



## History and Government Grades 4-6

This source book provides teachers with units of study designed to fulfill common core standards appropriate for grades 4-6. Each unit provides a series of lessons on a given subject. Teachers can work through this material sequentially to provide a broad scope of learning, or draw from it to inspire and enhance other curricula.

Areas of focus include the major pre-Columbian settlements; the exploration of the Americas; cooperation and conflict between Native Americans and European settlers; the causes, course, and consequences of the American Revolution; and the colonization, immigration, and settlement patterns of the American people through 1850.

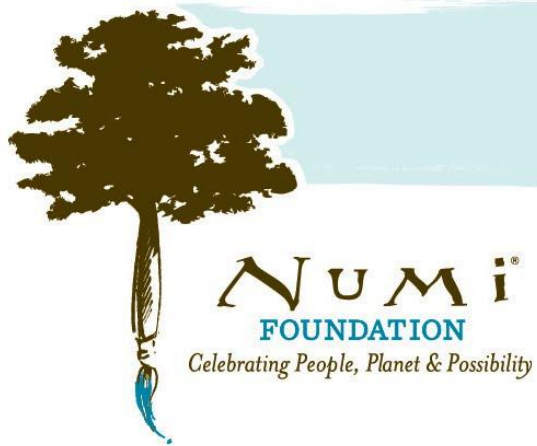
The Numi Foundation would like to thank all the open-source contributors to this curriculum. Our goal is to provide a wide range of creative, multicultural educational experiences, helping students develop a greater appreciation for their cultural heritage, environment, and a socially responsible perspective on history.

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## Geography



## Geography I: You

### STANDARDS

CC4.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

- Journals to be kept through the course
- Crayons
- Pencils

## Background Info:

### (Verse #1)

Islands and peninsulas, continents and capes,  
Dromedaries, cassowaries, elephants and apes,  
Rivers, lakes and waterfalls, and whirlpools and the sea,  
Valley beds and mountain tops are all geography!

The capitals of Europe with so many curious names,  
The North Pole and the South Pole and Vesuvius in flames,  
Rice fields, ice fields, cotton fields, fields of maize and tea,  
The Equator and the hemispheres are all geography!

The very street I live on and meadows where I play,  
Are just as much geography as countries far away!

### Directions

North and South and East and West

Ev'ry day the shining sun,  
Rising in the EAST,  
Brings its light to land and sea,  
Brings its light to you and me,  
Wakens bird and beast.  
Right hand out, now let it stay,  
Pointing EAST, this is the way;  
Right hand out, now let it stay,  
Pointing EAST, this is the way.

Ev'ry night the setting sun,  
Sinking in the WEST,  
Takes its light from land and sea,  
Takes it, too, from you and me,  
Brings the time for rest.  
Left hand out, now let it stay,  
Pointing WEST, this is the way;  
Left hand out, now let it stay,  
Pointing WEST, this is the way.

Pointing EAST and pointing WEST,  
Straight ahead we'll find,  
NORTH before us as we stand,  
EAST and WEST on either hand,  
And the SOUTH behind.  
Pointing EAST and WEST we'll find,  
NORTH in front, and SOUTH behind;  
Pointing EAST and WEST we'll find,  
NORTH in front, and SOUTH behind.

**Preparation:**

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to recite lines or phrases after you.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, such as, ask one child to step away and close their eyes. Have children pass an item, for example, a stone behind their backs to the next child until teacher says stop. Then without giving away the name of the child who has the object, the chosen child has three tries to guess which child has the stone behind their backs.
- Children sit. The teacher asks if the children or their family speak other languages at home. (The school says that Vietnamese, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese and Korean are spoken at home, there may be more.) Today, learn now to say hello in one or more of the children's languages.
- The teacher asks the children the following questions to begin a discussion about who we all are and where we come from.
  - Where did your family or ancestors come from?
  - Where were you born? (Looking for a geographic name)
  - Where do you live?
  - Tell us about your home.
- Children are asked to draw their home inside and out. This will be kept in their journal during this course. They should write one paragraphs describing their home.
- Finish lesson with name circle games followed by repetition of the word or words learned today in a different language and finally, the class verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Ask children to interview a family member to learn more information about their ancestors. Where did your family or ancestors come from? For those children who did not know where they were born, they should ask a family member.

**Notes/Feedback:**





## Geography II

### STANDARDS

CC4.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

- Journals
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to recite lines or phrases after you.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, such as, ask one child to step away and close their eyes. Have children pass an item, for example, a stone behind their backs to the next child until teacher says stop. Then without giving away the name of the child who has the object, the chosen child has three tries to guess which child has the stone behind their backs.
- Children sit. The teacher will have the class repeat the word they learned last class in another language and then have one or more different children also teach the class to say My name is in their home language.

- The teacher will speak to the children about geography and then will have the children read a page together about the subject. When the reading is finished, the children will work in groups of two to create a paragraph or two about geography and then write this in their journals.
- The paragraphs will answer the questions:
  - What is geography?
  - What does the word, “geography” mean?
  - What is included in the study of physical geography?
- One child will stand before the group and ask the children to raise their hands and answer the questions when called upon.
- Finish lesson with name circle games followed by repetition of the word or words learned today in a different language and finally, the class verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: List the physical features of the earth that you might study in geography.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Geography III

### STANDARDS

CC4.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

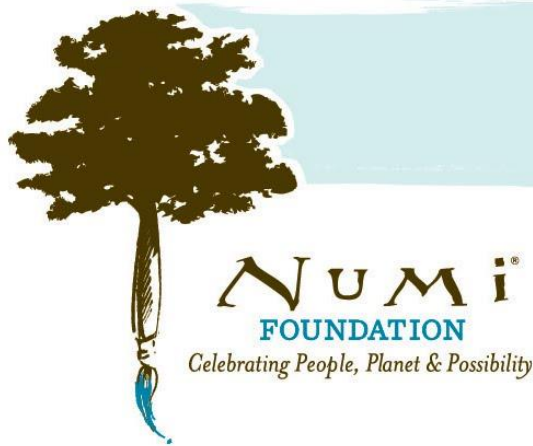
- Maps
- Compass Rose picture (the one pictured or teacher choice)
- Tennis ball
- Journals
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Continuing in the languages practiced last week have class recite after leading child, counting from 1--10 in their home language.

- The teacher throw a ball up in the air and asks the class, "What direction did the ball go when I threw it?" After the students answer "up," ask them "Does anyone know another name for the direction up, on a map?" Explain to the class that in this lesson we will learn some new words for different directions.
- Ask the students, "If we are giving some directions on how to get to school, what are some words we might use?" (i.e. straight, turn left/right, up, down, forward, backward)
- Show a simple map of a familiar place (i.e. school, neighborhood). Mark a starting point and an ending point. Ask students for directions on how to get to the specified destination. They will use terms such as up, down, left, right.
- Show a picture of a compass rose using north, south, east, and west.
- Point to each direction and recite the name of each. Have children repeat.
- As a class, standing in the room, point North, South, East, and West.
- Explain events that happen in each direction. (i.e. North-cold, South-warm, East-sunrise, West-sunset).
- Have one student stand up in the middle of the room. Give him a destination. Have students give directions in which to travel to get to the destination.
- Once everyone has had a turn giving/receiving directions, say things like, "to get to the pencil sharpener, I must travel to the \_\_\_\_\_." They fill in the blank.
- Draw and label a compass rose on large paper and in journal.
- Class should finish with recitation of counting from 1—10 in several languages and then ending verse.

### **Notes/Feedback:**



## Geography IV: Map Making

### STANDARDS

CC4.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Map Drawing

### MATERIALS

- Large paper
- Rulers
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Continuing in the languages practiced last week have class recite after leading child, counting from 5--54 in their home language.
- The teacher will tell the children that today they will create a map of their classroom and then a map of the school building. The maps will be created from a "bird's eye" view as if they are looking down on their classroom and then down on their school building. Their maps should fill the paper and include a compass showing North, South, East, and West. The maps should be labeled and ready to display for the school. The

teacher will explain drawing to scale and that will be used for the classroom map, only. One foot will equal one inch.

- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Ask the children to draw a map (floor plan) of the room in which they sleep or the living room in their home. The map should be labeled.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Geography V: Map Reading

### STANDARDS

#### CC4.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

- Large printed maps of Oakland, the Bay Area, California

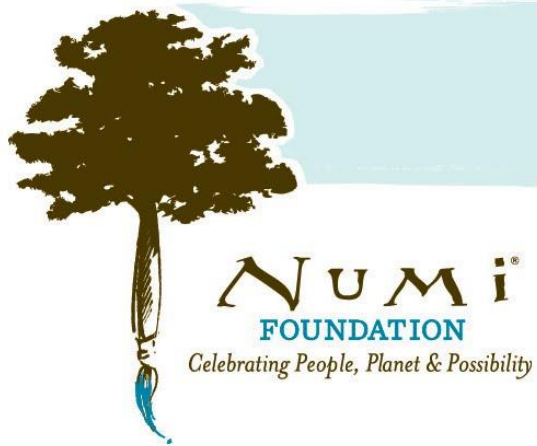
### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 1-10, and my name is, and I am 9 years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.
- The teacher will show the class the maps of Oakland, the Bay Area, and California. The teacher will show children the directions, N, S, E, W, on the maps and then explain other features of maps, such as distance, and topographical features.

- The teacher will form groups to find particular features on the maps, including perhaps,
  - Mountains, cities by name, and rivers and other bodies of water.
- The children will then write in their journals about the uses they might have for maps.
- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: The children may find a map at home and bring it to school to show.

**Notes/Feedback:**





## California Missions



## California Missions I

### STANDARDS

#### CC4.3

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

- Journals to be kept through the course
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 1-10, and my name is, and I am 9 years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.

- The teacher will begin by telling the history of the Spanish Missions in America. (See Teacher Supplement). After showing the class a photo of a mission, the children will draw it on a large drawing paper.
- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: The children will ask their families what they know about the Spanish Missions in California.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## California Missions II: Father Junipero Serra

### STANDARDS

CC4.3

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

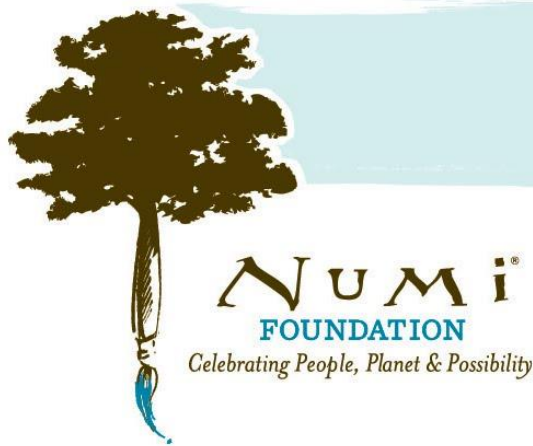
- Journals
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 1-10, and my name is, and I am 9 years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.

- The teacher will read or tell the biography of Father Junipero Serra to the class. (As a library book, Hispanics of Achievement, Junipero Serra, by Sean Dolan, Chelsea House Publishers, NY) A short biography is included in the Teacher Supplement.
- The teacher will ask the class questions about Junipero Serra's biography.
  - Where was Father Junipero Serra born and what language did he speak?
  - Father Junipero Serra was a missionary in Mexico when he was told to leave to go to the United States. How did he travel and why was that a problem for him?
  - The first mission was built in San Diego. What was the reason for building missions?
  - Who lived at the missions?
  - What work did the people do there?
  - What was the Camino Real?
- The children will draw a picture of a mission and write about the life of Father Junipero Serra in their journals.
- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: The children should create a list of the facts they have learned about Father Junipero Serra and the Spanish Missions.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## California Missions III

### STANDARDS

#### CC4.3

### OBJECTIVES

- Build a model of a mission

### MATERIALS

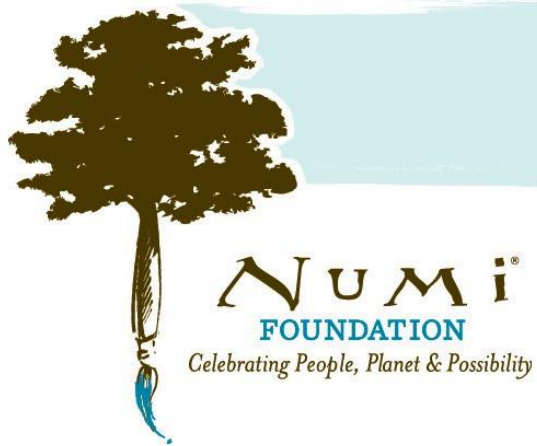
- Small boxes
- Paper
- Glue
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 5-54, and my name is, and I am <sup>3</sup> years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.

- Display drawings or other pictures of Spanish Missions and have the children build a model of a mission. They should work in pairs or small groups and complete this model in class.
- At this time, the teacher should bring the subject of the poor treatment that some Native Americans and other groups received working at the missions.
- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Answer the question in one or two paragraphs, What was the purpose of the missions?

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Mexican Independence





## Ranchos and the Mexican War for Independence

### STANDARDS

CC4.3

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in journals

### MATERIALS

- Journals
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- Choose a warm-up activity the class has enjoyed.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 1-10, and my name is, and I am 9 years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.
- Using the information in the Teacher Supplement or other source, the teacher will begin a discussion about Ranchos in California and The Mexican War for Independence.

- The teacher may choose to print out the pages in the Teacher Supplement and cut into parts for the children to read aloud or may choose to tell the two stories without the printed pages.
- Questions for the children:
  - What is a rancho?
  - What did the ranchos contribute to California?
  - What was life like on a rancho?
  - The Treaty of Cordoba ended three centuries of Spanish rule over what country?
  - The children should draw a picture from today's lesson in their journals.
  - Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Give the children the print outs of reading from The Rancho and Mexican War to read at home.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: MEXICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

**Mexican War of Independence** (1810 - 1821), was an armed conflict between the people of Mexico and Spanish colonial authorities, which started on September 16, 1810. The Mexican War of Independence movement was led by Mexican-born Spaniards, Mestizos, Zambos and

Amerindians who sought independence from Spain. It started as an idealistic peasants' rebellion against their colonial masters, but finally ended as an unlikely alliance between "liberales" (liberals) and "conservadores" (conservatives). The struggle for Mexican independence dates back to the Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire, when Martín Cortés, son of Hernán Cortés and La Malinche, led a revolt against the Spanish colonial government in order to eliminate the issues of oppression and privileges for the conquistadors.[1]

Fernando VII, king of Spain.

According to some historians, the struggle for Mexican Independence was re-ignited in December 1650 when an Irish adventurer by the name of William Lamport, escaped from the jails of the Inquisition in Mexico, and posted a "Proclamation of Independence from Spain" on the walls of the city. Lamport wanted Mexico to break with Spain, separate church and state and proclaim himself emperor of the Viceroyalty of New Spain. His ambitious idealist movement was soon terminated by the Spanish colonial authorities and Lamport was re-captured and executed for defamation.[2]

After the abortive Conspiracy of the Machetes in 1799, the war of Independence led by the Mexican born Spaniards became a reality. The movement for independence was far from gaining unanimous support among Mexicans, who became divided between independentists, autonomists and royalists.

Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla

The founder and leader of the Mexican Independence movement was Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, the criollo Roman Catholic priest from the small town of Dolores. Soon after becoming a priest,

Hidalgo y Costilla began to promote the idea of an uprising by criollo, mestizo, zambo, and Amerindian peasants against wealthy Spanish land-owners, and foreign aristocrats. During his seven years at Dolores, Hidalgo y Costilla and several educated criollos organized secret discussion groups, where criollos, peninsulares, Amerindians, mestizos, zambos, and mulattos participated. The independence movement was founded over these informal meetings, which was directed against the Spanish colonial government, and foreign rulers of the Viceroyalty of New Spain.

Beginning

After the conspiracy was betrayed by a supporter, Hidalgo y Costilla declared war against the colonial government on the late night of September 15, 1810. On the dawn of September 16, the revolutionary army decided to strike for independence and marched on to Guanajuato, a

major colonial mining centre governed by Spaniards and criollos. There the leading citizens barricaded themselves in a warehouse. The rebel army captured the warehouse on September 28, and most of the Spaniards and criollos were massacred or exiled.

