historical curiosity, the fate of the colony and Virginia Dare has spawned a folkloric cottage industry, a mix of sober scholarship, wild speculation and at least one outright hoax. A widely held theory — though unproven — is that colonists hitched themselves to area tribes and gradually assimilated.

The most tantalizing clue in centuries as to the Lost Colonists' fate came in 2012, after the British Museum re-examined one of White's coastal maps for the First Colony Foundation. X-ray spectroscopy and other imaging techniques revealed that a patch hid a four-pointed blue and red star on the western end of Albemarle Sound. That spot, near the outlets of the Chowan River and Salmon Creek, roughly corresponded to White's oblique reference to a site 50 miles inland, which he mentioned in testimony he gave after trying to return to the colony.

James Horn, a foundation board member, had written a book hypothesizing that the location, with its protected harbor and a nearby Native American village, could have been a destination. The idea was without concrete evidence, though; while the map appeared to support it, only shovels in the ground could confirm it.

The fact that the property was undisturbed was something of a miracle. Tucked into economically depressed and largely rural Bertie County, the land had been slated for development into more than 2,000 luxury condominiums, restaurants and a marina, but the plan collapsed after the financial crisis of 2008.

North Carolina law requires archaeological surveys before large coastal developments can proceed. By coincidence, the developers had hired Mr. Lucchetti's outfit, the James River Institute for Archaeology, to survey the site in 2007. The dig had turned up many Native American artifacts, which are common in the region — but also some European artifacts. At the time, Mr. Lucchetti hypothesized that they had been left by later European settlers, from a nearby plantation or the homestead of a trader who arrived in the mid-1600s.

But the recent insights from the British Museum's analysis of the map prompted the foundation to re-examine the 2007 findings from Merry Hill and other dig sites in the region. A key to

identifying the earliest colonial life was a type of ceramic known as Surrey-Hampshire Border ware, which was no longer imported to the New World after the Virginia Company dissolved in the early 17th century.

The reconsideration of the Site X artifacts led to a decision to explore further. With the landowner's cooperation, archaeologists began sifting the soil again in 2012.

Slowly, the pits gave up their secrets. In just the small areas excavated, the hillside has yielded an unusually high concentration of Border ware and other colonial artifacts, such as a food-storage jar called a baluster, a hook used to stretch hides, a buckle, and pieces of early gun flintlocks called priming pans. No signs of a fort or other structures have been found, but the aggregate of the artifacts convinced the archaeologists that at least a few of the colonists wound up there.

Mr. Lucchetti insists on the caveat that only a small number — fewer than a dozen — were present for an indeterminate amount of time. “It wasn’t the relocated colony — I keep emphasizing that — and we need to do some more work here to understand,” he said.

There are theories for other locations where colonists might have scattered to, including the one farther south, on Hatteras Island. That site has been known since the 1930s and in the past has yielded intriguing metal items such as a signet ring, part of a horse bridle, two 17th-century coins and part of the firing mechanism for a gun.

Over the last few years, a British archaeologist, Mark Horton, has led an excavation there. He, too, has found unusual artifacts, such as a rapier hilt, late 16th-century gun hardware and part of a slate writing tablet. Many of the 16th-century items were mixed in with artifacts from almost a century later, though, making it nearly impossible to date them. And no Border ware pottery — a telltale sign of habitation — has been found on the Hatteras site.

Mr. Horton, whose findings have not been published or peer reviewed, posits that colonists made their way south to Hatteras around 1590 and assimilated with the tribe there. After years of cohabitation, European items could have been gradually discarded long after they were brought to the site, which would account for their being mixed in with later detritus, he said in an interview.

“I don’t necessarily see that what we’ve found on Hatteras rules out their site, or vice versa,” he said.

Mr. Lucchetti also said the two were not mutually exclusive; if the colonists split up, they could have ended up in multiple locations. But he says he believes Site X has stronger evidence of lost colonists because of the ceramics found there.

Carter L. Hudgins, the director of the graduate program in historic preservation at Clemson/College of Charleston, said, “Any evidence that helps open the door to this mystery, even if it’s just a little bit, is something folks have been looking for at least since John White’s return to the site in 1590.” While not directly affiliated with the foundation, Dr. Hudgins has volunteered at Site X and other foundation projects over the years.

Others are more circumspect. Charles R. Ewen, the president of the Society for Historical Archaeology and director of the Phelps Archaeology Laboratory at East Carolina University, says he wants incontrovertible proof of 16th-century occupation, such as a European grave from the period.

He is also unconvinced that colonists removed to the Hatteras site, although the findings there could indicate contact between colonists and Native Americans. “I know we want a definitive answer, and there’s just not enough evidence yet from either site to say that, yes, this is where some of the lost colonists went,” he said. “I’m not cynical, but I haven’t seen enough evidence to say, yeah, you bet, I’m on board with that.”

For now, the foundation hopes to find funding to secure the 15 acres to excavate it thoroughly. Michael Flannelly, whose company owns the land, said he hoped to find a way for the archaeological work to proceed while allowing nearby land to be developed.

“It’s a 430-year-old mystery, and if I can be a part of solving that mystery, that’s something I’m interested in,” he said.

As the sun reached its zenith one day last week, the work began to slow. Mr. Lucchetti retired to the shade, sweat dripping from his brow. Soon the pit would be filled, the sifting screens packed up and the work paused until the future of the site could be determined.

“Everyone has encouraged us that what we’re finding is really exciting and terribly significant,” he said, “and we just need to do some more here.”

Source: The New York Times: <http://nyti.ms/1gsqA12>

Questions:

1. What was the Roanoke Island Colony?
2. What does the title of this article end with “Lost, and Found?”
3. According to the article, what is significant about “Spot X”?
4. What does this article reveal about how “history” is made?

The Pilgrims' Journey to America

In the early 1600s a group of English men and women called *Separatists* were living in Holland. They had moved there because in England they did not have religious freedom. In England they were forced to belong to the Church of England. They did not believe in the Church of England, so they decided to *separate* from that church and go to Holland where they could worship as they chose. But after living in Holland for more than a decade, they began to fear that their children were losing their family traditions and becoming too much like the Dutch. They decided to move again. This time they would go somewhere where they could raise their children as they chose and no one could tell them what religion they had to follow. They chose to sail to the New World - America.