On October 30, 1810, Hidalgo y Costilla's army encountered Spanish resistance at the Battle of Monte de las Cruces, fought them and achieved victory. However, the rebel army failed to defeat the large and heavily armed Spanish army in Mexico City. Rebel survivors of the battle sought refuge in near by provinces and villages. The insurgent forces planned a defensive strategy at a bridge on the Calderón River, pursued by the Spanish army. In January 1811, Spanish forces fought the Battle of the Bridge of Calderón and defeated the insurgent army, forcing the rebels to flee towards the United States-Mexican border, where they hoped to escape.[3] However they were intercepted by the Spanish army and Hidalgo y Costilla and his remaining soldiers were captured in the state of Jalisco, in the region known as "Los Altos." He faced court trial of the Inquisition and found guilty of treason. He was executed by firing squad in Chihuahua, on July 31, 1811. His body was mutilated, and his head was displayed in Guanajuato as a warning to rebels.[4]

#### José María Morelos

Declaration of Independence Following the death of Hidalgo y Costilla, the leadership of the revolutionary army was assumed by José María Morelos. Under his leadership the cities of Oaxaca and Acapulco were occupied. In 1813, the Congress of Chilpancingo was convened and in November 6 of that year, the Congress signed the first official document of independence, known as the "Solemn Act of the Declaration of Independence of Northern America. It was followed by a long period of war at the Siege of Cuautla. In 1815, Morelos was captured by Spanish colonial authorities and executed for treason in San Cristóbal Ecatepec on December 22.

#### Independence

Agustín de Iturbide's army was joined by rebel forces from all over Mexico. When the rebels' victory became certain, the Viceroy of New Spain resigned. On August 24, 1821, representatives of the Spanish crown and Iturbide signed the Treaty of Córdoba, which recognized Mexican independence under the terms of the Plan of Iguala, ending three centuries of Spanish colonial rule.

## Teacher Supplement: RANCHOS OF CALIFORNIA

The [Spanish](#), and later the [Méxican](#) government encouraged settlement of territory now known as [California](#) by the establishment of large land grants called ranchos, from which the English ranch is derived. Devoted to raising cattle and sheep, the owners of the ranchos attempted to pattern themselves after the landed gentry of Spain. Their workers included [Californian Native Americans](#) who had learned to speak Spanish, many of them former [Mission](#) residents. Of the 800-plus grants, Spain made about 30 between 1784 and 1821. The remainder were granted by Mexico between 1833 and 1846. The ranchos established land-use patterns that are recognizable in the California of today. Rancho boundaries became the basis for California's land survey system, and can still be found on modern maps and land titles.

During [Spanish rule](#) (1769–1821), the ranchos were concessions from the [Spanish crown](#), permitting settlement and granting grazing rights on specific tracts of land, while the crown retained the title. The ranchos, that is, the settlement by individuals of tracts of land outside [presidio](#), mission, and [pueblo](#) boundaries, began in 1784, when Juan Jose Dominguez got permission from [Spanish Governor Pedro Fages](#) to put his cattle on the 48,000-acre (190 km<sup>2</sup>) [Rancho San Pedro](#).<sup>[1]</sup> The land concessions were usually measured in [leagues](#). A league of land would encompass a square that is one Spanish league on each side – approximately 4,428 acres (18 km<sup>2</sup>).

It was not until the [Mexican era](#) (1821–1846) that the titles to the plots of land were granted to individuals. In 1821, Mexico achieved its [independence](#) from Spain, and California came under control of the Mexican government. The 1824 Mexican Colony Law established rules for petitioning for land grants in California; and by 1828, the rules for establishing land grants were codified in the Mexican Reglamento (Regulation). The Acts sought to break the monopoly of the missions and also paved the way for additional settlers to California by making land grants easier to obtain. The procedure included a 'diseño' – a hand-drawn topological map - to define the area.<sup>[2][3]</sup> The [Mexican Governors of Alta California](#) gained the power to grant state lands, and many of the Spanish concessions were subsequently patented under Mexican law.

Through the [Secularization Act of 1833](#), the Mexican government repossessed most of the lands provided to the [missions](#) by the Spanish crown.<sup>[4][5]</sup> [Secularization](#) was implemented between 1834 and 1836. The government allowed the padres to keep only the church, priest's quarters and priest's garden. A commissioner would oversee the crops and herds, while the land was divided up as communal pasture, a town plot, and individual plots for each Indian family.<sup>[6]</sup>

The number of Mexican land grants greatly increased after the secularization of the missions in 1834. Although the original intent of the secularization legislation was to have the property divided among former mission Indians, most of the grants were made to influential Californios of Spanish background.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

The Mexican grants were provisional. The boundaries had to be officially surveyed and marked. The grantee could not subdivide or rent out the land. The land had to be used and cultivated. A residential house had to be built within a year. Public roads crossing through the property could not be closed. If the provisional conditions were not met, the land grant could be 'denounced' by another party who could claim the land.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

American era

The United States (US) declared [war against Mexico](#) on May 13, 1846. Action in California began with the [Bear Flag Revolt](#) on June 15, 1846. On July 7, 1846, US forces took possession of

[Monterey](#), the capital of California, and terminated the authority and jurisdiction of Mexican officials that day.<sup>[7]</sup> Armed resistance ended in California with the [Treaty of Cahuenga](#) signed on January 13, 1847. The [Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo](#), ending the war, was signed February 2, 1848 and California became a Territory of the United States. Between 1847–1849, California was run by the U.S. military. A [constitutional convention](#) met in Monterey in September 1849, and set up a state government. It operated for 10 months before California was admitted to the [Union](#) as the 31st State by [Congress](#), as part of the [Compromise of 1850](#), enacted on September 9, 1850.

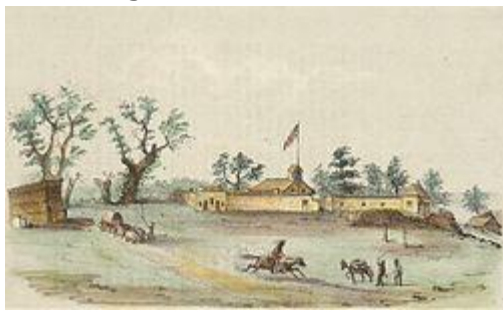
## Teacher Supplement: BEAR FLAG REBELLION UNTIL STATEHOOD

The California Republic (in Spanish: República de California<sup>®</sup>), also called the Bear Flag Republic or Bear Republic is the name used for a period of revolt against Mexico initially proclaimed by a handful of American settlers in the Mexican territory of Alta California on June 14, 1846, in Sonoma. This was shortly before news of the Mexican–American War had reached the area. The participants declared independence from Mexico, but they did not form a functional provisional government. Thus, the "republic" never exercised any real authority, and it was never recognized by any nation. In fact, most of Alta California knew nothing about it. The revolt lasted 26 days, at the end of which the U.S. Army arrived to occupy the area. Once the leaders of the revolt knew the United States was claiming the area, they disbanded their "republic" and supported the U.S. federal effort to annex Alta California.

The California Republic is notable for creation of the "(Grizzly) Bear Flag", whose symbols were later incorporated into the California state flag — including the words "California Republic".

### Bear Flag Revolt

U.S. Army Major John C. Frémont arrived in California claiming to be on a mission to find a route to the Pacific (his mission officially was to find the source of the Arkansas River), he began encouraging a parallel rebellion among the Anglo-American settlers. As a result, thirty-three settlers in Sonoma, assisted by volunteers from among the American settlers and Vacqueros from the many haciendas, in the Sacramento River valley, captured the Mexican garrison of Sonoma and raised a homemade flag with a bear and star (the "Bear Flag") to symbolize their taking control. The words "California Republic" appeared on the flag but were never officially adopted by the insurgents. Their actions were later called the "Bear Flag Revolt."<sup>[1]</sup>



John Sutter joined the rebellion by opening the doors of Sutter's Fort

As part of the Sonoma garrison, the rebels captured the Commandant of Northern California, General Vallejo, who openly endorsed the inevitability of the annexation of California by the United States. Vallejo was sent to Sutter's Fort in the Sacramento River valley, where he was kept a prisoner until August 1, 1846.<sup>[2]</sup> The Republic's first and only

president was William B. Ide,<sup>[3]</sup> whose administration lasted twenty-five days. On June 23, 1846, Frémont arrived with sixty soldiers and took command in the name of the United States. The Bear Flag was replaced by the Stars and Stripes. The "republic" disbanded and Ide enlisted in the U.S. forces as a private.

The Mexican governor sent 55 men to attempt to crush the rebellion, but General José Castro's forces were defeated at the Battle of Olompali.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

Unknown to Frémont and the Bear Flag supporters, war had already been formally declared on May 13, 1846, but the news did not reach California until early July, when the frigate USS Savannah and the two sloops, USS Cyane and USS Levant, of the United States Navy captured Monterey, California.<sup>[4]</sup>

### Bear Flag



The original Bear Flag, photographed in 1890.



Digital reproduction based on the original Bear Flag





Modern flag of the State of California, for comparison

The most notable legacy of the "California Republic" was the adoption of its flag as the basis of the modern state Flag of California. The modern flag has a star, a grizzly bear, and a colored stripe with the words "California Republic". The Sonoma Plaza, site of the raising of the original Bear Flag, is marked by a California Historical Landmark.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

The original Bear Flag was designed and made by William L. Todd, who was a first cousin of Mary Todd Lincoln,<sup>[5]</sup> wife of president Abraham Lincoln. Todd painted the flag on domestic cotton cloth, roughly a yard and a half in length. It featured a red star based on the California Lone Star Flag that was flown during California's 1836 revolt led by Juan Alvarado and Isaac Graham.<sup>[6]</sup> The flag also featured an image of a grizzly bear statant (standing). The modern flag shows the bear passant (walking).<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

The original Bear Flag was destroyed in the fires following the 1906 San Francisco earthquake. A replica, created in 1896 for the 50th Anniversary celebrations, is on display at the Presidio de Sonoma (which was established in 1836 by Vallejo as a part of Mexico's attempt to halt Russian incursions into the region).<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

In February of 1848, Mexico and the United States signed a treaty which ended the Mexican War and yielded a vast portion of the Southwest, including present day California, to the United States. Several days earlier, January 24, 1848, gold had been discovered on the American River near Sacramento, and the ensuing gold rush hastened California's admittance to the Union. With the Gold Rush came a huge increase in population and a pressing need for civil government.

In 1849, Californians sought statehood and, after heated debate in the U.S. Congress arising out of the slavery issue, California entered the Union as a free, nonslavery state by the Compromise of 1850. California became the 31st state on September 9, 1850. The Golden State's rich history has since been shaped by people of every ethnic background who traveled here seeking economic, social and educational opportunity, and a life of quality and breathtaking beauty.

California situated its first capital in San Jose. The city did not have facilities ready for a proper capital, and the winter of 1850 - 1851 was unusually wet, causing the dirt roads to become muddy streams. The legislature was unsatisfied with the location, so former General and State Senator Mariano Guadalupe Vallejo donated land in the future city of Vallejo for a new capital; the legislature convened there for one week in 1852 and again for a month in 1853.

Again, the facilities available were unsuitable to house a state government, and the capital was soon moved three miles away to the little town of Benicia, inland from the San Francisco Bay. The strait links San Pablo Bay to Grizzly and Suisun Bays deep in the interior. A lovely brick statehouse was built in old American style complete with white cupola.

Although strategically sited between the Gold Rush territory of the Sierra Foothills and the financial port of San Francisco, the site was too small for expansion, and so the capital was moved further inland past the Sacramento River Delta to the riverside port of Sacramento in 1854.



**Sacramento** was the site of John Sutter's large farm and his fort. In 1846, during the midst of the Bear Flag Revolt, the fort was an oasis. A war was being fought between American and Californio soldiers in the southern part of the province for control of California. But at Sutter's Fort, life on the frontier continued with rhythm of the seasons and arrival of new soldiers.

The town was founded by John Sutter, Jr. while the elder Sutter was away, at the river's edge and downhill from the fort. Sutter Sr. was indignant since this place, shaded by water-needy Cottonwood trees, was often under water. Indeed, every hundred years or so, the whole Great Valley from Chico to Bakersfield, was one great freshwater sea. However, lots were already sold, so there the town of Sacramento stayed. At the end of the century, the streets were raised a full story, so buildings in Old Town Sacramento are now entered through what were once doors to the balconies shading the sidewalks below.



The Greek word "Eureka" has appeared on the state seal since 1849, when California sought statehood, and means "I Have Found It." The words were probably intended to refer to the discovery of gold in California.

Archimedes, the famed Greek mathematician, is said to have exclaimed "Eureka" when, after long study, he discovered a method of determining the purity of gold.





## Culminating Project

### OBJECTIVES

- **Report Writing**

### MATERIALS

- Writing Paper
- Pencils

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- Choose a warm-up activity the class has enjoyed.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 1-10, and my name is, and I am 9 years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.
- The teacher will assign a writing project to finish the semester. Each student will choose from a list of topics below and write a 2 -3 page report on that topic and draw a cover picture. Class time will be used for this purpose.
- The topics will come from this course and include (with the teacher's input)
  - Ranchos
  - The Mexican War for Independence
  - The Spanish Missions
  - The Ohlone People

- Geography of the Bay Area including Oakland
- The children will have information from the teacher or books from school.
- Class time will be used to learn to take information from the printed material and re-phrase in the children's words into their written pages.
- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Work on Research Report

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Culminating Project II

### OBJECTIVES

- Learn or improve report writing

### MATERIALS

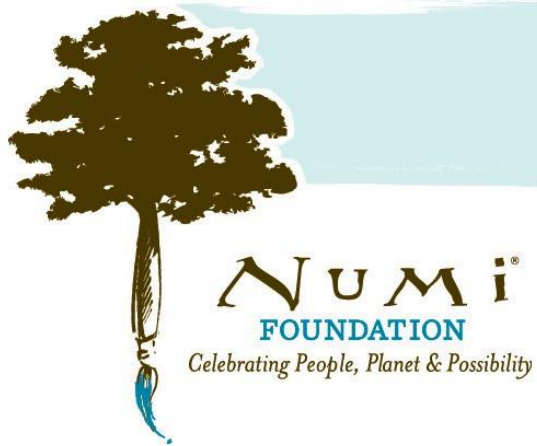
- Journals to be kept through the course
- Crayons
- Pencils
- Research material

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- Choose a warm-up activity the class has enjoyed.
- Ask a child who speaks another language to say hello, goodbye, how are you?, count from 1-10, and my name is, and I am 9 years old, and I live in Oakland, California in that language. Have the class repeat.
- The teacher will assign a writing project to finish the semester. Each student will choose from a list of topics below and write a 2 -3 page report on that topic and draw a cover picture. Class time will be used for this purpose.
- The topics will come from this course and include (with the teacher's input)
  - Ranchos
  - The Mexican War for Independence
  - The Spanish Missions
  - The Ohlone People
  - Geography of the Bay Area including Oakland
- The children will have information from the teacher or books from school.

- Class time will be used to learn to take information from the printed material and re-phrase in the children's words into their written pages.
- Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Work on Research Report

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Native American Studies





## The Ohlone People

### STANDARDS

CC4.2

### OBJECTIVES

- Discussion
- Drawing
- Writing in Journal

### Preparation:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Continuing in the languages practiced last week have class recite after leading child, counting from 5--54 in their home language.
- The teacher asks the children to imagine life in Oakland before there were any buildings. What might you have seen or heard before there were houses and cars? How would the early people have built shelter or clothed themselves? Today we will talk about one early group of Oakland residents, the Ohlone, who are native Americans. Tell a California Native American creation story such as "How California Was Made," from Stories California Indians Told, by Anne B. Fisher, included in the teacher supplement. Use a text such as The Library of Native Americans The Ohlone of California, by Jack S. Williams as a source for factual information, available at the public library.
- After the children hear the story, they should draw a picture from it in their journals and write three paragraphs re-telling the story.

- Class should finish with recitation of counting from 5—54 in several languages and then ending verse.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## The Ohlone People II

### STANDARDS

#### CC4.2

### MATERIALS

- Journals to be kept through the course
- Crayons
- Pencils

### Procedure:

- Begin with forming a circle with the children. Recite verse. Ask children to copy verse.
- As a warm up exercise, play a simple circle game, I SPY. The teacher will begin by saying, "I spy with my little eye...." For example, "something red with stripes." One at a time the children will look around the room and guess until someone guesses correctly.
- Continuing in the languages practiced last week have class recite after leading child, counting from 1--10 in their home language.
- Teacher tells children:
  - Where the Ohlone lived—in Oakland and between San Francisco Bay and Monterrey Bay—called Costanoan from original word in Spanish, Costanos, or coastal people
  - How they dressed—They did not need a lot of clothing because of the mild climate, they used robes, capes and blankets when it was cold or wet. They sometimes put mud on their bodies to protect them from the cold. The women wore two piece skirts.