These people, we now call them Pilgrims, hired two ships to take them to America. The two ships were the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*. The Pilgrims made an arrangement with the Virginia Company to build a settlement in Virginia and begin a new life in America. After loading the two ships with food, water, and other supplies the Pilgrims set sail for America in August 1620. Almost immediately the *Speedwell* began leaking. The Pilgrims had to turn around and sail back to England to fix the ship. . . . On August 21, 1620, the Pilgrims set off again for America. But soon water was again leaking into the *Speedwell*. After sailing nearly 300 miles toward America they had to turn back again. This time the Pilgrims decided to leave the *Speedwell* in England and sail to America with just one ship, the *Mayflower*. . . .

Of course, putting all of the supplies and all of the people from the two ships onto one ship made the *Mayflower* very crowded. There were now about 130 people on the small ship, 102 of them Pilgrims. On September 6, 1620, the *Mayflower* set sail for America again. Unfortunately, because of the delay, the *Mayflower* would be crossing the Atlantic during the dangerous stormy season.

The first few weeks of the voyage went fairly well. The only real problem was seasickness among many of the Pilgrims, who were so ill they could hardly move. It was cold, wet, and very uncomfortable aboard the ship.

[After some time] violent storms began pounding against the little ship. One man was washed overboard during a storm. . . . The *Mayflower* began to take on water and a wooden beam cracked. . . . The storms pushed the ship farther and farther north and when the storms finally ended, the Pilgrims and the crew of the *Mayflower* found themselves hundreds of miles north of where they were supposed to be. . . . The *Mayflower* stopped in Newfoundland to resupply and headed south along the east coast of America. On November 11, 1620, the *Mayflower* stopped at Cape Cod. It had been 66 days since the Pilgrims had left England.

The Pilgrims decided to build their settlement not far from Cape Cod in a place they named Plymouth. The *Mayflower* stayed in Plymouth through the winter as the Pilgrims built their houses, and the ship finally left to begin its journey back to England on April 5, 1621.

The Mayflower Compact

After arriving on the east coast of North America, far north of the intended location for their settlement in the Hudson Valley, the Pilgrims found themselves facing a number of challenges. One of those challenges was the creation of an organized form of government.

The Pilgrims had assumed that, upon reaching the land set aside for them by the Virginia Company, they would be under the governance of England and the king, although free to practice their religious beliefs. They had negotiated a trade agreement with the Virginia Company and had reached an amicable [agreeable] arrangement with King James. Yet the Pilgrims found themselves outside the jurisdiction of either the Virginia Company or the king, and they knew that without some kind of government their colony would devolve [degenerate] into chaos. . . The Mayflower Compact represents the establishment of that new government.

The Mayflower Compact was signed . . . by forty-one of the adult men of the new settlement. This agreement established majority rule as the foundation for their new society.

The text of the Mayflower Compact:

In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are underwritten, the loyal subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord King James, by the Grace of God of Great Britain, France, and Ireland King, Defender of the Faith, etc.

Having undertaken for the Glory of God and advancement of the Christian Faith and Honour of our King and Country, a Voyage to plant the First Colony in the Northern Parts of Virginia, do by these presents solemnly and mutually in the presence of God and one of another, Covenant and Combine ourselves together in a Civil Body Politic, for our better ordering and preservation and furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof to enact, constitute and frame such just and equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Constitutions and Offices from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the Colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunder subscribed our names at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the year of the reign of our Sovereign Lord King James, of England, France and Ireland the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth. Anno Domini 1620.

Name: _____

Document Analysis: The Mayflower Compact

<u>The Mayflower Compact</u>	<u>Questions</u>
In the name of God, Amen. We . . . the Loyal Subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord King James . . .	Who is writing this compact?
Having undertaken for the glory of God, and advancement of the Christian Faith, and honor of our King and Country, a Voyage to plant the first Colony in the Northern parts of Virginia;	Why did they undertake this voyage?
do by these presents, solemnly and mutually, in the presence of God, and one another, covenant, and combine ourselves together into a civil body politick,	What action are they taking?
for our better ordering and preservation and furtherance of the ends aforesaid. . .	Why are they doing this?
In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names at Cape-Cod the 11th of November, in the year of the reign of our sovereign Lord King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth, Anno Domini 1620	When do they agree to this compact?
Summary of the Document	

The Pilgrims' First Year in Plymouth

The Pilgrims' settlement in Plymouth very nearly ceased to exist only a few months after it was established. Of the 102 Pilgrims who reached America in the late fall of 1620 less than half lived to see the spring. Several factors led to this calamity. Many of the colonists were very weak and sick from the Atlantic crossing and therefore fewer people were available to build shelters and forage for food. The supplies aboard the Mayflower had nearly run out. Additionally, since they had arrived so late in the season, there was no time to plant and harvest crops.

During the winter of 1620–1621 both starvation and disease devastated the new colony. Fortunately for the Pilgrims they established a friendly relationship with an English-speaking Native American named Squanto. Squanto introduced the Pilgrims to Massasoit, chief of the Pokanoket, and other leaders of the various tribes of the Wampanoag people who had lived near the Plymouth settlement for centuries before the Pilgrims had arrived.

Edward Winslow and wife Elizabeth came on the Mayflower to Plymouth in 1620. Elizabeth died the first winter, and Edward remarried to the widowed Mrs. Susanna White, on 12 May 1621—the first marriage in the Plymouth Colony.

Winslow quickly became one of the more prominent men in the colony. He was on many of the early explorations of Cape Cod, and led a number of expeditions to meet and trade with the Indians. He wrote several first-hand accounts of these early years.