- What their housing looked like—They lived in small huts made out of poles, grass, ferns, bulrushes, or reeds. The floor was a circle from 6 to 20 feet in diameter. One or two related families lived in each hut. People slept on top of reed mats or blankets next to the walls. A hole was left in the roof to let out smoke from the fire.
- What they ate—Plants, grasses, and nuts, animal game bobcats, coyotes, ducks, grizzly bears, mice, snakes, and insects, fish, shellfish, and sea plants.
- Emphasize how important nature was to them—they believed that natural resources were alive and had to be treated with respect. When they used something, they said a special prayer. They tried to live in harmony with their surroundings.
- Discuss the fact that many other groups of Native Americans lived all over what is now the United States and had similar respect for nature.
  - The children should draw an Ohlone hut and write what they remember about these people.
  - Class should finish with recitation in several languages and then ending verse.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: MAP OF NATIVE AMERICAN CULTURAL AREAS





## Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo People of the Desert Southwest I

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity led by teacher
- Discussion
- Drawing

### MATERIALS

- Blindfolds
- Long ropes
- Photo or drawing of pueblo
- Journals
- Notebooks
- Crayons
- Color pencils
- Map

**Preparation:**

- Arrange students into groups of four and tell them to find an open space. You need a large area for this activity.
- Provide pieces of cloth for students to use as blindfolds.
- After they put on their blindfolds, set a long piece of rope in each group's space.
- Tell students to find the object you placed near them and work together to form it into a square.
- When students think they've accomplished this task, let them take off their blindfolds and view their squares.
- Review what has been learned in school in younger grades about the Native Americans in Oakland, the Ohlone. (Refer to Teacher Supplement)
- Describe the geography and climate where the Ohlone lived. (Show map)
- How did the geography and climate influence their lives?
- How did they live in the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how did they obtain food, clothing, tools, and utensils?
- Show a picture of pueblos. Ask the students to describe what they know or think the geography and climate might be. (See to Teacher Supplement) (Show map)
- Explain what the climate of the southwest is and ask how this might affect the people living there.
- In their journals or books, ask the students to draw a picture of a pueblo with detailed background of ground, plants and sky.
- Lesson finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo People of the Desert Southwest-II

### STANDARDS

CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity led by teacher
- Clay modeling
- Journals

### MATERIALS

- Beanbag
- Small object for opening activity
- Photo or drawing of pueblo
- Journals
- Clay

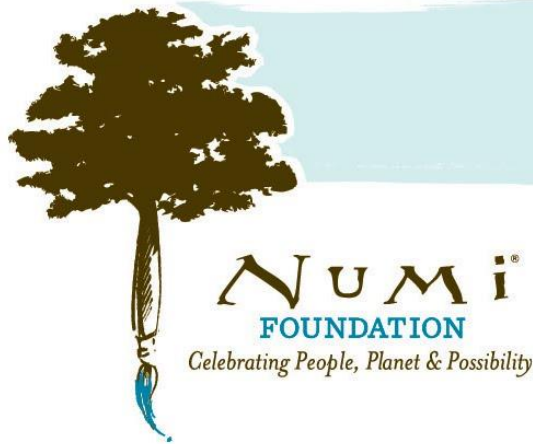
### Preparation:

- Have students form a circle with hands behind their backs. Send one child outside the door or hiding in the room.
- Give a beanbag or other small object to the first child to pass behind their backs around the room.
- Let this go on for a minute or two and then have them stop. The student with the beanbag behind their back continues to hold the bag.
- The remaining students act as if they are hiding the fact that they are holding the bag.
- Invite the student back to the group and have the student guess who is holding the bag.



- If this goes quickly, have a second or third round and then stop to begin work.
- Discuss with children how the Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo people of the desert Southwest obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils. Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions. Explain their varied economies and systems of government.
- Have students move to the desks where clay has been left by each student's place. The clay should be on paper or a board to protect desk.
- Show the class a photo of a pueblo. Spend the remainder of the class allowing the students to build a pueblo model from the clay.
- In the remaining moments, have the students look at each other's work and write in their journals how it felt to create a pueblo from clay and what it might have felt for a Pueblo Indian child to help the family to build their pueblo home.
- Class finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**



## Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo People of the Desert Southwest-III

### STANDARDS

CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity led by teacher
- Writing
- Making dream

### MATERIALS

- Materials needed to make dream catchers (See Teacher Supplement)

### Preparation:

- Repeat opening activity from previous class.
- Write the following on the board for the class to see:
  - Describe how geography and climate influenced the way Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo people of the desert nations lived and adjusted to the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils.
  - Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions.
  - Explain their varied economies and systems of government. The teacher may choose to assign this for homework)

- Discuss the questions one by one and have the children write answers in their journals. Demonstrate an example of a complete answer for the children to model. Emphasize good paragraph form with good use of topic sentence, grammar, spelling, punctuation and a concluding sentence. Collect, read and correct to be returned to students next class.
- Then tell or read The Story of the Dreamcatcher from the Teacher Supplement.
- Make dreamcatchers using the instructions in the Teacher Supplement.
- Display in classroom.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: PUEBLO DE TAOS



The adobe architecture unique to New Mexico's Pueblo de Taos reflects the heritage of the Pueblo Indians.

Photograph by Panoramic Images/Getty Images

**Site:** Pueblo de Taos

**Location:** New Mexico, U.S.

**Year Designated:** 1992

**Category:** Cultural

**Criteria:** [\(iv\)](#)

**Reason:** This adobe settlement has housed a Native American community for more than seven centuries.

Several U.S. Native American sites enjoy UNESCO World Heritage site status but only one is a living community—Taos Pueblo.

The Pueblo Indians have lived in this fascinating complex of multistoried adobe homes and ceremonial structures since they were built in the late 13th and early 14th centuries. When the first Spanish explorers set eyes on the settlement in 1540 it looked much as it does now, and the descendents of the original inhabitants remain here to carry on ancient traditions. The Pueblo Indian culture most likely sprang from the Anasazi Indian tribes that lived in the Four Corners region of the U.S. during prehistoric times. Taos Pueblo in New Mexico is just one, though perhaps the most impressive existing example, of numerous pueblos built in the Taos Valley as far back as in the 900s. Pueblo Indian traditions say that their people have lived at the Taos Pueblo site for a thousand years. Though self-sufficient, the pueblo

was not isolated—it was a major center of trade between the Rio Grande pueblos and the Plains Indians.

Today about 150 people still make their homes full-time in the pueblo. Others maintain houses there but live elsewhere in more modern homes on some 99,000 acres (40,000 hectares) of Pueblo Indian land. In accordance with tradition, no electricity or running water is allowed in residences inside the adobe pueblo.

Adobe is a strong mixture of earth, water, and straw—used to construct buildings with thick walls and timber-supported roofs. Though durable enough to last through many centuries, the structures are often coated with new layers during maintenance. Until recent times the Taos Pueblo's first floors had no entrances. For purposes of defense, they were accessed by external ladders, which led to the roof, and then by internal ladders, which led from the roof down into the structure.

The Taos Pueblo is a sovereign nation governed by a Tribal Council of elders who appoint a governor and war chief. Though the inhabitants are 90 percent Catholic, they still celebrate some ancient religious rites passed down from their Native American ancestors. In addition to English and Spanish, Pueblo Indians speak their native language of Tiwa.

## Teacher Supplement: SOUTHWEST CULTURE

Some scholars date the origin of native cultures in the southwestern United States to immigrants who crossed the [Bering land bridge](#) from Siberia to Alaska, approximately 10,000 B.C. Others maintain that native cultures came to the Americas as early as 25,000 B.C. These immigrants settled in what is present-day southern Utah and Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico and northern Mexico. This culture area is contiguous with the [Far West Culture](#), the [Plains Culture](#) (to the northeast) and the southern part of the [Eastern Woodland Culture](#).

The Southwest's climate is generally hot and arid. Much of the land is desert dotted with cacti and other water-miser plants. Some areas are characterized by plateaus, spectacular rock formations and mineral wealth. There are forests at higher elevations. The land is graced by a few green river valleys; summer rains in some areas allowed farming by peoples of remote times.

Three significant cultures emerged in the region around 300 B.C. All three were based on a farming society augmented by hunting and gathering. They included the Anasazi, who erected cliff houses in northern Arizona and New Mexico, Utah and Colorado; the Hohokam, who dug complex irrigation systems in central Arizona; and the Mogollon, who hunted and farmed along the rivers of western New Mexico and eastern Arizona. Water was a precious natural resource in Southwestern societies, which kept strict rules about its use down to the youngest child. Some argue that these cultures were the most sophisticated of any Native American society north of present-day Mexico during the first 1,200 years A.D.

Early ways of life had changed by the time the [Spanish](#) arrived around 1600 A.D. The Southwest natives survived this contact, unlike the [Mayan](#) and [Aztec](#) cultures in Mexico that were leveled by the Spanish. In some ways, the latter's influence actually enhanced Southwest cultures for a time. Introduced tools, plants, horses and sheep exerted a positive impact on native cultures.

Spaniards and later [Europeans](#) encountered [three subsistence types](#) in the Southwest: villagers, farmers and nomads as well as a mixture of the three.

Villagers were descended mainly from the Anasazi. They were dubbed Pueblo (village) by the Spanish. The Pueblo subsisted by farming. They erected imposing terraced houses of adobe (dried clay), which sometimes rose to five stories. The Pueblo raised maize, squash and beans. They also raised cotton and wove it. The men wore breechcloths and blankets and the women wore blanket dresses. When the Spaniards introduced sheep to the area, the Pueblo women began to weave woolen clothing. The Zuni people lived in the area now known as western New Mexico and eastern Arizona. For hundreds of years, the Zuni were farmers and traders. The oldest continuously inhabited village in the United States is the Hopi community of Old Oraibi, located on a mesa in northern Arizona. This village came into being around 1050 A.D. when the Hopi migrated to this area.

South of the Pueblo, other natives lived off the land. These groups include the Mojave and Yuma of the Colorado and Gila river valleys, the Pima of the southwestern Arizona desert, and the Yaqui, whose cultural roots are in Mexico. Some of these peoples were probably descended from the Hohokam of earlier times. The Mojave grew melons, pumpkin and maize, and built large houses with grass roofs covered by mud. Around 3,000 Yuma lived in the Southwest in the late 1600s. The Yuma were productive farmers in spite of the hot climate. The Pima were

accomplished farmers and capitalized on the Hohokams' already large irrigation system with dams, reservoirs and some 200 miles of irrigation ditches. They developed drought-resistant maize and managed to cultivate several crops a year to barter and store.

The third group included the Navajo, Apache and Hopi, among others. They probably migrated from the northwest about a millennium ago, well after other Southwestern natives had settled. When these nomadic tribes arrived, they lived by hunting. Then the Navajo settled near the Pueblo and learned to raise maize and weave cotton. After the Spaniards brought horses and sheep, the Navajo lived by raising sheep, weaving colorfully attractive blankets and crafting fine silver jewelry. They lived in a hogan, or earth lodge. The warlike Apache did not settle down. They preferred hunting and raiding; few of them raised crops. Some lived in brush huts and others lived in tipis like the Plains natives. Most of them dressed in animal skins.

There were several language groups prior to European contact. They included Kerasan and Tanoan, languages of the Pueblo; Navajo, from the Athapaskan linguistic family traceable to Northern Canada and Alaska; Yuman, spoken by the Havasupai and Mojave; Zuni Pueblo; and sign language, shared among the several tribes to overcome language barriers. Following European contact, the indigenous peoples acquired Spanish, English and a trader language (with whites) whose purpose was similar to sign language. In all, more than 600 native dialects were spoken among a dozen [major tribes](#) and their sub-groups.

The people of the Southwest supported full-time religious leaders with shrines or temples. Most Southwestern Native Americans believed that in the universe there exists an Almighty, a formless spiritual force that is the source of all life. The sun was venerated as the power of the Almighty. They did not worship the sun, but prayed to the Almighty; the sun was its symbol. Some Southwest Native Americans believed the first people were created in a cavern below the surface of the earth. They climbed through two more caves, occupied by other living things, until they reached the surface. They emerged through a hole called sipapu, from which humans were born. They believed that this fourth world was sacred. Children listened to their parents tell legends, which recounted how people and nature work together. Catholicism was introduced by the Spanish.

White contact from the 1600s onward was greedy, ruthless and marginalizing. In addition, the legacy of the Southwest Native Americans following 1845 is marred by promises made and undone by the federal government. Title rights to this region's water and mineral resources lay at the root of the confrontation between native and white cultures. In the long run, native societies were restricted to increasingly smaller reservations—most lacking access to traditional natural resources.

Modern descendants of these tribes are noted for their symbol-rich spirituality, reverence for the earth, tightly knit clans, rousing dance and exquisitely rendered crafts. Water and mineral rights are an abiding concern and source of contention with the far more numerous non-natives of the Southwest.

See also [Southwest Culture Groups](#) and Indian Wars. [Native American Cultural Regions](#)



## Teacher Supplement: MAKING DREAM CATCHERS

By Terry Moore, e-How Contributor



Some Native American traditions say that a dream catcher will filter out bad dreams.

Dream catchers originated in Native American cultures. According to traditional beliefs, these handmade, webbed hoops filter a person's dreams. The dream catcher is believed to catch bad dreams and allow **good** dreams through the web. Traditional dream catchers are comprised of a willow hoop, loose webbing and decorative items.

### Things You'll Need

- Wooden embroidery hoop or wire circle
- Leather lace or yarn
- Scissors

### Instructions

Tie one end of the lace to the inside of the hoop. Be sure to use a wooden hoop, not a metal one.

Wind lace around the hoop in a diagonal pattern, wrapping it around the frame of the hoop to keep it in place. Once you have an established net, try winding the lace around the center of the web to create a pattern. Make sure to leave a hole open in the center.

Thread a bead onto the lace and position it so that the bead is in the very center of the dream catcher. Wrap the loose end of the lace around the hoop and tie it in a knot. Use the webbing to conceal the knot.

Tie several 5-inch pieces of lace around one end of the hoop. The laces should be spaced 2 inches apart and hang down when the dream catcher is held upright.

Thread beads onto the hanging pieces of lace. Tie a knot in the laces under each of the beads. Insert a feather into each of the knots, quill side up. Push beads down over the knots to conceal them.



## Teacher Supplement: A STORY OF THE DREAMCATCHER

-- By Finder

Long ago in the days of the ancestors, some of the children of the people were having strange, frightening dreams. As the children talked to other children, the troubling dreams spread among them like a plague. The parents of the children were concerned. The people wanted their children to be happy but they didn't know what to do. The people went to talk to the shaman. The shaman listened patiently as the parents told him about their distress. The shaman told the parents that he could help. But he would need to spend some time in counsel with the spirits before he would have a solution. The shaman would have to enter the dream world to find the answer. Upon entering the dream world the shaman was approached by the four elements: Air, Earth, Water and Fire. Air had already heard of the parent's concern, and had carried the message on the wind to the other elements. All the spirits in the dream world loved the children and wanted to help return the children to their state of peaceful sleep. The elements and the shaman dreamed together for a long time. They finally came to understand that:

Air could carry the children's dreams.

Earth could hold the dreams within her hoop.

Water could wash and separate dreams - the wanted from the unwanted.

Fire could use the morning sun to burn up the unwanted dreams that are caught in the web.

Now all they needed was something to capture the dreams as they were carried by the air.

Try as they might, the shaman and the elements could not think of a way to catch the dreams.

Grandmother Spider had been listening! She said, "Beautiful, loving elements, I can help you as you help me every day." Grandmother Spider continued, "I can weave a special web that only wanted dreams can escape down to the dreamer."

And so she did, and the first Dreamcatcher was made.

The shaman brought the dreamcatcher with him when he made his journey back from the dream world.

All of the families of the people made dreamcatchers. The families hung them above where the children slept, in a place that was seen by the sun.

No longer were the children troubled by unwanted dreams. Instead they had happy dreams and peaceful sleep.

And so, at last, Great Spirit looked into the dreams of the children and smiled?

- THE END -



## The American Indians of the Pacific Northwest-I

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity led by teacher
- discussion
- Drawing

### MATERIALS

- Paper
- Drawing pencil
- Map

### Preparation:

#### ZIG ZAG ZOP

- Everyone is in a circle. One person starts by saying, "zig" and looking at another person.
- That person now says, "zag" while looking at another person.
- Now the third person says, "zop" while looking at another person and pointing to them with a fully extended arm. Only "zop" has the arm motion. If a person moves their arm on "zig" or "zag" he/she is out and must sit down. If a person does not move their arm on "zop" he/she is out and must sit down.
- Advanced -- Speed it up. If a person hesitates, he/she is out.
- Teacher leads a discussion of the Southwest Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo people. How were their lives different? How were they similar?