In Plymouth, he held a number of political offices, and was routinely elected an assistant to Governor William Bradford; Winslow himself was elected governor of Plymouth on three occasions: 1632/3, 1635/6, and 1644. He died in 1655 at sea between Hispaniola and Jamaica, while serving as a commissioner for Oliver Cromwell on a military expedition to retake the island of Hispaniola

Letter from Edward Winslow to a friend, December 11, 1621 (abridged)

Loving, and old friend;

[W]e have built seven dwelling houses . . . and have made preparation for divers others. We set the last spring some twenty acres of Indian corn, and sowed some six acres of barley and peas, and according to the manner of Indians, we manured our ground with herrings . . . which we have in great abundance . . . Our corn did prove well, and God be praised, we had a good increase of Indian corn . . . our harvest being gotten in, our governor sent four men on fowling [hunting birds], that so

we might after a more special manner rejoice together, after we had gathered the fruit of our labors . . . at which time amongst other recreations, we exercised our arms, many of the Indians coming amongst us, and amongst the rest their greatest king Massasoit, with some ninety men, whom for three days we entertained and feasted, and they went out and killed five deer, which they brought to the plantation and bestowed on our governor, and upon the captain and others. And although it be not always so plentiful, as it was at this time with us, yet by the goodness of God, we are so far from want, that we often wish you partakers of our plenty. We have found the Indians very faithful in their covenant of peace with us . . . it hath pleased God so to possess the Indians with a fear of us, and love unto us, that not only the greatest king amongst them called Massasoit, but also all the princes and peoples round about us, have either made suit unto us, or been glad of any occasion to make peace with us . . . so that there is now great peace amongst the Indians themselves, which was not formerly neither would have been but for us; and we for our parts walk as peaceably and safely in the wood, as in the highways of England, we entertain them familiarly in our houses, and they as friendly bestowing their venison on us. They are a people without any religion, or knowledge of any God, yet very trusty, quick of apprehension [understanding], ripe-witted . . .

I never in my life remember a more seasonable year, than we have here enjoyed . . . For fish and fowl, we have a great abundance, fresh cod in the summer is but coarse meat with us, our bay is full of lobsters all the summer, and affordeth variety of other fish . . . all the spring time the earth sendeth forth naturally very good salad herbs: here are grapes, white and red, and very sweet and strong also . . . the country wanteth only industrious [hard-workingmen] to employ, for it would grieve your hearts (if as I) you had seen so many miles together by goodly rivers uninhabited, and withal to consider those parts of the world wherein you live, to be even greatly burdened with abundance of people . . . I forbear [refrain from] further to write for the present, hoping to see you by the next return, so I take my leave, commending you to the Lord for a safe conduct unto us, Resting in him

Your loving friend

E.W

Plymouth in New England this 11th of December, 1621

Source of Plymouth Lessons: The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History.
<https://www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/early-settlements/resources/pilgrims-mayflower-compact-and-thanksgiving>

Name: _____

Document Analysis Questions - Letter by Edward Winslow, December 11, 1621

Directions: Answer each of the following questions. Use your words AND cite specific evidence from the text as evidence to support your response.

1. Whose planting technique did the Pilgrims copy?

2. Why did the governor send “four men to go fowling”?

3. What did Chief Massasoit and his men bring to the celebration?

4. According to Winslow, how was the Pilgrims’ relationship with the Indians?

5. According to Winslow are the Pilgrims afraid of the Indians or are the Indians afraid of the Pilgrims

6. What kinds of food are there for the Pilgrims to eat?

7. How does Winslow feel about more people coming to America?

Activity - Examining Passenger Lists

Directions: Use the information on the following two pages to gather information about settlers that traveled to England's American colonies. Complete the chart below and answer the questions.

	To Virginia	To New England
Total Passengers		
Ratio of males to females		
Age Distribution		
0 - 4 (infants)		
5 - 13 (children)		
14 - 24 (young adults)		
25 - 59 (adults)		
60 + (elderly)		
Number of married passengers		
Number of passengers traveling with at least one family member		

- Describe the "typical" English immigrant that came to the New World in terms of gender, age, and marital status. What differences, if any, are there between the typical immigrant heading to New England and the typical immigrant to Virginia?
- What can you tell about the social background and wealth of the average passenger on each of the ships? Does one of the ships have richer passengers? What do you predict the passengers on the *America* will do when they arrive in Virginia?

To Virginia (Chesapeake), June 23, 1635 (Modified)

THESE under-written names are to be transported to Virginia, Embarked in the *America*, per Certificate of from the Minister of the Town of Gravesend of their loyalty to the orders of the Church of England.

Richard Sadd	23	John Shawe	16	Thomas Boomer	13
Thomas Wakefield	17	Richard Gummy	21	George Dulmare	8
Thomas Bennett	22	Bartholomew Holton	25	John Underwood	19
Steven Read	24	John White	21	William Bernard	27
William Stanbridge	27	Thomas Chappell	33	Charles Wallinger	24
Henry Barker	18	Hugh Fox	24	Ryce Hooe	36
James Foster	21	Davie Morris	32	John Carter	54
Thomas Talbott	20	Rowland Cotton	22		
Richard Young	31	William Thomas	22	Women.	
Robert Thomas	20	John Yates	20	Elizabeth Remington	20
John Farepoynt	20	Richard Wood	36	Dorothy Standich	22
Robert Askyn	22	Isack Bull	27	Suzan Death	22
Samuell Awde	24	Phillipp Remmington	29	Elizabeth Death	3
Miles Fletcher	27	Radulph Spraging	37	Alice Remmington	26
William Evans	23	George Chaundler	29	Dorothie Baker	18
Lawrence Farebern	23	Thomas Johnson	19	Elizabeth Baker	18
Mathew Robinson	24	George Brookes	35	Sara Colebank	20
Richard Hersey	22	Robert Sabyne	40	Mary Thurrogood	19
John Robinson	32	Phillipp Parsons	10		
Edmond Chipps	19	Henry Parsons	14		
Thomas Pritchard	32	John Eeles	16		
Jonathan Bronsford	21	Richard Miller	12		
William Cowley	20	Symon Richardson	23		

To New England, April 2, 1635 (Modified)

THESE under-written names are to be transported to New England, Embarked in the
Planter, the passengers have brought Certificate from the Justices of the Peace
according to the King's order.

A tailor, JOSEPH TUTTELL	39	THOMAS OLNEY	3
JOAN TUTTELL	42	EPENETUS OLNEY	1
Farmer, GEORGE GIDDINS	25	Servants to GEORGE GIDDINS:	
JANE GIDDINS	20	THOMAS CARTER	25
THOMAS SAVAGE, a tailor	27	MICHELL WILLIAMSON	30
WILLIAM LAWRENCE	12	ELIZABETH MORRISON	12
MARIE LAWRENCE	9	a tailor, RICHARD HARVIE	22
ABIGAIL TUTTELL	6	Weaver, WILLIAM WILCOCKS	34
SYMON TUTTELL	4	MARGARET WILCOCKS	24
SARA TUTTELL	2	JOSEPH WILCOCKS	2
JOSEPH TUTTELL	1	ANNE HARVIE	22
JOAN ANTROBUSS	65	Mason, WILLIAM BEARDSLEY	30
MARIE WRAST	24	MARIE BEARDSLEY	26
THO GREENE	15	MARIE BEARDSLEY	4
NATHAN HEFORD	16	JOHN BEARDSLEY	2
servant to JOSEPH TUTTELL		JOSEPH BEARDSLEY	6 mos.
MARIE CHITTWOOD	24	Farmer, ALLIN PEARLEY	27
Shoemaker, THOMAS OLNEY	35	Shoemaker, WILLIAM FELLOE	24
MARIE OLNEY	30	Tailor, FRANCIS BARKER	24

The Impact of European Colonization on Native Americans

Directions: Carefully analyze the information in the chart below. After you have done so make observations based on the data in the chart.