- Describe the geography and climate where the Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo people lived.
- How did the geography and climate influence their lives?
- How did they live in the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how did they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils? Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions. Explain their varied economies and systems of government.
- Show a picture of three Native American shelters of the Northwest.(Plank House, Tipi, Igloo) Ask the students to describe what they know or think the geography and climate might be. (Refer to Teacher Supplement) (Show map)
- Explain what the climate of the northwest is and ask how this might affect the people living there.
- In their journals or books, ask the students to draw a picture of a Plank House, tipi and Igloo with detailed background of ground, plants and sky.
- Lesson finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**



## The American Indians of the Pacific Northwest-II

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity led by teacher
- discussion
- Drawing

### MATERIALS

- Paper
- Drawing pencil
- Map

### Preparation:

#### ZIG ZAG ZOP

- Everyone is in a circle. One person starts by saying, "zig" and looking at another person.
- That person now says, "zag" while looking at another person.
- Now the third person says, "zop" while looking at another person and pointing to them with a fully extended arm. Only "zop" has the arm motion. If a person moves their arm on "zig" or "zag" he/she is out and must sit down. If a person does not move their arm on "zop" he/she is out and must sit down.
- Advanced -- Speed it up. If a person hesitates, he/she is out.
- Teacher leads a discussion of the Southwest Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo people. How were their lives different? How were they similar?

- Describe the geography and climate where the Cliff Dwellers and Pueblo people lived.
- How did the geography and climate influence their lives?
- How did they live in the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how did they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils? Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions. Explain their varied economies and systems of government.
- Show a picture of three Native American shelters of the Northwest.(Plank House, Tipi, Igloo) Ask the students to describe what they know or think the geography and climate might be. (Refer to Teacher Supplement) (Show map)
- Explain what the climate of the northwest is and ask how this might affect the people living there.
- In their journals or books, ask the students to draw a picture of a Plank House, tipi and Igloo with detailed background of ground, plants and sky.
- Lesson finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**



## The American Indians of the Pacific Northwest-III

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Discussion
- Building Totem Pole

### MATERIALS

- Paper towel tube
- Glue
- Brown or other color construction paper
- Crayons
- Markers

### Preparation:

- Prepare a list of things starting with, Sit down if....  
you have brushed your teeth today.  
you are wearing yellow.  
you are hungry.  
you like chocolates.  
you hate ice-creams.  
You are born in December.  
you are the eldest child.  
you can speak two languages.

you have blue eyes.

you have black hair.

- Make the whole class stand. Read out these lines one by one. The game is over when only one student is left standing.
- Write the following on the board for the class to see:
  - Describe how geography and climate influenced the way the American Indian nation of the Pacific Northwest lived and adjusted to the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils.
  - Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions.
  - Explain their varied economies and systems of government. (The teacher may choose to assign this for homework)
- Discuss the questions one by one and have the children write answers in their journals. Demonstrate an example of a complete answer for the children to model. Emphasize good paragraph form with good use of topic sentence, grammar, spelling, punctuation and a concluding sentence. Collect, read and correct to be returned to students next class.
- Then, show a photo of a totem pole and explain their use in Native American cultures of the Northwest. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Give out materials for the class to build individual totem poles to display for the school.
- Class Finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: AMERICAN INDIANS OF THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST



### Totem pole

The indigenous peoples of [North America](#) are thought to have arrived here more than 16,000 years ago, having descended from people who lived in [Siberia](#). Since that time, they have diversified into hundreds of distinct nations and bands. We're taking a look at what sets those groups apart.

### Northwest Indians - Who Are They?

Northwest Indians live along the Pacific Ocean, from southern [Alaska](#), through coastal [British Columbia](#), and into Washington State. This group is well known for its hand-crafted totem poles. A totem pole in front of a home shows the generations and social rank of that family. Some Northwest bands are the [Chinook](#), Tillamook, Coast Salish and the Tlingit.

### Northwest Indians - Shelter

For shelter, the Northwest Indians used what was available in their [forests](#) - red cedar trees. They built Big-Houses, which were from 20 to 60 feet wide and anywhere from 50 to 150 feet long. They didn't have metal [nails](#) to hold the logs together so they used wooden pegs instead. To keep the rain out, they overlapped wooden planks. There were no windows but a hole in the roof let air in and smoke from cooking [fires](#) out.



Chilkat dancers pose in ceremonial dress

### Northwest Indians - Food

Coastal tribes lived off the ocean. There was no sushi in their diets but plenty of [seals](#), salmon, sea otters and [whales](#). They had a nearly endless supply of fish from the ocean, animals to hunt and fruit from the forest. During [the fall](#), they pulled big salmon in by the thousands - enough to feed families for the entire year.

### Northwest Indians - Clothing

Tribes on the coast wore very little clothing, except when it was [cold](#). Many items of clothing were made from cedar bark and helped shield people from the rain and wind. [Necklaces](#) made



of beaver teeth, bear claws, clamshells and bits of albacore were popular and symbolized [wealth](#).

### **Northwest Indians - Ceremonies**

One of the most common customs was the potlatch. The ceremony was different from tribe to tribe but almost always involved dancing and [gift-giving](#). Dancers often wore [animal masks](#) and decorated themselves from head to toe with paint and feathers. Hosts showered their guests with gifts to show how wealthy they were. They would even destroy some of their most valuable possessions - the more they could afford to destroy, the greater their [wealth and importance](#).

### **Read more:**

[American Indian | Native | First Nations | Pacific Northwest | Chinook | Tillamook | Coast Salish | Tlingit](#)

<http://www.kidzworld.com/article/1387-american-indians-northwest-bands#ixzz2XSSQL2KN>

## Teacher Supplement: HOW TO MAKE A TOTEM POLE

By Stormy Lee, eHow Contributor



Totem poles are one of the best-known symbols of Native American culture. Each one represents a Native American's family history and spiritual identity. A totem pole can be made as a class project to reinforce ideas taught in school about Native American culture and history. A cardboard and paper totem pole can be constructed by students in as little as a single class period by following these simple steps.

### Other People Are Reading



[Easy Totem Pole Ideas](#)




[How to Make a Homemade Totem Pole](#)

### Things You'll Need

- Paper towel tube
- Glue
- Brown or other color construction paper
- Crayons and markers

### Instructions

- Wrap a piece of brown construction paper around an empty paper towel tube once and cut off any excess construction paper.

- Place the trimmed construction paper flat onto a table. Using the ruler, draw four equidistant, horizontal lines across the paper, three inches apart. This will divide the paper into five parallel sections.
- Use crayons and markers to decorate each section by drawing an animal head. Native Americans commonly depict such animals as bears, beavers, seals--even mythical beasts--on their totems.
- Glue the construction paper onto the paper towel  tube with the plain side facing the tube and the decorated side facing outward.
- Make wings for your totem pole by cutting pieces of construction paper lengthwise and gluing them onto the backside of the pole. The size of the wings should be in proportion to the animal depicted on one of the five areas you have decorated.

Read more:

[http://www.ehow.com/how\\_6312779\\_make-totem-pole-school-project.html#ixzz2XuQaQvdD](http://www.ehow.com/how_6312779_make-totem-pole-school-project.html#ixzz2XuQaQvdD)

### **How To Make A Totem Pole :**

YouTube: [www.youtube.com/watch?v=P35Wlo2IGd4](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P35Wlo2IGd4)

### **TOTEM POLES Handout - NW Native American Totem Poles**

#### **FACTS ABOUT NORTHWEST NATIVE AMERICAN TOTEM POLES**

- Totems date back beyond the 1700s. Their carving process improved after contact with Europeans and the introduction of metal to their tribes.
- Paint for the totems comes from pigments in nature, and like the carved animals, colors are symbolic as well. The natural ingredients mixed with oil from salmon eggs created easy application.
- The ovoid (or oval), V, W and circle are common shapes in the carving process.
- Totems tell a story about an important event or person, favorite fable, lesson learned, belief or origin of a tribe, clan or particular family.
- There are 3 kinds of totems: 1) Central post of an old style Haida house 2) A tall slender memorial pole, 3) A monument for the dead.
- These poles are a means of communication, similar to a poem – many ideas transpire using only a few words.
- Usually the most affluent tribe members have totem poles, and during its creation, the carver would live with the family.
- Each crest or symbol has its own story and is carefully arranged beginning at the bottom.
- Totem poles range from 4 feet to 75 feet.
- Totems are most often made of Redwood Cedar trees.
- The viewer will recognize the design of each animal depicted, but in order to tell the story, you need to KNOW the story or people. Poles are seldom self-explanatory.
- Parents tell their children the story in order to pass it down for generations to come.

### **TOTEM POLE COLOR SYMOBLISM**

Remember, each color is a combination of the listed ingredient and salmon eggs to create a liquid paint.

**White:** Used along with other light colors as a background symbolizes skies and spacious heavens. It also stands for purity, peace and death.

**Red:** Made from a variously shaded mineral called cinnabar. When used, it represents blood, war or valor. It may be found on animals that require it, for example: a red-headed woodpecker or the tongue of an animal.

**Blue:** Made from copper salts and is most commonly used as the symbol for the rivers, waters, lakes and skies. Certain tribes used it for mountains in the distance. Blue stands for sincerity and happiness.

**Yellow:** Clays, moss, roots and tannic barks from Cedar create this color, which reflects the symbol of the sun, light and happiness. This is often a predominating color.

**Green:** Made from algae or juice from grass, it represents the trees and mountains, common in all Indian legends. Green may be made by mixing blue and yellow, or by adding acid to copper as well. Copper is abundant in many parts of the West and Northwest.

**Purple:** Huckleberries are a good source for purple, or perhaps mixing red and blue hues. Purple stood for mountains in the distance and general imagery.

**Black:** Charcoal or mud from sulphur springs is the base ingredient for this color, and it represents power. **TOTEM POLES Handout - NW Native American Totem Poles**

<b>TOTEM POLE ANIMAL &amp; OBJECT</b>	Old, wise, builder, creative, artistic & determined, strong sense of family, builder of dreams
<b>SYMOBLISM Beaver</b>	
<b>Eagle</b>	Ruler of the sky, great strength, leadership, prestige, divine spirit, connection to creator
<b>Frog</b>	Spring & new life, communicator, stability, rich in life, survivalist, connection to water element
<b>Hawk</b>	Strength, quick to assist when in need of help, messenger, stopper of time
<b>Owl</b>	Wisdom, watchful, perseverance, respected, may be associated with death



## Nomadic Nations of the Great Plains-I

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Teacher Led discussion
- Drawing map

### MATERIALS

- Photo or drawing of shelters of the Nomadic Nations of the Great Plains

### Preparation:

- Acrostic Poem  
The teacher will give each learner a piece of paper and instruct them to write down their name vertically on the side of a page. After that, the teacher will instruct each learner to use each letter of their name to write at least one word beginning with that letter. The students can then share the acrostic poem.
- Teacher leads a discussion of the Southwest Cliff Dwellers, Pueblo, and Pacific Northwest Native people. How were their lives different? How were they similar?
- Describe the geography and climate where the Cliff Dwellers, Pueblo and Pacific Northwest Native people lived. (Show map)
- How did the geography and climate influence their lives?

- How did they live in the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how did they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils? Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions. Explain their varied economies and systems of government.
- Show a picture of Native American shelters of the Plains. Ask the students to describe what they know or think the geography and climate might be. (Refer to Teacher Supplement) (Show map)
- Explain what the climate of the plains is and ask how this might affect the people living there.
- In their journals or books, ask the students to draw a picture of shelters in the plains (tipi) with detailed background of ground, plants and sky.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Nomadic Nations of the Great Plains-II

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Building tipi
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- Pole
- Blanket
- Markers

### Preparation:

#### ZIG ZAG ZOP

- Everyone is in a circle. One person starts by saying, "zig" and looking at another person.
- That person now says, "zag" while looking at another person.
- Now the third person says, "zop" while looking at another person and pointing to them with a fully extended arm. Only "zop" has the arm motion. If a person moves their arm on "zig" or "zag" he/she is out and must sit down. If a person does not move their arm on "zop" he/she is out and must sit down.
- Advanced -- Speed it up. If a person hesitates, he/she is out.

- Discuss the Plains Indians including shelter, food, customs, folklore, economy and government.
- Built a large tipi inside or outside using directions found in the Teacher Supplement. If this is not possible, have children build small, table top models.
- In their journals, have the children write about life on the plains living in a tipi.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**





## Nomadic Nations of the Great Plains-III

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Journal writing

### Preparation:

- Begin by having the children form a circle.
- Use a bean bag or small ball to toss around the circle.
- First child begins by throwing the bag or ball across the circle to another student.
- This continues around the circle until each student has had a turn.
- In round two, the students must remember who tossed the bag or ball to them last time and repeat the same procedure in order.
- In round three, tell them to go faster.
- After they have been successful, add a second ball repeating the process while the first ball is still going around.
- Eventually, add a third and then fourth ball as students work together to keep the bags or balls moving.
- Write the following on the board for the class to see:
  - Describe how geography and climate influenced the way the Nomadic Nations of the Great Plains lived and adjusted to the natural environment, including locations of

villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils.

- Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions.
- Explain their varied economies and systems of government. (The teacher may choose to assign this for homework)
- Discuss the questions one by one and have the children write answers in their journals. Demonstrate an example of a complete answer for the children to model. Emphasize good paragraph form with good use of topic sentence, grammar, spelling, punctuation and a concluding sentence. Collect, read and correct to be returned to students next class.
- Class game of 20 questions about the Native American groups, including the cliff dwellers and pueblo people of the desert Southwest, the American Indians of the Pacific Northwest, the nomadic nations of the Great Plains, and the woodland peoples east of the Mississippi River.
- Class Finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**

**An Introduction to  
North America's Native People  
Plains Culture Area**

[Introduction](#) | [Historical Overview](#) | [Era of the Horse](#)  
[Defining Features](#) | [Reading Assignment](#) | [Resources](#)  
[Student Essay - Dakota](#)

**Introduction**

The Great Plains (sometimes called the American prairies) fills the very center of the North American continent, stretching some 1,500 miles north to south (from the north central regions of Texas to the southern prairies of Canada) & more than 1,000 miles east to west (from the Mississippi-Missouri Valley to the Rocky Mountains). And while the Plains landscape appears to many to be a vast unbroken treeless & uniform grassland, it is in fact broken by ranges of hills & wooded river valleys, and consists of two subregions, the more humid eastern plains with tall-grass prairies & the drier western plains or steppe, where short-grass prairies dominate.

The valleys and hills were home to deer, elk, bear, antelope, and beaver, while in the mountains at the western edge lived mountain sheep. In the rivers were fish, and waterfowl were seasonally abundant during their annual migrations. But it was the bison who were the principal inhabitants of the grasslands. Up until the middle of the 19th century, more than 60 million of them lived in the region. They provided the plains people (both the nomads & the cultivators) with meat for eating, fat for cooking, hides for house-covers & winter coats, bones & horns for a variety of tools, stomachs were made into carrying & sometimes cooking devices, even the tails found a use - as fly swatters.

**Historical Overview**

**Before the Europeans**

My heart is filled with joy when I see you here, as the brooks fill with water when the snows melt in the spring; and I feel glad, as the ponies do when the fresh grass starts in the beginning of the year. My people have never first drawn a bow or gun against whites. There has been trouble on the line between us, and my young men have danced the war dance. But it was not begun by us. It was you who sent out the first soldier and we who sent out the second. The blue dressed soldiers and the Utes came out from the night when it was dark and still, and for camp fires they lit our lodges. Instead of hunting game, they killed my braves, and the warriors of the tribe cut their hair for the dead. So it was in Texas. They made sorrow come in our camps, and we went out like the buffalo bulls when the cows are attacked. When we found them we killed them and their scalps hang in our lodges. The Comanches are not weak and blind, like pups or a dog when seven sleeps old. They are strong and farsighted, like grown horses. We took their road and we went on it. The white women cried and our women laughed. But there are things which you have said which I do not like. They are not sweet like sugar, but bitter like gourds. You said that you wanted to put us upon a reservation, to build us houses and make us medicine lodges. I do not want them. I was born upon the prairie, where the wind blew free and there was nothing to break the light of the sun. I lived like my fathers before me, and like them I lived

happily. Spoken by the great Yamparikas Comanche Paruasemena (Young Bear) at the 1867 Medicine Lodge Treaty.