Population of peoples in North America - 1610 & 1700

Estimated European Population	c. 1610	c. 1700
English in Virginia	100	72,000
French in New France	100	13,000
Spanish in New Mexico	500	3,000
Estimated Native Population	c 1610	c. 1700
Powhatans	15,000	1,000
Hurons	20,000	100's
Pueblos	60,000	14,000

Data Analysis / Observation: What do you notice about the shifts in population of Europeans and Native Americans in North America between 1610 and 1700?

Source: New Visions for Public Schools / affinity.newvisions.org/curriculum-and-instruction
Unit 1_Close Read_NativeAmericanSpeeches_2.0

Native American Speeches

Essential Question: What can we learn about the impact of European colonization on the Native American population from speeches by their leaders?

Native Americans did not often leave behind many written documents or artifacts that could shed light on their history, experiences, or cultures. As a result, much of what is known about Native Americans is from the point of view of European explorers or colonists. One of the few sources of Native American history that exist is a series of speeches collected from 1540 onward. By examining the speeches delivered between the 1600s - 1700s one can learn a great deal about the impact of European colonization on the Native Americans.

Document 1: Powhatan [aka Wahunsunacock], near Jamestown, VA 1609

Why should you British men and women take by forces that from us which you can have by love? Why should you destroy us, who have provided you with food? What can you get by war? . . . What is the cause of your jealousy? You see us unarmed, and willing to supply your wants, if you come in a friendly manner, and not with swords or guns, as to invade an enemy. . . I therefore, beg you to peaceable councils, and above all, I insist that guns and swords, the cause of all our jealousy and uneasiness, be removed and sent away. . . .

1. Who is the audience of this speech? How do you know?
2. According to Powhatan, what have the Native Americans provided the colonists with?
3. How does Powhatan think that this conflict should be solved?
4. How would you describe the tone of Powhatan while delivering this speech? What is his emotional state? Provide evidence from the text to support your response.

Document 2: Miantinomo (Narranganset tribe) 1642

Brothers, we must be as one as the English are, or we shall all be destroyed. You know our fathers had plenty of deer and skins and our plains were full of game and turkeys, and our coves [bodies of water] and rivers were full of fish.

But, Brothers, since these Englishmen have seized our country, they have cut down the grass with scythes [large knives], and the trees with axes. Their cows and horses eat up the grass, and their hogs spoil our bed of clams; and finally we shall all starve to death; therefore, stand not in your own light, I ask you, but resolve to act like men. All the sachems [leaders of Native American tribes] both to the east and the west have joined with us, and we are resolved to fall upon them at a day appointed [decided upon] and therefore I come secretly to you, cause you can persuade your Indians to do what you will . . . And when you see the three fires that will be made at the end of 40 days from now, in a clear night, then act as we act, and the next day fall on and kill men, women, and children, but no cows; they must not be killed as we need them for provisions, till the deer come again. . . .

1. From whose perspective are we most likely to learn about Native American history and culture? How does this effect what historians write and what students learn about Native American history and culture?
2. What has been the impact of European colonization on the environment of the North American continent? How would this impact the daily lives of Native Americans?
3. Who is the audience of Miantinomo's speech? Cite one piece of textual evidence to support your response [your claim].
4. According to Miantinomo, what should his audience do to the colonists? Why does he feel that this action is necessary / justified [right/warranted]?

Document 3: Metacom aka “King Philip” (Wampanoag tribe) 1676

The English who came first to this country were but a handful of people, forlorn, poor and distressed. My father [Massasoit, who had helped the Plymouth Pilgrims survive their first winter in the new world] did all in his power to serve them. Others came. Their numbers increased. My father’s counselors were alarmed. They urged him to destroy the English before they became strong enough to give law to the Indians and take away their country. . . He remained their friend. Experience shows that his counselors were right. The English disarmed my people. They tried them by their own laws, and assessed damages my people could not pay. sometimes the cattle of the English would come into the cornfields of my people, for they did not make fences like the English. . . .

1. According to Metacom’s speech, what happened to the population of English colonists - did it increase or decrease over time? How did that change impact the balance of power between the Native Americans and English colonists in North America?

2. How did the English colonists’ laws affect the Wampanoag tribe?

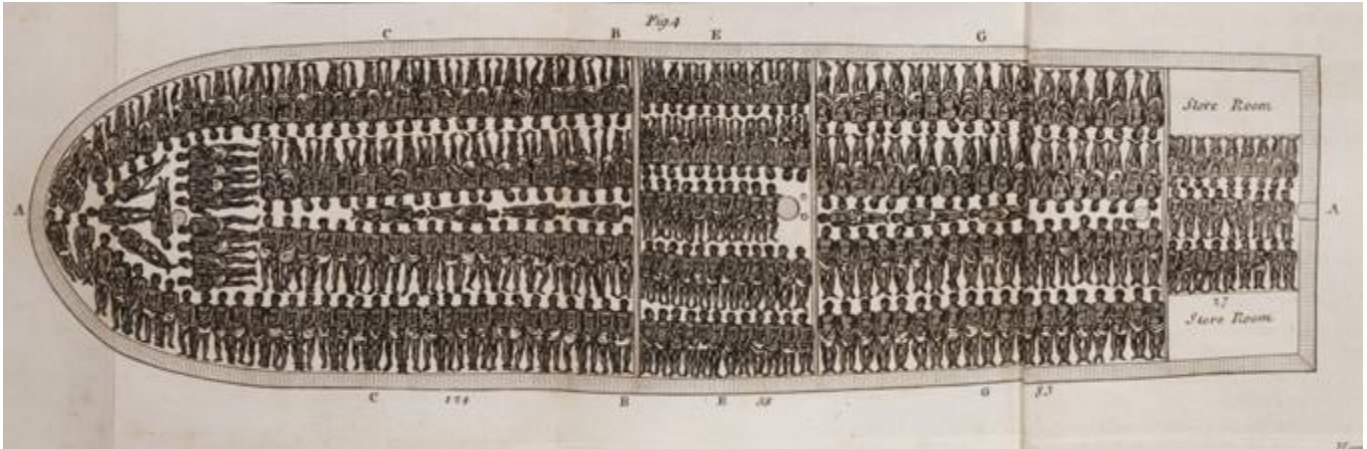
3. In both documents 2 and 3, the Native American leaders describe the impact of European colonization on their food supply. Citing at least one piece of textual evidence from BOTH document 1 and document 2, describe this impact.

Synthesis: Use all of the documents (Docs 1 - 3) to answer the questions below

1. Are all three documents primary sources? How do you know?
2. Do you think that King Philip would have agreed or disagreed with Miantonomo? Why? Cite two pieces of evidence to support your claim?
3. What was similar about the experiences both King Philip's father and Powhattan had with the English colonists? Why might historians want to use BOTH documents to study Native American history?
4. Do documents 1 - 3 support or refute the data in the chart (page 15)? Cite at least one piece of evidence to support your claim.

The Origins of Slavery

by Ira Berlin



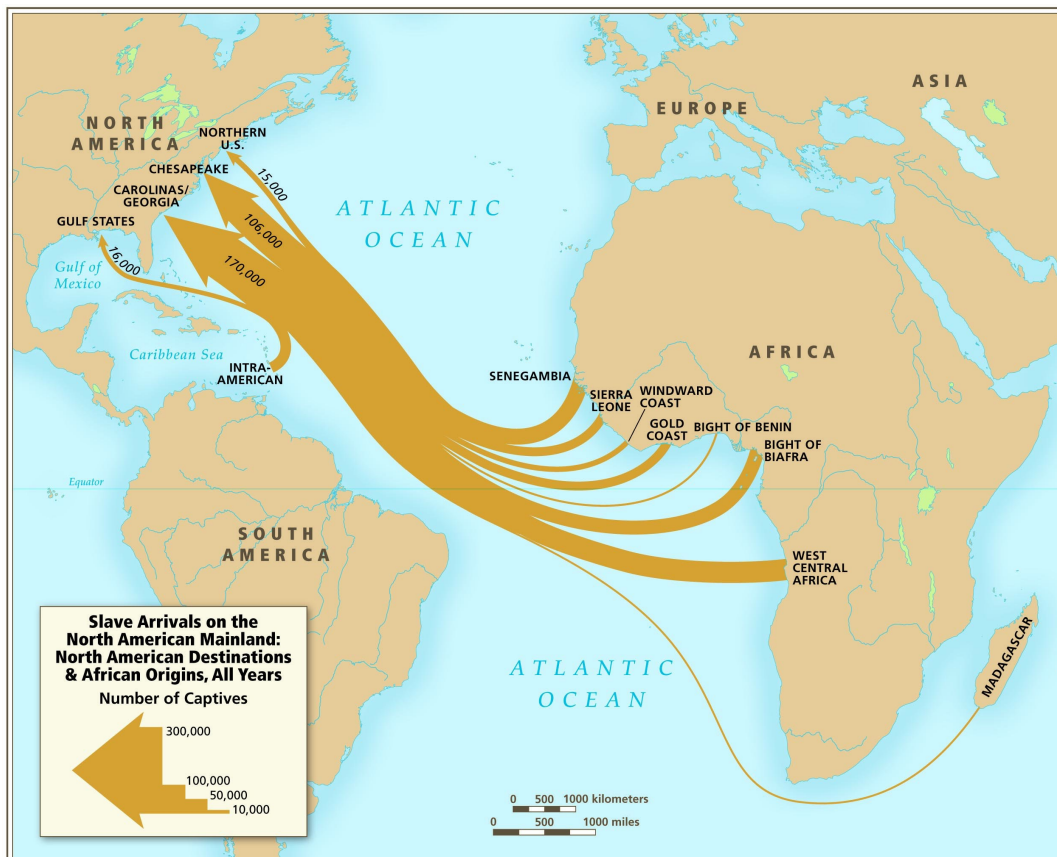
Sketch of the hold of a slave ship from Thomas Clarkson, The History of the Rise, Progress and Accomplishment of the Abolition of the African Slave-trade (London, 1808).

African American life in the United States has been framed by migrations, forced and free. A forced migration from Africa - the transatlantic slave trade - carried black people to the Americas. A second forced migration - the internal slave trade - transported them from the Atlantic coast to the interior of the American South. A third migration - this time initiated largely, but not always, by black Americans - carried black people from the rural South to the urban North. . . .

While each of these massive movements shaped and reshaped African American life, none was more important than the first, the so-called **Middle Passage** from Africa to America. More than any other single migration the Middle Passage has come to epitomize the experience of people of African descent throughout the Atlantic world. The nightmarish weeks and sometimes months locked in the holds of stinking slave ships speak to the traumatic loss of freedom, the degradation of enslavement, and the long years of bondage that followed. But the Middle Passage also represents the will to survive, the determination of black people not to be dehumanized by dehumanizing circumstances, and the confidence that freedom would eventually be theirs and that they would take their rightful place as a people among peoples. . . . In all, some eleven to twelve million Africans were forcibly carried to the Americas. Of those, roughly one-half million (or about 4.5 percent) were taken to mainland North America or what became the United States. . . .

The first black men and women arrived in mainland North America in the sixteenth century, often accompanying European explorers. For the next century or so, they continued to trickle onto the continent in small numbers. . . . Many of these first arrivals spoke the language of their enslavers and were familiar with the various religions [and] commercial conventions . . . of the Atlantic. . . .

With the advent of the plantation in mainland North America, the nature of slavery and then the slave trade changed. The beginnings of plantation production . . . increased the level of violence, exploitation and brutality in these regions. , these regions. Slaves worked harder, propelling their owners to new, previously unimagined heights of wealth and power. As they did, slave owners expanded their plantations and demanded more and more slaves, as slaves proved to be an extraordinarily valuable form of labor. Not only were they workers, but they reproduced themselves, adding to the owners' wealth. . . .