**COMANCHE**, **CHEYENNE**, and **SIOUX** - names well-known to millions of fans of westerns (books, TV programs, movies). And for many non-Indians, it was the life-style of these &other Plains people that represents the very concept of "Indianness": nomadic, tepee-dwelling, horse-mounted buffalo hunters; warriors wearing eagle-feathered warbonnets &wielding lance &shield while attacking their enemies; young men subjecting themselves to days and days of isolation &starvation in search of a vision. While such features did exist among some Plains nations, neither were they universal nor, in the case of hunting buffalo from horseback, were they of any great time depth. It wasn't until the 17th century, following the arrival of the European-introduced horse to the Great Plains, that the "stereotypical" Plains culture of books, movies, &TV emerged &people began to live across the Plains. Before that, the area was nearly empty of human life, with two exceptions:

- Along the river bottoms of the Mississippi-Missouri river drainage system in the eastern &middle plains lived sedentary village dwelling farmers (such as the Hidatsa, Mandan, Omaha, Kansa, Missouri, &others)
- Scattered in various other plains locations lived foot nomads, such as the ancestors of the modern Blackfoot, Comanche, Kiowa, and various Shoshonean speaking nations.

Other Plains hunters, such as the Cheyenne, Arapaho, Crow, &Dakota were latecomers to the Plains, abandoning their settled agricultural way of life for one of nomadic buffalo hunting and, as was the case on the southern Plains dwellers, raiding the towns of the native peoples of the Southwestern Culture Area.

But long before that, the Great Plains region was home to some of the earliest settlers in North America. Archaeological evidence for the first use of the Plains dates to about 12,000 years ago when the Clovis people, broad-spectrum big game hunters of the Paleo-Indian tradition, moved onto the Plains seeking a variety of large game. They hunted gigantic mammoths, a relative of the elephant, and other large game such as the ground sloth, musk-ox, reindeer, elk, brown bear and primitive horses.

By about 9000-8500 B.C., the broad-spectrum big-game hunters had begun to focus on a single animal species, the bison (an early cousin of the buffalo). The earliest known of these bison oriented traditions is Folsom. Folsom people moved around in small family groups for most of the year, returning yearly to the same springs &other favored locations on higher ground. There they would camp for a few days, perhaps erecting a temporary shelter, making &or repairing some stone tools, or processing some meat, then moving on.

After 8000 B.C., hunter-gatherers on the Great Plains were not numerous &population densities were quite low. Although some Paleo-Indians continued as open plains bison hunters, hunting traditions became more varied and bison procurement methods more sophisticated. Additionally, some groups took to supplementing bison meat with other food resources (antelope, deer, bearn, small mammals, fish, &seasonally available wild vegetable foods).

Between about 5500 B.C. &0 B.C./A.D., regional adaptations became the norm with relying less on bison &more on a mixed economy of small game &gathered plant foods. In the western plains, groups moved toward the mountain valleys &shifted from nomadic hunting &gathering to more fixed base hunting, while the eastern groups turned to a mixed economy with far more dependence on vegetal foods &small game (deer, rabbits).

Between 1000 B.C. - 1000 A.D. a lifestyle emerged on the edges of the eastern Plains which set the stage for the sedentary horticulturalist tradition which existed at the time of European contact. Farmers from the Eastern Woodlands culture area began moving westward up the valleys of Mississippi tributaries, penetrating the Plains between 250 B.C. & 950 A.D., & bringing with them features new to the Plains:

- cultivation of indigenous plants (such as sunflower, goosefoot, pigweed, & others) as well as maize & beans (originally introduced to the Eastern Woodlands from Mexico)
- burial of the dead in or under earthen mounds
- the manufacture of pottery

The first Plains farming communities may have been inspired by & perhaps derived from [Hopewellian cultures](#), were up to 3-4 hectares in size, and participated in Hopewell trade networks, perhaps supplying Ohio Hopewellian communities with obsidian from Yellowstone Park & high-quality chalcedony from western North Dakota. The subsistence system included the cultivation of several species of indigenous plants, perhaps along with primitive strains of maize. In the northeastern Plains earthen mounds were built, including linear earthworks and conical burial mounds. Often the burial mounds covered log-covered pits containing human burials, often along with bison skeletons & or skulls, a decidedly Plains addition to typical Hopewellian burial mound patterns. Some anthropologists have suggested that these northeastern Plains mound-builders were ancestral to the historically known Dakota, Assiniboin, & Cheyenne people. It was also during this period that the bow & arrow, an Athapaskan Subarctic Culture Area weapon, was introduced on the Plains.

The period between 1000 - 1850 A.D. witnessed the introduction of multi-family houses (semi-subterranean earth lodges) grouped into fixed villages. This new wave of eastern influence & colonies had its origins in [Mississippian](#) developments. Over time, the smaller villages of earlier times were abandoned in favor of fewer but larger, more consolidated & permanent settlements, usually equipped with numerous underground storage pits. Some of these new communities were fortified for defense purposes with ditches & stockades. Farming was restricted to the alluvial bottomlands of larger rivers and although these new agricultural villagers continued to grow various local plant species, the subsistence system was improved with the introduction of advanced strains of maize & beans (possibly introduced from Mexico). When the first European fur trappers & traders moved up the Mississippi-Missouri river system, they found flourishing farming nations with rich & elaborate cultural traditions. These nations were the direct ancestors of modern Plains people - the Mandan, Hidatsa, Arikara, Pawnee, Wichita, Omaha, Oto, Ponca, & Kansa.

## **Historical Overview**

### **After the Europeans**

Given the Great Plains' interior location, its awesome isolation, & its lack of trees, it was much less attractive for European & American exploitation than North America's more accessible regions. Thus, European & American explorers, traders, trappers, & missionaries had only slight knowledge of the region and it wasn't until after 1800 that the Plains nations had direct contact with the newcomers. Furthermore, because of their relative isolation, and because it was unsafe for non-Indians to venture onto the Plains, the Plains people escaped the influences

which peoples in other parts of American had faced. Nonetheless, they were affected by the westward spread of first the Europeans and later the Ameropeans who displaced Eastern Woodlands nations, sending them onto the Great Plains where they met with stiff resistance by the Plains people. The Plains peoples were also readily receptive to certain European & Ameropean items, including the horse, which effected changes in their cultures as early as the 17th century. Also, comancheros, Iberian traders from the Spanish Rio Grande settlements, ventured onto the Plains to trade and both French and later British & Anglo-American traders had some limited contact with Plains Indians. But it was largely through the Wichitas & other Native American middlepersons that guns, knives, hatchets, kettles, cloth, beads, & other goods flowed to the Plains.

What's important to remember, in fact what is a matter of considerable moment in Native American history, is that the Plains nations were striking exceptions to the general trend of tribal degradation, depopulation, & cultural deprivation following European & Ameropean contact. Largely free of imperial domination, the Plains nations were able to adapt certain European & Ameropean items to their particular needs. As a result, they flourished, became prosperous & powerful, and thus were able to offer the most effective resistance of any Native Americans to being conquered by the spreading Ameropean westward advance.

In the 17th & 18th centuries, the shock waves of European invasion & expansion in the East began pushing woodland nations west, one against another, forcing some of them onto the plains and creating friction with the nations already living there. The result was an uneasy mix of rooted & uprooted nations. They spoke many dialects of different language families & learned to communicate with each other by a [common sign language](#).

With the influx of guns (traded from Europeans in the 18th century) & horses, the plains could have become the setting of a contest of annihilation. But even bitter enemies saw large-scale killing as wasteful & lacking honor. Instead, the Plains nations developed a complex, ritualized warfare, in which the mere touching of an enemy, known as "counting coup," brought higher honor than killing.

For decades, the horse cultures of the Plains nations flourished. White explorers & trappers came & went, followed by missionaries, miners, freighters, & settlers, who crossed the Plains on their way to the West. And while the Americans made no critical demands on the tribes for cessions of Great Plains territory, their increasing traffic drove away game, destroyed wild-food gathering grounds, polluted water sources, & spread diseases among the Native people. Then in 1858 & 1859, gold discoveries on the South Platte River at the foot of Colorado's Rockies started a stampede of whites across the buffalo-hunting grounds of the Cheyenne, Arapaho, Sioux, Kiowa, & Comanche Indians.

As thousands of fortune hunters flocked into Colorado, the U.S. government attempted unsuccessfully to keep the Native people away from the various routes the emigrants were using. The Lakota Sioux were told to stay north of the Oregon Trail & its South Platte spur that led to Denver. In the southern plains, the U.S. army tried in vain to drive the Kiowas & Comanches below the Arkansas River. And in the region inbetween, the Cheyennes & Arapahos found themselves caught by a third route from Kansas to Colorado that ran directly through their traditional hunting grounds, which had been guaranteed to them by a treaty in 1851. In 1861, government negotiators tried to break the treaty and force the two Nations onto a barren reservation in southeastern Colorado, but the Native people refused to go. And the stage was

set for the infamous [Sand Creek massacre](#). At dawn on 29 November 1864, the Colorado volunteers, commanded by "Colonel" John Chivington, attacked the sleeping Cheyenne village of Black Kettle on the banks of Sand Creek. The village was destroyed, winter food stores & blankets plundered, & more than 150 men, children, even pregnant women were killed & savagely mutilated by Chivington & his "soldiers."

An immediate post-Civil War concern of the federal government was pacifying the Indian nations of the Plains: the Cheyennes & Sioux who dominated the northern Plains; the southern Cheyennes & Arapahoes, rulers of the central Plains; & the Kiowas & Comanches, who roamed virtually unopposed over the southern Plains. Although all had fought against the American military during the Civil War period of tribal conquest & compression, they still controlled vast domains in 1866, & each Nation possessed superb fighting power & a strong will to resist American occupation. Federal officials on their side felt compelled to clear the Plains in order to open a wedge for the advancing transcontinental railroad. Simultaneously, the U.S. government was coming under public pressure from eastern civilians tired of the immoral military actions against the Plains nations, and demanding alternative solutions be found to the "Indian problem."

On the southern Plains, the U.S. negotiated the Little Arkansas Treaties with the Kiowa, Comanche, Cheyenne, & Arapaho. In return for their agreeing to reduce their hunting ranges & maintain the peace, the U.S. pledged mutual peace & protection of tribal territorial rights. However, the U.S. Senate refused to ratify these treaties, federal officials refused to protect tribal territorial rights, the flow of settlers into the southern Plains increased, & American buffalo hunters slaughtered the bison by the tens of thousands.

Recognizing that the federal government was not going to protect their rights, the various Nations assumed this function & mounted attacks against the American invaders. In response, the U.S. army launched a series of brutal, constant, & intense campaigns against the Native peoples in the summer of 1867. By October of that year the Native Nations were ready for a truce which came at a grand council on [Medicine Lodge Creek](#) in southwestern Kansas. The treaties negotiated during the Council are very important historically, resulting as they did in the assignment to the Kiowas & Comanches a reservation on lands taken from the Choctaws & Chickasaws by the Reconstruction Treaties of 1866. The 1,200 Kiowas & 1,700 Comanches received a 3 million-acre domain. Additionally, 300 Kiowa-Apaches joined with the Kiowas & Comanches and agreed to settle on their reservation. The Cheyennes (numbering about 2,000) & Arapahos (numbering about 1,200) were assigned a reservation containing nearly 5 million acres (Five years later the U.S. removed 600,000 acres from the Cheyenne-Arapaho reservation in order to establish a reservation for Wichitas, Caddoes, absentee Delawares, & remnants of Texas Nations).

Despite the fact that many Nations went to reservations, U.S. military officials were convinced that the Native people would remain restive & warlike, & would stay on reservations only after their war-making potential had been completely destroyed. A two-pronged assault was launched against the Indians. While agents & missionaries worked on the reservations attempting to force the Indians to assimilate, new military posts were built at strategic points across the Plains.

Meanwhile, the federal government failed to deliver the rations promised by the Medicine Lodge Creek treaty. The Indians claimed that such a failure by the U.S. to keep its pledge freed



the Nations from observing the treaties and in 1868 many well-mounted and heavily armed small bands left the reservations to hunt buffalo & occasionally raid American settlements. In response, the federal government launched a series of campaigns against the wandering bands. One of these campaigns, the [Washita](#), was carried out by [Colonel George Armstrong Custer](#) against the Cheyenne encamped on the banks of the upper Washita. Custer's Seventh Cavalry surrounded the Indian village, caught the sleeping Indians by surprise, and massacred 102 Cheyenne, many of them women & children.

After Custer's massacre, General Philip Sheridan, field commander of the U.S. Army, ordered all bands to go on the new reservations of face annihilation by the army; most of the bands gradually came in. But the reservations were more like prisons than homelands. Deprived of their hunting lands, fed broken promises by the federal government & dictatorial reservation officials, and often sick, cold, and starving because of inadequate, spoiled, or shoddy supplies provided by government swindlers, the Indians grew restive & once again bands fled onto the open plains.

But by the 1870s, things had changed drastically on the Plains. The buffalo-hunting nations were facing a crisis of major proportions. An eastern tannery had developed a method to produce a superior leather from buffalo hides, creating a huge demand for the hides, and driving the price of bison hides skyward. In response, the southern Plains filled, almost overnight, with hide hunters who killed buffalo by the thousands. In two years, the buffalo-hunters, armed with the new, high-powered Sharps repeating rifle, slaughtered 4 million buffalo, shipping their hides east & leaving the unused carcasses rotting.

In destroying the herds, the whites were wiping out the Indians' food supply, forcing them, if they wished to live, back onto the reservations. The federal government saw what was happening and gave the hide-hunters encouragement. As General Sherman remarked: "They have done ... more to settle the vexed Indian question than the entire regular army.... They are destroying the Indians' commissary.... For the sake of a lasting peace, let them kill, skin & sell until the buffaloes are exterminated." In less than 12 years the buffalo population went from some 30 million to less than one thousand & the thousands of years old spiritual bond between the Native peoples and the buffalo was destroyed.

It was the beginning of the end. Hemmed in by the ever-tightening bonds of ranches, farms, settlements, railroad lines, wagon roads, telegraph lines, & other marks of the white man's possession of what only recently had been buffalo range, the free bands were being strangled to death. One by one the bands finally went onto the hated reservations, where the army rounded up the Indians' horses (some ten thousand) and shot them. Finally, the southern Plains nations, stripped of their guns, horses & the buffalo, their prominent leaders dead or in prison, and thoroughly demoralized by the drastic changes in life-styles forced on them, were "pacified."

On the northern Plains, things weren't much better. In 1865 federal commissioners attempted to negotiate a treaty with the Sioux & northern Cheyenne in order to complete railroad construction through the central Plains. Federal negotiators also demanded that the northern Plains nations allow improvements & fortification of the Bozeman Road, an old trader's trail and one which was being increasingly used by Americans travelling from Fort Laramie to the newly discovered Montana mines. Because the road crossed the prime bison hunting range of the Sioux, they refused to negotiate. In response, U.S. troops built three posts along the road, causing the Sioux to attack travelers, freighters & miners moving along the trail. So intense was



their pressure on travel in this region that on several occasions between 1866 & 1868 they choked off all travel. They also watched the military posts and made it difficult for troops to escort caravans over the road & guard the posts at the same time.

Finally, early in 1868 a federal Peace Commission met with Sioux & Cheyenne leaders at [Fort Laramie and negotiated treaties](#). These provided that the federal government would abandon the Bozeman Road & other travel routes & military posts in the Sioux hunting range while both the Sioux & Cheyenne would accept fixed reservations in the Dakotas, Montana, & Wyoming territories (with a hunting annex in the Big Horn-Powder River region). The northern Plains nations also pledged peace with the U.S. & unimpeded passage for construction of railroads.

But peace was short lived. American activity in the northern Plains increased and inevitably incidents occurred between the Native people & American workmen, immigrants, & soldiers, all of whom evidenced a general disregard for the Native peoples' rights as guaranteed by the Fort Laramie Treaty. The increased activity disturbed the buffalo & made hunting difficult; hunters hired by the railroads killed buffalo to feed the rail construction crews; and hide hunters slaughtered tens of thousands of bison for the skins. And as was the case in the southern Plains, federal officials encouraged extermination of the northern Plains buffalo herds, reasoning that as long as there were buffalo, the Indians would always leave the reservations. But once the bison were gone, the Native people would become dependent upon government rations & Anglo-farming practices for subsistence.

In the final stages of American conquest of the northern Plains people, several key factors played decisive roles in the ultimate defeat of the Indians: the extermination of the buffalo, since it destroyed their economic foundation for survival & action; the use of rapid-fire weapons by the Indian-fighting army, giving them a decided advantage over the single-shot rifles of the Indians; and the extension of the railroads, which allowed rapid deployment of troops from one area to another in a matter of hours.