Slave Arrivals on the North American Mainland, map, Atlas of the Transatlantic Slave Trade, by David Eltis and David Richardson (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 2010).

Slaves imported directly from Africa . . . first landed in the Chesapeake in large numbers during the last decades of the seventeenth century. Following the legalization of chattel bondage in the 1660s, they slowly replaced European and African indentured servants as the main source of plantation labor. Although black people never challenged white numerical dominance in the region, they achieved majorities in a few localities. . . . By the 1730s, births to slave women outnumbered imports, and the black population was increasing naturally. . . . By mid-century, the majority of enslaved men and women in the Chesapeake had never seen Africa. At the start of the American Revolution, the first Great Migration was over in the Chesapeake. A native people began to sink deep roots in soils of mainland North America. . . .

Slavers also deposited their cargoes in other parts of the mainland North America — New England, the middle colonies, the Floridas, and the lower Mississippi Valley. Everywhere planters preferred so-called “men-boys,” along with “women-girls,” young adults whom they could put to work immediately and who would reproduce the labor force. “Negroes from 15 to 25 years of Age suite this market best,” observed one Charleston slave trader. Among the young, planters preferred men over women. . . . No matter what their sex, age, and nationality, Africans shipped to the New World endured the trauma of enslavement. Captured deep in the African interior, Africans faced a long, deadly march to the coast. Traveling sometimes for months, they were passed from group to group, as many different African nations participated in the slave trade. But whoever drove the captives to their unwanted destiny, the circumstances of their travel were extraordinarily taxing. In some places, some forty percent of the slaves died between their initial capture in the interior and their arrival on the coast.

The captives then faced the nightmarish transatlantic crossing. The depths of human misery and the astounding death toll of men and women packed in the stinking hulls still remains difficult to fathom. Stripped naked and bereft of their every belonging, they boarded the ship and encountered—often for the first time—white men. Brandishing hot irons to mark their captives in the most personal way, these “white men with horrible looks, red faces, and long hair” left more than a physical scar. Many enslaved Africans concluded that the white men were in league with the devil, if not themselves devils. For other Africans, the trauma of having their skin seared confirmed that they were bound for the slaughterhouse to be eaten by the cannibals, who had stamped them in much the way animals were marked.



The land of the free and the home of the braves. (slave market) by Henry Byam Martin, 1833.

Surviving the Middle Passage was but the first of the many tests faced by the forced immigrants. Once African peoples disembarked, new anxieties compensated for whatever relief they gained from the end of the shipboard journey. Indeed the shock of arrival only repeated the trauma of African enslavement. Staggering to their feet, bodies still bent from their weeks below deck, shaking with apprehension, the captives were fitted with a new set of shackles—a painful welcome to their new homeland. The captives again confronted the auction block and the prospect of being poked and prodded by strange white men speaking strange languages, intent on demonstrating their mastery. Marched in chains to some isolated, backwoods plantation, forced to labor long hours at unfamiliar tasks, enslaved black men and women began their lives in mainland North America. It was a grim existence, as their debilitating work regime, drafty dormitories, and bland rations invited an early death. Within months of arrival, many of the new immigrants—ridiculed as “outlandish” by their owners—were dead.

But slowly, inexorably, the survivors made the new land their own. Transplanted Africans began to master the languages of North America, learned to traverse the countryside, formed friendships, pieced together new lineages from real and fictive kin, and created a new sacred world. Their children, who knew no other land, took root in American soil and made the land that had been forced on their parents their own. Like most other Americans, they too were the children of immigrants—but immigrants of a very different kind.

Ira Berlin, Distinguished University Professor at the University of Maryland, is a leading historian of the history of slavery in North America and the Atlantic World.

Source: www.gilderlehrman.org/history-by-era/origins-slavery/essays/origins-slavery-0

Indentured Servants vs. Slaves

Directions: Read the chart below. In the box below the chart, make three observations about similarities and differences between indentured servants and slaves.

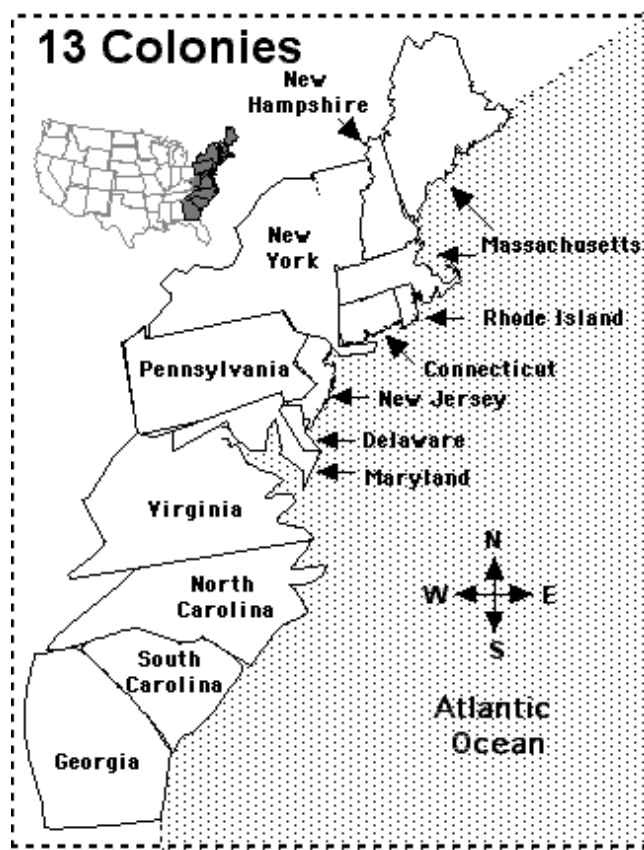
Indentured Servitude	Slavery
<p>Description: An indentured servant was usually someone who chose to immigrate to the colonies from Europe under a contract that outlined the terms of their service. Once their contract was over, they were free from their masters to live their own lives in the colonies. They were usually from Europe</p> <p>Work: Hard labor, field work, skilled and unskilled labor ranging from farming to brick laying, to building, to sewing and cooking</p> <p>Pay: Passage to America, room, lodging, food and freedom dues</p> <p>Terms of Work: Indentured servants were servants who worked for their masters for usually up to 7 years - after which they were freed, upon freedom they were to receive “freedom dues” - goods such as a year’s worth of corn, land, cows, clothes, etc.</p>	<p>Description: A slave was usually someone who was forced to immigrate against their will from their home country to the colonies. Some were kidnapped, others were bought by slave masters. Once in the colonies they were forced to do hard labor, for no pay. They were usually from Africa.</p> <p>Work: Hard labor, housework, farm hand, mostly unskilled labor, ranged from housework to working on plantations to pick crops</p> <p>Pay: Usually none, usually born into slavery - were given room, lodging, food and clothing</p> <p>Terms of Work: No pay, did what the masters asked them to do, often died from servitude, master determined their treatment, sometimes separated from their family, bought or sold between masters. Slaves were usually slaves for life.</p>

<u>Similarities</u>	<u>Differences</u>
1)	1)
2)	2)
3)	3)

Economies of Colonial America

Colonists settling in the British colonies of North America developed economies from scratch. They harvested the natural resources of the environment, and then created economic output from these natural resources.

Question - Why were the economies of the northern, middle, and southern colonies different?



Northern Colonies

1. Massachusetts
2. Rhode Island
3. Connecticut
4. New Hampshire

Middle Colonies

1. New York
2. New Jersey
3. Pennsylvania
4. Delaware

Southern Colonies

1. Maryland
2. Virginia
3. North Carolina
4. South Carolina
5. Georgia

The Northern Colonies / New England had a short growing season and rocky soil; this was not ideal for growing and exporting *cash crops* (something that is grown and harvested for the sole purpose of selling it to make a profit - not for the consumption of the farmer). Colonists took advantage of other opportunities in the region, especially fishing and whaling in the bays, inlets, rivers and oceans that dominated their lands. The building and manufacturing of ships to support the fishing industry also became a major part of the economy of New England. Northern colonists also

built small factories that would support the processing and manufacturing of fish and whale oil. Also, many Northern Colonies turned to the manufacturing of sugar from the Caribbean into rum, as well as fur / leather goods from the natural wildlife of the Northern Colonies or Canadian traders; all of which could be exported to Europe for a profit.

The longer growing season of the **Middle Colonies** and milder winters (as compared to the Northern Colonies) allowed farmers to grow and cultivate fields of various grains. Grains were the cash crop that earned the Middle Colonies the nickname of the *breadbasket colonies*, as among the three colonial regions, they grew the highest percentage of grains. Further supporting the economy of the middle colonies was the manufacturing of goods in industrial centers such as New York City and Philadelphia.

The **Southern Colonies** had a nearly year-round growing season as a result of warmer winters and humid summers - allowing them to grow tobacco and rice, both of which thrive in warmer, more humid climates. Tobacco and rice were the most profitable exports of all the cash crops grown in the 13 colonies between 1768 and 1777. Of their sum total of exports, nearly 88% of all Southern Colonies exports were agricultural (tobacco, rice, grains, and indigo)

13 Colonies Regions Compare & Contrast Chart - Economy -			
	NEW ENGLAND	MIDDLE	SOUTHERN
Economy - Income - Occupations - Crops Grown - Products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relied on the Atlantic Ocean: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shipbuilding. - Trade. - Fishing. - Triangular Trade Routes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Traded goods for rum, sugar cane, & molasses, then for slaves. - Key trade port: Boston, MA - Small farms. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Depended on farming & commerce (trade). - Staple Crops: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wheat. - Barley. - Rye. - "Breadbasket Colonies" - Urban centers like New York & Philadelphia. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ports & Diversity. - Fur Trade. - Some slaves. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hot & wet = agriculture. - Cash crops: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tobacco. - Rice. - Indigo. - Forests: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pitch. - Tar. - Turpentine. - Plantation system = slavery. - No major commercial cities.

Analysis Questions

1. Which region had the highest percentage of economic activity devoted to shipbuilding? How did the geography and environment of this region contribute to or support the ability of this region to develop economic practices around ship building?
2. Which region's exports were mostly made up of grains? Why was their environment suitable for growing grains in comparison to the other two regions?
3. Which region was able to export the two most profitable cash crops? Why was the environment of that region suitable for exporting those cash crops?
4. Which region had an economy that was most focus on agricultural production? Would that region best be described as urban or rural? Why?
5. Which region had an economy that was most focus on the production of manufactured goods? Would that region best be described as urban or rural? Why?
6. According to the information above, how did the environment and geography of the land impact the economic activities found in the 13 English Colonies in North America?

The French and Indian War (1754 - 1763): Deciding the Fate of North America

by Walter R. Borneman

For more than three centuries, Europe had known far more years of warfare than of peace. But no matter what the conflict, or how causes and alliances changed, one pairing remained consistent: England and France were always on opposite sides just as surely as they sat on opposite sides of the English Channel. By the mid-eighteenth century, however, this cross-Channel feud began to take on major global dimensions, as it became evident that far more than the mastery of Europe was at stake.

The colonies that half a dozen nations had established in the New World were flourishing. By 1733, thirteen English colonies stretched along the Atlantic coast. But this territory was minuscule compared with French outposts and settlements that embraced half a continent — from the mouth of the Saint Lawrence River, westward across the Great Lakes, and down the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico.

Spain, too, was a major player in North America, claiming Florida, Texas, and the headwaters of the Rio Grande as the northern fringes of its domain. In earlier European wars, North America had been mostly a sideshow; but by 1748, these English, French, and Spanish empires were colliding in North America along ever-expanding frontiers. The bad blood of centuries-old European feuds was about to be spilled here as well.

Hemmed in by French claims, the English colonies squeezed between the Appalachians and the Atlantic coast grew uneasy. [In 1754] Virginia dispatched a twenty-one-year-old surveyor named George Washington west to tell the French on the upper Ohio River that they were trespassers on English lands and to evict the French from Fort Duquesne (Pittsburgh, Pa.). On his journey Washington came upon a French scouting party and ordered his men to open fire. Washington's men killed 12 Frenchmen and wounded 22. The war was on.

From the Ohio River to the falls of Niagara, across Lake Champlain, and down the Saint Lawrence River, North America's colonial frontiers erupted in flames. By the time what Europe called the Seven Years' War was concluded, it had been fought not only in North America, but also on the battlefields of Europe and in colonies throughout the world - from the Caribbean to India, Africa, and the Philippines.

The war in North America was characterized by desperate battles in the virgin wilderness. There were epic treks by Rogers' Rangers, the original Green Berets; dogged campaigns to capture strategic linchpins such as Fort Duquesne and Fort Ticonderoga; and the legendary battle of Quebec atop the Plains of Abraham. Then, just when the British thought that they had won a continent, France counterattacked and almost recaptured Quebec.