Throughout the period between 1868 & 1876, the Sioux & northern Cheyenne brushed with the military. But by the end of 1876 the northern Plains, like the southern, were quiet & peaceful. The tribes had been subdued, the barrier to settlement & development had been removed and the military conquest of the western tribes was nearly complete. What resistance was offered by the Kickapoos, Nez Percés, Utes, & Modocs was dealt with quickly and decisively by the federal military establishment. Anglo-American victories over the western Apaches in 1886 destroyed the last vestige of Native American military power. In the aftermath, and in keeping with a nearly unanimous Anglo-American view that the Native nations should be stripped of their lands & colonized on restricted reservations, the federal government forced nation after nation onto reservations. Once there, federal agents began applying detribalization processes which one observer has called the policy of "Kill the Indian and save the person."

Below are brief essays on the post-American history of several Plains nations including the Crow (Apsáalooke), the Blackfoot, the Cheyenne-Arapaho-Gros Ventures, the Mandan & Hidatsa, the Caddoans, the Numic-speakers, the Kiowa & Kiowa-Apache, & various Siouxian-speakers.

### **Crow**

The Crow (or more properly the Apsáalooke) were once bands of the Hidatsa living in villages along the Missouri River in North Dakota. According to their oral traditions they separated from the other Hidatsa around A.D. 1700, began living in tipis, and devoted themselves to hunting buffalo around the headwaters of the Missouri in south-central Montana & adjacent Wyoming.

However, the separation was not total and individuals & families moved from Apsáalooke camps to Hidatsa villages, or vice versa. By the mid-19th century, the Apsáalooke controlled excellent buffalo grazing grasslands on the high country of the central Montana-Wyoming border region. When the [1851 Treaty of Fort Laramie](#) was signed, this region was recognized as Apsáalooke territory and they were [able to negotiate a reservation](#) in south-central Montana & remain in their homeland, [where they reside to this day](#).

### **The Blackfoot**

The [Blackfoot nation](#) is comprised of three allied groups, the [Kainai](#), the [Siksika](#), & the [Peigan](#). When first contacted by Europeans at the end of the 17th century they occupied the parklands & plains of western Saskatchewan & southern Alberta. During the first half of the 18th century they were engaged in defending their western border against Shoshoni expansion. By the end of the century their principal threat came from the Apsáalooke hunters of central & northern Montana. By the 1830s, fur & hide trading posts were being built on the upper Missouri and added to the friction between the Blackfoot & other Native Nations.

Throughout the 19th century, enmity between the Blackfoot & the Apsáalooke continued but by the 1850s it was eclipsed by the inroads of the Ameropeans. In 1855 a treaty between the Blackfoot & the U.S. promised annuity payments for Blackfoot forbearance of rapidly increasing traveling, trading, & establishment of missions & government agencies in Montana. By the 1870s, increasing Ameropean traffic on a pass located in Blackfoot country, coupled with homesteaders' interest in the ranching & wheat potential of the region, pressured the U.S. to make northern Montana a reservation. Then, over the next decade mounting pressure by whites resulted in breaking up this Great Northern Reservation into very much smaller tribal reservations with the Southern Peigan relegated to the north-central Montana Blackfeet Reservation, while the Kainai, Siksika, & Northern Peigan decided to accept the Dominion of Canada reserves granted them in [Canada's 1877 Treaty No. 7](#).

### **Cheyenne**

In the 17th century Cheyenne communities were found on the prairies of southern Minneota, where they combined farming with hunting. At the beginning of the 18th century, in response to endemic warfare between themselves and their neighbors (the Dakota Sioux & Ojibwa) over the rich bison, elk, and beaver resources of the Minnesota prairie, the Cheyenne moved westward, settling in eastern North Dakota. There they took up a lifestyle much like that of the Mandan & Hidatsa farther west: residing in earth lodges surrounded by fortification ditches, growing maize, beans, & squash, and riding horses onto the plains to hunt buffalo.

By the end of the 18th century, the Cheyenne once again moved westward, abandoning their earth lodges & becoming wholly nomadic tipi dwellers, transporting their worldly possessions on horses as they hunted buffalo. However, women continued to prepare & plant fields of maize & beans in river bottom lands on the Plains, areas to which the people would return after the long summer bison hunts.

On the plains the Cheyenne met a linguistically allied group, the SUTAI, who taught them the Sun Dance ceremony and let them share in the protective power of the sacred Medicine Hat. By the mid-19th century, the Cheyenne hunted in & defended a territory in eastern Colorado and western South Dakota that included the Black Hills. But their power lasted less than a single generation: when the bison herds failed in the 1870s and 1880s, the Cheyenne had to yield before U.S. army campaigns & accept reservations that split them, one part taking a western

Oklahoma settlement and the other part settling on land adjacent to the Crow reservation in southern Montana.

### **Arapaho-Gros Ventures**

The [Arapaho](#) (who call themselves Hinana-aeina) & the Gros Ventures (who call themselves 'Aa'ááániinéninah, "White Clay People") were, according to their oral histories, once a single people. Just prior to European contact, the 'Aa'ááániinéninah lived by both farming & hunting & occupied south-central Saskatchewan & adjacent northwestern North Dakota. The Arapaho lived in the country to the southeast, in eastern North Dakota & Minnesota & were primarily foot nomads. When their southern neighbors, the Cheyenne, shifted southwest in the late 18th & early 19th centuries, the Arapaho & 'Aa'ááániinéninah also moved, the latter in northeastern Montana. In 1867, as a result of the Medicine Lodge Treaty, the southern band of the Arapaho were forced to move south to the so-called Indian Territory. By the 1880s, with the extermination of the wild bison herds all but complete, the Arapaho & 'Aa'ááániinéninah were bereft of their principal subsistence base and were forced onto reservations. [Some Arapaho moved with Southern Cheyenne onto a reservation in western Oklahoma](#), other Arapaho took a reservation at Wind River in Wyoming with Eastern Shoshoni. In 1887 the 'Aa'ááániinéninah settled on a reservation in eastern Montana, sharing it with both Assiniboin & a yet as unrecognized Métis community.

### **Mandan & Hidatsa**

These two peoples were quite similar in their culture & language (both speak Siouan languages). They originally occupied agricultural towns on the Missouri & its tributaries in North Dakota, with the Mandan the pioneers in settling this area, erecting earth lodges in Southern Dakota by A.D. 1150, then regrouping in central North Dakota in the middle of the 15th century, building fortified towns of round earth lodges, and becoming the central market towns in a vast exchange system linking Nations of the Plains to those as far west as the Pacific coast. And very early in the European exploration of the Great Plains the Mandan became associated with the fur trade and their villages became centers of trade goods distribution. By the early 19th century the Mandan were living in 9 separate villages in central Dakota. Nearby were the Hidatsa while to the south were the Arikara. It was at this time that smallpox began to take its toll of these village agriculturalists and after the 1837 epidemic only 125 Mandan, of a pre-19th century population of some 8,000, survived. These few merged with the Hidatsa and the Arikara.

### **Caddoan Speakers**

Caddoan speakers (the Wichita of central Kansas, the Pawnee of central Nebraska, the Arikara, a Pawnee offshoot on the Missouri in southern Dakota) were probably the original "Plains" Indians, being the descendants of farmers who settled the river valleys of the central Plains some 1000 years ago. Until about A.D. 1450 the Caddoan speakers lived in square earth lodges scattered in open villages along terraces and cultivated fields of maize, beans, squashes, and sunflowers on the river flood plains, as well as hunting bison and antelope, & taking fish from the rivers. Then for reasons as yet unclear, many villages were abandoned and the populations regrouped into larger, compact, often fortified towns of circular earth lodges in Nebraska & Kansas.

During the 17th & 18th centuries, the Pawnee & Wichita were periodically subjected to slave raids by various Native Nations. Urged and encouraged by the Spanish in the south and the British & French to the east, such Nations as the Apache & Comanche, the Quapaw, Osage, and other lower Missouri Nations captured Pawnee & Wichita and sold them to various European colonists. At the same time Siouan-speaking populations were moving into territory on the west side of the Missouri River. In response, the Wichita moved south to the present Oklahoma-Texas border and the Pawnee north to southern Nebraska. Several decades later the Pawnee reoccupied some of their former territory & began sending raiding parties into Mexico, as well as bison-hunting parties out onto the Plains. The Pawnee also brought European trade goods south into the agricultural villages of the Wichita, trading them for maize & tobacco. The Wichita, in turn, traded some of the European goods, as well as some of their agricultural surpluses and horses to western Plains nomads.

In the 1830s, the U.S. instituted the infamous Removal Policy toward the Native Nations of the Southeast. Among the groups that were to give up their homelands east of the Mississippi River and move west into Indian country were the Delaware, Shawnee, Sauk, & Mesquakie. To secure land for these Nations, the U.S. negotiated a treaty with the Pawnee under which they themselves were removed to the north side of the Platte River (although they were to be allowed to hunt south of the Platte). Once they were removed, the U.S. brought pressure on the Pawnee to give up their bison-hunting ways and become sedentary farmers, something which they consistently refused to do.

In 1874 the U.S. government forced the Pawnee to leave their ancestral lands in Nebraska (which had become very attractive to American farmers & homesteaders) and settle in Indian Territory in what would become Oklahoma. In a similar fashion, the Wichita were also forced from their ancestral homes and ended on a reservation in Oklahoma where they, and the Pawnee, were severely reduced in numbers by diseases & malnutrition, and were subjected to constant assaults on their culture by Indian Agents and various missionaries.

### **The Era of the Horse**

An enormous disruption of Native cultures occurred on the Plains after the coming of the Europeans and, later, the Americans. Drastic social & cultural changes were set in motion which eventually devastated the political, social, economic, & physical lives of all the Plains people, & brought to an end lifeways thousands of years in the making. Among the very earliest changes were those resulting from the introduction of the horse, which marked a major turning point in the region's cultural history. Many horticultural communities changed quickly & drastically from settled farmers to equestrian nomads, while some of the Plains gathering-hunting foot nomads, such as the Arapaho, Blackfeet, Nez Perce, Comanche, & some Shoshone & Apache, also took up the more productive mounted nomadism.

Long before the Europeans arrived, a pattern of well-established trade link nomadic & sedentary nations to each other all across the Plains. Nomadic nations traded dressed animal skins (deer, buffalo) & manufactured items (skin shirts, moccasins) to the farmers in exchange for corn, pumpkins, & the highly desirable tobacco plant, while almost all groups traded in such raw materials as Pacific dentalium shells (used for ornamentation), Montana steatite (used for carving), Yellowstone obsidian, Great Lakes copper, & Gulf Coast sea shells. And it was along these native trade routes that items of European manufacture began moving as early as the

17th century. And while all manner of weapons, tools, household utensils, articles of clothing, & trade cloth were in demand by the native people, the horse was the most important.

**Indian use of horses in North America** may have begun by 1630, when Spanish ranches were established in what is now New Mexico. By the beginning of the 18th century horses were in use among the Pawnee, Missouri, Oto, Kansa, Ponca, & Pawnee, and by the 1770s they were well into Canada. By the end of the 18th century, the Comanche had made horse raiding & trading an important occupation, yearly bringing the animals to rendezvous in the Black Hills of South Dakota where many Nations met to trade. As the horses were traded from group to group across the plains, knowledge of their proper care, harnesses, saddles, & other gear, accompanied them. Simultaneously, new ideas on social organization & rituals, information on political events, native manufactures & processed foods, & European manufactured items, including guns, also spread.



By adopting horses, the Plains foot nomads not only opened up the possibility of accumulating wealth but the horse became the key to a much higher standard of living. A family with horses could carry larger poles and covers for a house (tipi), more sacks of food, more changes of clothing & ceremonial regalia, more ritual paraphernalia, & heavy robes for bedding, & elders & small children could ride when camps moved. But it was the union of the gun & horse which radically alterned native habitation & lifestyles on the Plains. The horse increased the efficiency of the hunt: a hunter could kill far more animals, drive them greater distances, cover a much wider range of territory, threaten the hunting & territorial boundaries of other nations. The horse became the symbol & center of Plains nomadic life: people traded for them, raided for them, defined wealth in terms of them, and used them as preferred gifts at ceremonies. So thoroughly did the horse become apart of their lives that some Plains nomads denied there had ever been a time without horses.

But by their very presence, horses changed the ecology of the Great Plains, competing for grass with native animals, carrying with them in their excrement the seeds of European plants which thrived and out-competed native grasses, trampling & grazing the native grasses much more heavily than native animals, and harboring & passing on diseases previously unknown in North America, diseases which killed native species.

### **Defining Features**

**Languages** - Myriad languages were (many still are) spoken by Plains Nations.

Anthropologists group these languages (many were related but mutually unintelligible) into six language families:

- Algonkian, Athapaskan, Uto-Aztecan, Kiowan - represented among such nomadic western Plains Nations as the Cheyenne, Blackfoot, Plains Cree, Crow, Shoshone, Comanche, Kiowa



- Caddoan - represented among such sedentary eastern Nations as the Arikara, Pawnee, Wichita, Kitsai
- Siouan - represented among the nomadic "Sioux" of the western Plains and the farming Mandan, Hidatsa, & others of the eastern Plains

**Subsistence** - Up until the middle of the 17th century, few people dwelt year-round on the open grasslands of the Plains. Not only was the tough, thick root masses of the grasses there impossible to penetrate with digging sticks, but the winter winds & driving snow storms and often intense summer heat made life extremely difficult for most of the year. Also, until the arrival of the Spanish-introduced horse (in the middle of the 17th century), hunting bison anywhere on the Plains, except along its margins, was difficult for people who were on foot & possessed only their dogs to help carry meat, hides, tools, & shelter. Instead, it was the lush river bottoms of the major rivers that crossed the Plains that were occupied. Around 2000 years ago, sedentary agricultural people moved in from the east & settled in small villages along the rivers. Eventually their lifestyle came to rely significantly upon cultivated foods (maize, squash, sunflowers, & other plants) grown in fields along the river bottoms, although men seasonally left their villages to hunt (bison, deer, elk, turkey, prairie chicken) & women to gather wild plants.



Three basic types of groups, identified primarily on the basis of their subsistence & settlement patterns, inhabited the Great Plains at the time of first European contact:

**Nations of hunting & gathering origin** - Before acquiring the horse (which came to the Southwest with the Spanish, first appearing on the southern Plains around 350 years ago) Nations such as the Blackfoot, Plains Cree, Sarsi, & Assiniboiné, to name a few, were foot nomads living in loosely organized [bands](#) who seasonally moved out onto the plains to hunt buffalo. These Nations show no evidence of ever having been sedentary nor horticultural & were quick to incorporate the horse & become full-blown Horse Nomads.

**Nations whose origins were those of sedentary, village farmers who adopted a nomadic way of life as they moved onto the central Plains** - [Teton-Dakota](#) ("Sioux"), Cheyenne, & others. In less than 100 years these Nations shifted from being farmers to horse-mounted buffalo hunters & gatherers, gave up their lineage-clan structure & governmental systems, permanently altered their socio-economic orientations, & came to resemble in most respects those Nations of purely hunting & gathering origin.

Regardless of their origins, once the nomads acquired horses they came to resemble each other in many ways. All subsisted primarily on bison, lived in portable skin tipis, produced light & durable articles of skin, emphasized war & military societies, were usually bilateral in social organization & in kinship, & emphasized the Sun Dance as the major tribal ceremony. However, there were exceptions. The Cheyenne were matrilineal (reflecting their horticultural origins), the

Sun Dance was one of three important tribal ceremonies, & they were politically structured into a single cohesive [tribe](#).

**Nations of horticulturalists** - Mandan, Hidatsa, Arikara, Iowa, Oto, Missouria, & others. Predating the Nations listed above, these sedentary, village-dwelling, agriculturalists possessed elaborate material cultures, complex socio-political structures, & rich, complex ceremonial lives. Their earth lodge villages, with their fields of corn, beans, squash, melons, sunflowers, & pumpkins, dotted the river valleys of the Mississippi-Missouri River system. Women worked the agricultural fields, which were located in the river bottoms below the villages, an ideal location as the high water table aided in keeping the soil moist & soft (& thus easily worked soil), and the bluffs offered protection from the hot, dry summer winds & the late spring & early fall killing frosts. After cultivating a field for several years it was then allowed to lie fallow (rest) for a number of years. While the women, aided by children (& when seasonal activities required it, young men), tended the fields the men hunted (bison, elk, deer, smaller mammals), went on trading expeditions & served as warriors.