The Death of General Wolfe (Benjamin West, 1770) -

Depicting the death of British General Wolfe at the 1759 Battle of Quebec

When the warring powers finally met to sign the Treaty of Paris of 1763, the map of the world looked quite different from its appearance seven years before. As the historian Francis Parkman succinctly put it, “half a continent changed hands at the scratch of a pen.” But the challenge soon came from France’s Native American allies. Urged on by an Ottawa chief named Pontiac, a loose confederation of Northwest Indian nations launched a series of attacks that again turned the colonial frontier red with blood and threatened to lose for Great Britain all that it had gained from France.

Great Britain’s resolution of this Native American resistance had almost as much to say about the future of North America as did its victories over France. King George III proclaimed a vast “Indian reserve” between the Appalachians and the Mississippi River, effectively hemming in his American colonists along the Atlantic coast just as the French had done previously. The young king also looked to the colonies as a source of income to pay the debts of this latest war.

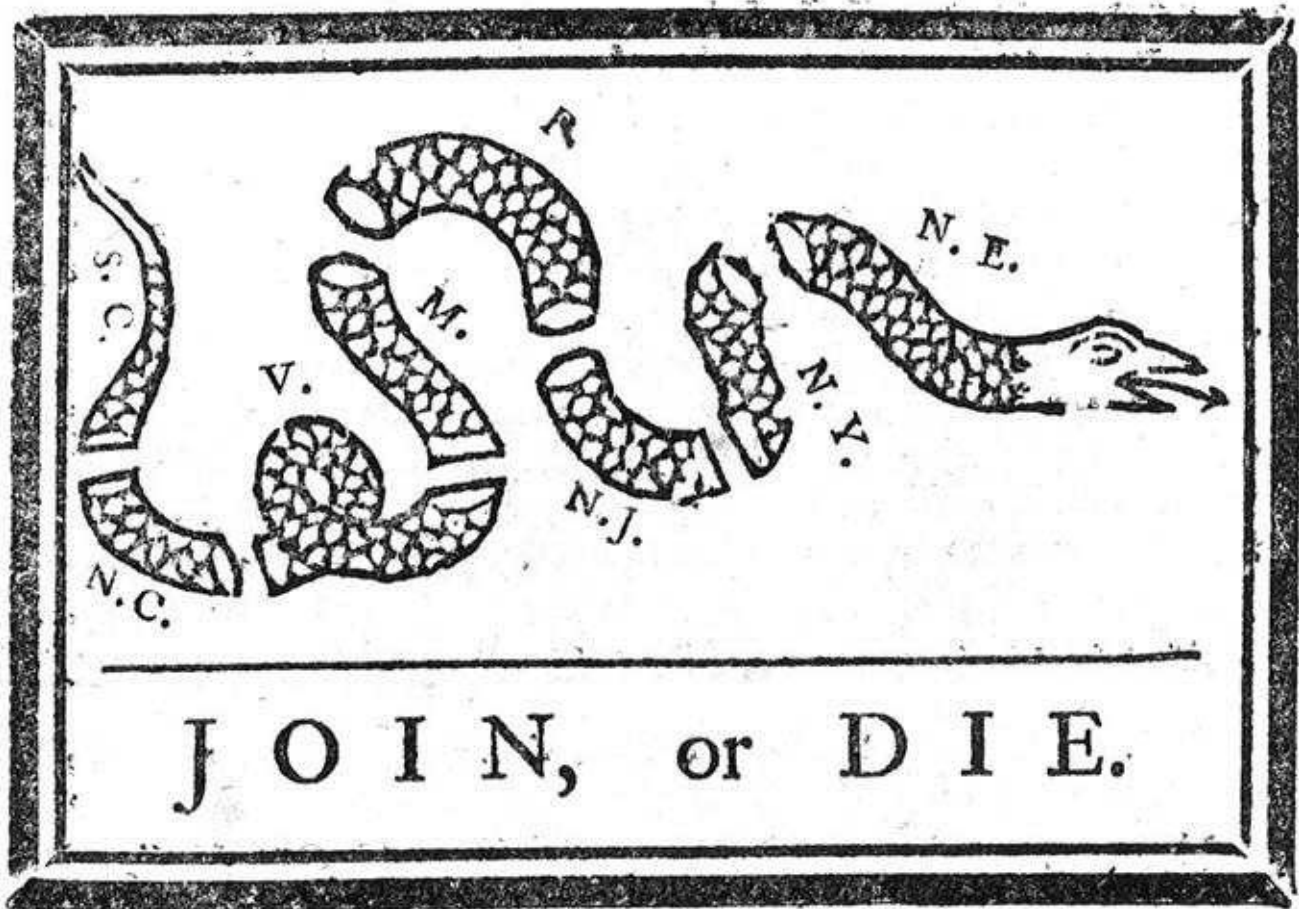
Land claims extinguished west of the Appalachians and taxes imposed without representation quickly rankled [upset] colonists no longer bound to the British crown by the fear of French encirclement. Revolution was premature, but the die had been cast. The triumphs of one war had sown the seeds of discontent that would lead to another. Great Britain had indeed won a continent, but in doing so, it had also lit the fuse of revolution.

Source: Borneman, Walter R. *The French and Indian War: Deciding the Fate of North America*. New York: Harper Collins, 2006.

Name: _____

Questions - The French and Indian War

1. When did the French and Indian War take place?
2. What nations fought against one another in this war?
3. What role did the American colonists have in this war? Which side did they fight on?
4. Why did the French and Indian War take place?
5. Which side won this war? What did that nation gain as a result of its victory?
6. Why was this war significant to the future of the United States?



Cartoon by Benjamin Franklin, first published in hi, *Pennsylvania Gazette* on May 9, 1754

Source: <http://www.loc.gov/exhibits/us.capitol/one.jpg>

SOAPS Document Analysis Questions

1. **Subject:** What are the general topics and/or ideas contained in the document?
2. **Occassion:** What are the time, place, and setting of the document?
3. **Audience:** To whom is the document directed?
4. **Purpose:** Why do you think that this document was created?
4. **Speaker:** Who created this document? What position did this person have in society? Was this person an “insider” or an “outsider”?
5. **Tone:** What is the author’s attitude / tone toward the topic?