### **A Note on Buffalo Hunting**

Once when Old Man Coyote saw some buffalo, he wanted to eat them and tried to think of a scheme to do this. He approached the buffalo and said to them: "You buffalo are the most awkward of all animals -- your heads are heavy, your hairy legs are chopped off short & your bellies stick out like a big pot." The buffalo said to him, "We were made this way."

Old Man Coyote said to them: "I'll tell you what let's do -- we will run a race" -- and all went to the level place with a steep cut bank on one end. Old Man Coyote said to himself, "I will go and put my robe over the edge of the bank," and turning to the buffalo, he said "Just as we get to the place where my robe is we will all shut our eyes and see how far we can go with our eyes close." The race was started, and just before getting to the robe, all of the buffalo shut their eyes and jumped over the steep cut bank and were killed; and Old Man Coyote feasted off the dead buffalo. - A Story From the Apsáalooke (Crow) Nation Prior to the introduction of the horse & guns (& perhaps even afterwards) buffalo were hunted by driving them either to a cliff (where they were forced to jump to their death) or, more commonly, into a corral-like enclosure. These enclosures took advantage of features of the terrain, such as a box canyon, to contain the buffalo. Fanning out from both sides of the enclosure's mouth were "wings," or fences, which helped funnel the buffalo into the enclosure. These were built during late spring or early summer by a single band or by several bands of one Nation. Then during late fall, when the animals were at their prime after a summer's grazing, all members of the community (men, women, children, even old people) participated in the drive. A number of specialized personnel were also involved including a holy woman, a decoy runner (who enticed the lead buffalo toward the enclosure), & a religious specialist (to call the animals).

**Settlement Patterns** - The horticulturalists were fully sedentary, living in rather large, substantial



semisubterranean, earth-covered lodges located on bluffs, terraces or benches overlooking the river bottoms, usually at a point where two streams & or rivers joined. Mandan towns were formally laid out with streets & a central plaza, the focal point of the community where ceremonies were held & competitive games played. The Mandan earth lodge was circular and ranged in size from 40 to 80 feet in circumference. Four center posts held up a continuous series of horizontal cross beams over which were laid thick mattings of willow branches followed by layers of firmly packed earth. Frequently the tops of the earth lodges were flattened to provide a platform for drying crops as well as serving as a porch on hot evenings.

Among the foot-nomads (& later among the horse-nomads), their settlement pattern mirrored the buffalo's pattern of movement. In winter, when the great herds dispersed, tribal groups also broke up, and in summer, when the herds came together again, tribal groups reformed. In this way the most efficient hunting units were maintained. And until the arrival of the horse, material possessions were at a minimum and a family's house quite small.

**Political Organization** - Among the nomadic hunting bands, each band usually acknowledged the leadership of a man who had earned his "authority" through his personal influence & charismatic personality, his demonstration of superior hunting & leadership skills, his ability to organize people & make decisions his followers regarded favorably. However, the final say in decision making was often that of an older woman "whose strength of character & wisdom had become the rock upon which the families depended." Because men were often away (hunting, trading trips, raids), women were the mainstay of daily life & the arbiters of all that concerned the family.

The sedentary village nations had more formalized political organizations than the nomadic bands. Towns were structured on the basis of clans & lineages were the primary unit of cooperation. Each village, as well as confederations of allied towns, was managed by councils of representatives from the clans, chaired by men from lineages that traditionally produced leaders.

Some of the nomads who had once been sedentary farmers retained elements of their prior political structures. For example, the Cheyenne recognized themselves as a distinct nation under a supernaturally sanctioned ruling council of forty-four chiefs chosen for ten-year terms from among the older, most respected men. The Council deliberated all matters concerning the Cheyenne people as a whole, and expected that their decisions, reached in discussions to which the public might listen, would be obeyed by all Cheyenne.

**Social Organization** - The basic social among the foot nomads was the [band](#), ranging in size from 25 to 100 people, & composed of a group of kin-related (nuclear-extended) families, along with other non-kin related families who were attracted to the band either because of friendship with a family related to the band's leader or because of the band leader's reputation. Membership in the local band was fluid: families remained together as long as they were willing to follow the band leader, but should she or he prove unsatisfactory, or should one family quarrel with another, they were free to abandon one band and join another. When resources were abundant, several local bands might coalesce



to camp & hunt together. When resources were scarce, these larger units divided into smaller, autonomous groups who went their separate ways.

Among all of the sedentary village nations (such as the Mandan & Hidatsa), as well as among the nomadic Crow (related to the Hidatsa), the functioning economic unit was the [matrilineal or patrilineal extended family](#) (composed of several nuclear families related through the females). In Mandan & Hidatsa societies, descent was traced matrilineally, with residence after marriage with the family of the wife's mother & her unmarried & married sisters. This extended family (from 20 to 40+ persons) occupied an earth lodge and controlled, but did not own, the fields (land was not individually nor family owned, but was held by groups of related matrilineal extended families grouped into larger kin units anthropologists label as [lineages](#).) Extended families & lineages were grouped into larger, matrilineally organized, corporate kin-based groups (known as [clans](#) to anthropologists). Although clans were hierarchically ranked, the ranking was informal & based on the size & ritual importance of the matriline. Clans served a number of functions including marriage regulation (exogamy - or marrying outside one's clan was mandatory), as mutual-aid societies, various roles in religious ceremonies, & as caretakers of sacred bundles.

**Religion** - Although the agricultural nations had a ritual & belief system largely oriented to an agricultural cycle while it was the buffalo & its regeneration that played a major role in the hunting nations' ritual & belief systems, there were certain religious elements common to all Plains nations, including:

- guardian spirit
- vision quest
- shamanism
- sacred medicine bundles
- community-wide / nationwide ceremonials

Underlying all ritual activity was the belief that a person needed a **guardian spirit**, a supernatural power being (or beings) who gave an individual special songs, prayers, & symbols which could be used in a time of crisis or great need, and would afford protection from evil or death. Among the nomadic nations, a guardian spirit usually appeared to an individual during a solitary **vision quest**, when he or she ventured out alone, far from home, and fasted & prayed until receiving supernatural instructions from a guardian spirit. It was such visions that formed the underpinnings for the interpretation of supernatural beliefs & cosmology, & great symbolic weight was assigned to the interpretations of these visions (this is made abundantly clear in the novel *Fools Crow*). Frequently, shamans assisted in the interpretation of a person's dream/vision, although among many Nations it was the emphasis on individuality & the individual's interpretations of supernatural signs that was a characteristic feature of Plains vision quest ideology.

Among both the nomads and the town dwellers, the focus of many rituals were **sacred ("medicine") bundles**. Each bundle was associated with a detailed mythology, & each functioned for the tribal good in some way. Some of them, & their associated rituals, were quite specialized

and pertained to a specific activity (fishing, eagle trapping, etc.), while others were more generalized (curing, fertility, crops, control of weather). Each bundle contained a variety of items including preserved skins of small animals & birds, parts of bison horns, eagle feathers (each symbolizing the spirit that took the form of that creature to communicate with humans) as well as seeds & other plant parts (symbolizing life & the seasons). But the most potent objects were pipes, the medium by which tobacco was transformed into the incense that rose to the spirit realm & carried the prayers of the people (many of the pipes were carved from a soft, red catlinite stone quarried near the surface in southwestern Minnesota & traded widely). All of these holy objects were wrapped up in layers of hides & cloth & ceremoniously opened only when an individual or a group wished to gain spiritual power or blessings in a time of need. And among some Nations, medicine bundles were privately owned and could be transferred or sold.

**Shamanism** existed in most Plains Nations with the shaman filling an important position. He (among some Nations, such as the Teton Dakota, women could be shamans) was not only the direct intermediary between humans & the supernatural world, as well as an interpreter of that world, but he also functioned as healer & curer. Most Plains people believed that illness was due to supernatural causes (such as malevolent spirits or the malevolent use of supernatural power by a shaman-sorcerer). Since the shaman could manipulate the supernatural it was possible for him to cure.

Shamanic curing centered around a ceremony in which the shaman called upon his helper spirit(s) for helping diagnose the patient's illness. During the diagnosing phase, the shaman often smoked tobacco, performed songs & dances (which were his personal property) and burned sage & sweet grass (their aroma was pleasing to supernatural beings). Once the source & location of the illness were located, the shaman effected a cure by various means. If the illness was the result of a foreign object having been injected into the patient (by a malevolent being or sorcerer), then the patient was given either a purgative or cathartic to expel the foreign object. Shamans were also sought out to provide spiritual guidance, protection in war, relief from economic & social stress, and even locating lost objects or individuals.

While shamans were certainly important for their role in curing, among some Plains nation (such as the Blackfeet), curing & healing were not the sole province of the shaman. Instead, various **religious societies** were primarily responsible for healing & curing. Furthermore, shamanistic knowledge or experience was not always necessary for curing. Most adult women knew which plants were useful for curing and collected and stored them for use in treating a wide range of common ailments such as headaches, fevers, coughs, diarrhea, to name a few.

While many ritual activities were carried out by an individual (the vision quest), or by a religious specialist, or members of religious societies, throughout the Plains many rituals were carried out by kin-based groups as well as by entire communities or collections of communities. For example, among the Mandan, the most important community-wide ceremony was the annually held Okipa ceremony, offered to insure the welfare of the people. Over a four-day period, a series of progressive rituals were performed which dramatically reenacted the creation of the earth, its people, animals, & plants, as well as telling the history of the Mandan's struggles to attain their present position.

But of all the community-wide ceremonies, the most widespread (and for most of the nomads the most significant ritual) was the Sun Dance. Although exhibiting considerable variability between Nations, the Sun Dance is/was the major ceremony drawing thousands of persons into

summer encampments. The purpose & focus varied from nation to nation: for some, it was a dance of vengeance for death; for others, a prayer for fertility; and for still others it was the enactment of a bond between the individual & the universe and its performance brought benefits to the individual as well as unification to the nation. And among some nations, such as the Cheyenne, it was an earth-renewal ceremony.

### Shelter

Buffalo was the main source of the Plain Indian's food as it provides them with flesh and clothing! Because buffalos never stay still (they migrate), the Plain Indians always have to be on the move to stalk and hunt down their prey. The Plain Indians were nomads - they do not have a fixed house address like you do. They have to follow wherever the buffalos went - so they needed a type of shelter that can be built fast and can be easily taken down if needed. A shelter that will stay warm during the winter and cool in the summer. Overall, a convenient and comfortable shelter. I'm sure you all have one! They called it the tepee (Tipi), built from many layers of buffalo skin and long wooden poles. Three to four families (eight-ten people) have to be crowded in tepee, making it filthy for cooking, eating and sleeping!

These teepees were warm in the winter and cool in the summer. During the winter, **fire** is lit inside to keep the Plain Indians warm. At the same time, they would cook food too! To allow the smoke to pass through (so that they won't die!) a hole is poked through the top of the tepee. They would decorate their shelter with paintings of animals, sometimes with beads and feathers. Most paintings are religiously symbolic.

When Plain Indians follow along, their horses carry the long wooden poles behind their **shoulder**. The horses also carry



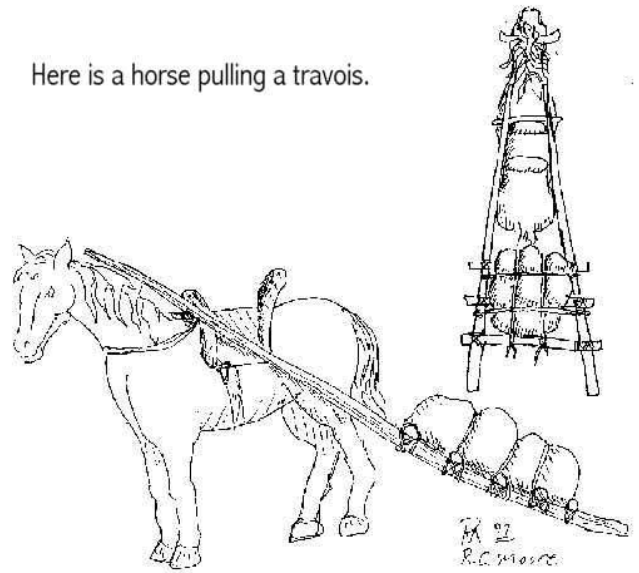
buffalos move, the Indians follow with the help of horses. The wooden poles of the teepee are dragged behind the **horse's** shoulder. The horses would also carry their belongings. A

small frame or net (travois) is located in the middle of the poles to carry people.  
The tribes that were not nomads would live in dome-shaped lodges made of earth or grass.

## Teacher Supplement: HOW TO MAKE A TEEPEE

By Janet Veverka, eHow Contributor

Here is a horse pulling a travois.




Tepees, like forts, are popular play items that help kids use their imaginations. Retail stores sell packages with ready-to-build sets for prices of up to \$500, but you can make a version that will make your children equally happy by using things from around the house. The construction [is](#) simple, and the entire process takes less than 20 minutes to complete. Best of all, your children can participate in both the construction and decoration of their new hangout. [Does this Spark an idea?](#)

### Things You'll Need

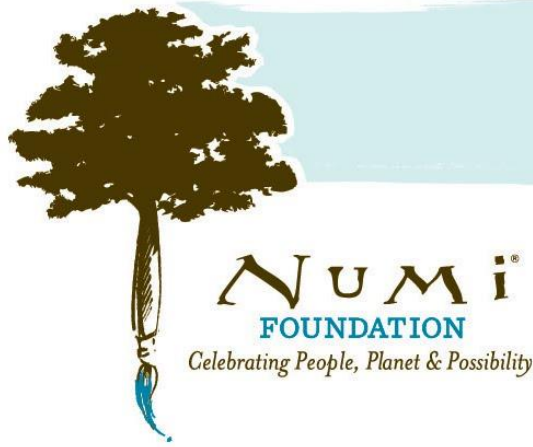
- Sheet or lightweight blanket
- 4 long sticks, broom handles or mop handles
- String or rope

### Instructions

- Choose the tepee material. You can use an old sheet or a lightweight blanket. It should be mostly square in shape (twin size sheets do not work well), or you can fold a large rectangular sheet or blanket in half. Choose something that you will not mind cutting.
- Find 4 posts. Rather than searching through the woods to find long sticks, you can choose items from your house [is](#), such as brooms and mops. Paint roller extenders also work well. When using these items, keep the broom or mop head at the bottom. Some cleaning tools can be unscrewed from their handles.
- Build your frame, starting at the top. Tie the tops of the posts together with a string or rope. Wrap the string or rope around the outside of the posts, as well as weaving in between each post several times. Tie the string or rope tight enough to hold the posts firmly. You can cut the string or rope later to pull the tepee apart.

- Separate the bottoms of the post legs to create a square about 3 feet long on each side.
- Cover your frame by tossing the blanket or sheet over the posts. Align the corners of the blanket or sheet with the post legs.
- Cut a circle in the sheet or blanket at the top of the tepee to fit the tied post ends through. Start cutting just above where the rope or string connects the posts. Cut horizontally around until you reach where you began. Pull the fabric down to allow the posts to stick out.
- Attach the fabric to the bottoms of the posts. Place a rubber band (or string) around the post and the fabric. This will help keep the cover taut.
- Cut a door in one of the four sides of your tepee. Start at the center of the fabric at the bottom of the tepee. Cut upward, going in a straight line about 3/4 of the way up the tepee.
- Decorate the tepee. Have your children  help you decorate the outside with stickers or, if you are daring, paints.
- Read more:

[http://www.ehow.com/how\\_5659376\\_make-kids-teepee.html#ixzz2XvmA6v6Y](http://www.ehow.com/how_5659376_make-kids-teepee.html#ixzz2XvmA6v6Y)



## Woodland Peoples East of the Mississippi River-I

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Discussion
- Drawing

### MATERIAL

- Bean Bag or small bag
- Journals
- Drawing pencils
- Map

### Preparation:

- Have students form a circle with hands behind their backs. Send one child outside the door or hiding in the room.
- Give a beanbag or other small object to the first child to pass behind their backs around the room.
- Let this go on for a minute or two and then have them stop. The student with the beanbag behind their back continues to hold the bag.

- The remaining students act as if they are hiding the fact that they are holding the bag.
- Invite the student back to the group and have the student guess who is holding the bag.
- If this goes quickly, have a second or third round and then stop to begin work.
- Teacher leads a discussion of the Woodland Peoples east of the Mississippi.
- Describe the geography and climate where the Eastern Woodlands Native people lived. Show map.
- How did the geography and climate influence their lives?
- How did they live in the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how did they obtain food, clothing, tools, and utensils? Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions. Explain their varied economies and systems of government.
- Show a picture of Eastern Woodland Native peoples shelter (wigwams, longhouses) Ask the students to describe what they know or think the geography and climate might be. (Refer to Teacher Supplement)
- Explain what the climate of the Eastern Woodlands is and ask how this might affect the people living there.
- In their journals or books, ask the students to draw a picture of shelters in the Eastern Woodlands with detailed background of ground, plants and sky.
- Class Finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**





## Woodland Peoples East of the Mississippi River-II

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Building wigwams

### MATERIAL

- Sticks
- Raffi and other materials necessary to build wigwams

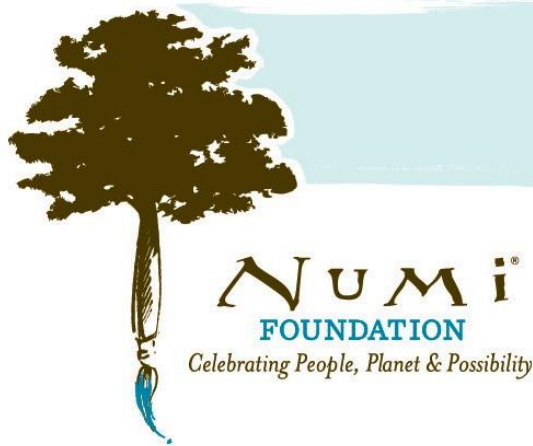
### Preparation:

- Prepare a list of things starting with, Sit down if....
  - you have brushed your teeth today.
  - you are wearing green.
  - you are hungry.
  - you like avacadoes.
  - you hate ice-creams.
  - You are born in July.
  - you are the youngest child.
  - you can speak two languages.
  - you have green eyes.
  - you have brown hair.

Make the whole class stand. Read out these lines one by one. The game is over when only one student is left standing.

- Compare the Native groups studied-- the cliff dwellers and pueblo people of the desert Southwest, the American Indians of the Pacific Northwest, the nomadic nations of the Great Plains, and the woodland peoples east of the Mississippi River. A game might be made by dividing the class into the Native American groups and asking a question such as, "Which group had houses made of adobe clay?" "Which group first used horses?"
- Then, review shelters of the Eastern Woodlands.. Show drawings or photos.
- Divide the class into working groups. Build wigwam shelters on bases so they may be moved.
- In the remaining moments, have the students look at each other's work and write in their journals how it felt to create a Eastern Woodlands shelter and what it might have felt for a child to help the family to build their home.
- Class Finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**



## Woodland Peoples East of the Mississippi River-III

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Building wigwams

### Preparation:

- Class forms a circle, looking down with no eye contact.
- One person at a time, but in no preplanned order or pattern, the group needs to count from one to ten.
- If two people speak at once, they have to start over.
- If you get past ten... see how high you can go!
- Write the following on the board for the class to see:
  - o Describe how geography and climate influenced the way the Native People of the Eastern Woodlands lived and adjusted to the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils.
  - o .Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions.
  - o Explain their varied economies and systems of government. (The teacher may choose to assign this for homework)
- When finished, the students should answer this question in their journals: What group of Native Americans we've studied would you most want to be a member and why?  
When finished, the children share their answers.

- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: EASTERN WOODLANDS INDIANS

### **The Many Tribes of the Eastern Woodlands Indians**

Located east of the Mississippi River, the Woodland People or Eastern Woodlands Indians represents a large culture group of indigenous people stretching from Florida to Maine. Their name originates from the fact that they dwelled in the forest and used their natural environment to meet all their needs.

The Woodland People represent many tribes, with the most well known being the [Iroquois Nation](#) living in the New York area and consisting of the Mohawk, Seneca, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga and Tuscarora tribes. The Iroquoians spoke the same language other tribes of the Woodland People belong to the eastern or central [Algonquian tribes](#).

The Nations People were hard working men, women and children though they lived near the forest their homes were also based near lakes and streams giving them an abundant access to food. The Iroquois believed that no one in their village should do without and all resources including food were shared among the entire village.

Several clans existed in each tribe, and each tribe was led by a woman known as the clan mother. Clan mothers had a lot of power and were solely responsible for choosing a group of male council members to lead the tribe. The clan mother also gave the council members advice and suggestions before each meeting.

The Eastern Woodlands Indians lived in several different types of homes but the most abundantly used were [longhouses](#). These long rectangular homes were massive structures, typically measuring around 200 feet long. Each longhouse could hold several families and was covered with sheets of bark to help protect their homes.

[Wigwams](#) were another type of dwelling. These round wooden structures were made in a circular pattern but like longhouses used young trees that were easily flexible. Bark and grass covered the tops of their homes to protect the structure from bad weather.

The Iroquois mostly farmed and hunted for their livelihoods. Women and children planted seeds for corn, lima beans and squash and tended to the farmland while the men hunted for bear, bison, rabbit, moose and deer. The Eastern people made their own rakes and spades using wood to help cultivate their farms. Men would teach the boys how to hunt and [catch fish](#). Their diets also included eggs, nuts and wild fruits gathered by the women, as well as maple syrup a popular sweet treat.

## EASTERN WOODLAND CULTURE

The Indians in the Eastern Woodland Culture lived east of the Plains Indians. At that time much of the land between the Mississippi River and the east coast was covered with forest. These Indians, like the Indians of the other cultures depended on the natural resources around them for all of their basic needs. Because these Indians lived in the forests, they were called the Eastern Woodland Indians. Their food, shelter, clothing, weapons, and tools came from the forests around them. They lived in villages near a lake or stream. There were many diverse groups within the Eastern Woodland People. The most well known were the Iroquois, and the Cherokee nations.



### IROQUOIS

The Iroquois Indians lived in the Northeastern part of the Woodland Culture. Today we call this part of our country New York. The Iroquois Indians were actually a "nation" of Indians made up of 5 tribes. These tribes were the Senecas, Onondagas, Oneidas, and Mohawks. These tribes were hostile, or war-like, to each other until they joined together to become the "League of the Five Nations". Even after the forming of this nation there was still some fighting among the 5 tribes.

The Iroquois Indians lived in wigwams and longhouses. Wigwams were made by bending young trees to form the round shape of the home. Over this shape pieces of tree bark were overlapped to protect the Indians from bad weather. Over the bark a layer of thatch, or dried grass, was added. A small hole from the top allowed smoke from the fires to escape. Beds were matting covered with animal skin.



Longhouses were long rectangular homes. Longhouses were made by building a frame from saplings, or young trees. They were then covered with bark sewn together. There was a long hallway with rooms on both sides. Sleeping platforms, covered with deerskin, lined each wall. There were also shelves for storing baskets, pots, and other things. Several families would live in the long house, but the families were related to each other. The Iroquois built log walls all around their villages. The wall had only one opening. They could quickly close this opening if their enemies came near.





The Iroquois found their food by hunting, fishing, and gathering berries, fruits, and nuts. They also cleared the land and planted large fields of corn, beans, and squash which Native Americans called “the three sisters.” The Iroquois used a bow and arrow to hunt. They would sometimes wear the skin of a deer over their body to sneak up to the deer.

### The Cherokee



The Cherokee lived mainly in what is now Tennessee and Georgia. Like the Iroquois, the Cherokee depended on their natural resources for survival. They lived in about 200 fairly large villages. A normal Cherokee town had about 30 - 60 houses and a large meeting building. Cherokee homes were usually wattle and daub. Wattle is twigs, branches, and stalks woven together to make a frame for a building. Daub is a sticky substance like mud or clay. The Cherokee covered the wattle frame with daub. This created the look of an upside down basket. Later, log cabins with bark roofs were used for homes. The Cherokee villages also had fences around them to prevent enemies from entering.

Like the Iroquois, the Cherokee also hunted small game such as deer, rabbit, and bear. Since their villages were usually near streams or lakes, they also fished using spears and nets. Berries, nuts, and wild plants were important forms of food for the Cherokee. The Cherokee were considered to be excellent farmers. They had large farms which grew corns, beans, and squash.

### Eastern Woodland Culture



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## IRIQUOIS NATION

The Iroquois Nation or Iroquois Confederacy (Haudenosaunee) was a powerful and unique gathering of [Native American](#) tribes that lived prior to the arrival of Europeans in the area around [New York State](#). In many ways, the constitution that bound them together, The Great Binding Law, was a precursor to the American Constitution. It was received by the spiritual leader, Deganawida (The Great Peacemaker), assisted by the [Mohawk](#) leader, [Hiawatha](#) five tribes came together. These were the [Cayuga](#), Mohawk, [Oneida](#), [Onondaga](#), and [Seneca](#). Later, the [Tuscarora](#) joined and this group of six tribes united together under one law and a common council.

For many years the Iroquois maintained their autonomy, battling the French who were allied with the [Huron](#), enemy of the Iroquois. Generally siding with the British, a schism developed during the [American Revolutionary War](#) when the Oneida and Tuscarora supported the Americans. After the American victory, [Joseph Brant](#) and a group of Iroquois left and settled in [Canada](#) on land given them by the British. Many of the Oneida, Onondaga, Seneca, and Tuscarora stayed in New York, settling on reservations where they continue to live, and many Oneida moved to a reservation in [Wisconsin](#). Although separated geographically, the Iroquois culture and traditions are preserved in these locations.

### Introduction

The word Iroquois has two potential origins. First, the Haudenosaunee often ended their oratory with the phrase "hiro kone"; "hiro" which translates as "I have spoken," "kone" which can be translated several ways, the most common being "in joy," "in sorrow," or "in truth."<sup>[1]</sup> "Hiro kone" to the French encountering the Haudenosaunee would sound like "Iroquois," pronounced iʁokwa in French. An alternate possible origin of the name Iroquois is reputed to come from a French version of a [Huron](#) (Wyandot) name—considered an insult—meaning "Black Snakes." The Iroquois were enemies of the Huron and the [Algonquin](#), who were allied with the French, due to their rivalry in the [fur](#) trade.

The Iroquois Confederacy (also known as the "League of Peace and Power"; the "Five Nations"; the "Six Nations"; or the "People of the [Long house](#)") is a group of First Nations/[Native Americans](#) that originally consisted of five [tribes](#): the [Mohawk](#), the [Oneida](#), the [Onondaga](#), the [Cayuga](#), and the [Seneca](#). A sixth tribe, the [Tuscarora](#), joined after the original five nations were formed. The original five tribes united between 1450 and 1600 by two spiritual leaders, [Hiawatha](#) and Deganawida who sought to unite the tribes under a doctrine of peace. The Iroquois sided with the British during the [American Revolution](#).



Haudenosaunee [flag](#), representing the original five nations that were united by the Peacemaker. The tree symbol in the center represents an Eastern White Pine, the needles of which are clustered in groups of five.<sup>[2]</sup> The flag is based on the "[Hiawatha](#) Wampum Belt ...

created from purple and white wampum beads centuries ago to symbolize the union forged when the former enemies buried their weapons under the Great Tree of Peace."<sup>[3]</sup>

The combined leadership of the Nations is known as the Haudenosaunee. It should be noted that "Haudenosaunee" is the term that the people use to refer to themselves. Haudenosaunee means "People of the [Long House](#)." The term is said to have been introduced by The Great Peacemaker at the time of the formation of the Confederacy. It implies that the Nations of the confederacy should live together as families in the same long house. Symbolically, the Seneca were the guardians of the western door of the "tribal long house," and the Mohawk were the guardians of the eastern door.

At the time that Europeans first arrived in North America, the Confederacy was based in what is now the northeastern [United States](#) and southern [Canada](#), including [New England](#), Upstate New York, and [Pennsylvania](#), [Ontario](#), and [Quebec](#). After the [American Revolutionary War](#) most of the Iroquois moved to Canada where they were given land by the British.

The Iroquois nations' political union and [democratic](#) government has been credited by some] as one of the influences on the [United States Constitution](#).<sup>[4]</sup> However, that theory has fallen into disfavor among many historians, and is regarded by others as [mythology](#):

The voluminous records we have for the constitutional debates of the late 1780s contain no significant references to the Iroquois.<sup>[5]</sup>

The Iroquois probably held some sway over the thinking of the Framers and the development of the U.S. Constitution and the development of American democracy, albeit perhaps indirectly or even subconsciously... However, the opposition is probably also correct. The Iroquois influence is not as great as [some historians] would like it to be, the framers simply did not revere or even understand much of Iroquois culture, and their influences were European or classical - not wholly New World.<sup>[6]</sup>



Iroquois, in Buffalo, [New York](#), 1914.

## **History**

### **Early History**

### **Did you know?**

Five tribes formed the original Iroquois Confederacy, which had a constitution known as the Gayanashagowa (or "Great Law of Peace") memorized with the help of special beads called [wampum](#)

The Iroquois Confederacy was established prior to major European contact, complete with a constitution known as the Gayanashagowa (or "Great Law of Peace") with the help of a memory device in the form of special beads called [wampum](#) that have inherent spiritual value (wampum has been inaccurately compared to money in other [cultures](#)). Most [anthropologists](#) have traditionally speculated that this constitution was created between the middle 1400s and early 1600s. However, recent [archaeological](#) studies have suggested the accuracy of the account found in [oral tradition](#), which argues that the federation was formed around August 31, 1142 based on a coinciding [solar eclipse](#).<sup>[7]</sup>

The two spiritual leaders, Ayonwentah (generally called [Hiawatha](#) due to the [Longfellow](#) poem) and "Deganawidah, The Great Peacemaker," brought a message of peace to squabbling tribes. The tribes who joined the League were the [Seneca](#), [Onondaga](#), [Oneida](#), [Cayuga](#) and [Mohawks](#). Once they ceased most infighting, they rapidly became one of the strongest forces in seventeenth and eighteenth century northeastern North America.

According to legend, an evil Onondaga chieftain named Tadadaho was the last to be converted to the ways of peace by The Great Peacemaker and Ayonwentah, and became the spiritual leader of the Haudenosaunee. This event is said to have occurred at Onondaga Lake near Syracuse, New York. The title **Tadadaho** is still used for the league's spiritual leader, the fiftieth chief, who sits with the Onondaga in council, but is the only one of the fifty chosen by the entire Haudenosaunee people.

The League engaged in a series of wars against the French and their Iroquoian-speaking [Wyandot \("Huron"\)](#) allies. They also put great pressure on the Algonquian peoples of the Atlantic coast and what is now boreal [Canadian Shield](#) region of [Canada](#) and not infrequently fought the English colonies as well. During the seventeenth century, they are also credited with having conquered and/or absorbed the Neutral Indians and Erie Tribe to the west as a way of controlling the fur trade, even though other reasons are often given for these wars. By 1677, the Iroquois formed an alliance with the [English](#) through an agreement known as the Covenant Chain. Together, they battled the [French](#), who were allied with the [Huron](#), another [Iroquoian](#) people but a historic foe of the Confederacy.

The Iroquois were at the height of their power in the seventeenth century, with a population of about twelve thousand people. League traditions allowed for the dead to be symbolically replaced through the "Mourning War," raids intended to seize captives to replace lost compatriots and take vengeance on non-members. This tradition was common to native people of the northeast and was quite different from European settlers' notions of combat.



Four Mohawk Kings painted by Jan Verelst, 1710. From left to right: Etow Oh Koam, Sa Ga Yeath Qua Pieth Tow, Ho Nee Yeath Taw No Row and Tee Yee Ho Ga Row. (National Archives of Canada - Artist: Jan Verelst C-092421, C-092419, C-092417, C-092415)

Four delegates of the Iroquoian Confederacy, the "Indian Kings," traveled to [London, England](#), in 1710 to meet [Queen Anne](#) in an effort to cement an alliance with the British. Queen Anne was so impressed by her visitors that she commissioned their portraits by court painter John Verelst. The portraits are believed to be some of the earliest surviving oil portraits of [Native American](#) peoples taken from life.<sup>[8]</sup>

## Principles of the Peace Constitution

Originally the principal object of the council was to raise up sachems, or chiefs, to fill vacancies in the ranks of the ruling body occasioned by death or deposition; but it transacted all other business which concerned the common welfare. Eventually the council fell into three kinds of ceremonies, which may be distinguished as Civil, Mourning, and Religious.

The first declared war and made peace, sent and received embassies, entered into treaties with foreign tribes, regulated the affairs of subjugated tribes, as well as other general welfare issues. The second raised up sachems and invested them with office, termed the Mourning Council (Henundonuhseh) because the first of its ceremonies was the lament for the deceased ruler whose vacant place was to be filled. The third was held for the observance of a general religious festival, as an occasion for the confederated tribes to united under the auspices of a general council in the observance of common religious rites. But as the Mourning Council was attended with many of the same ceremonies it came, in time, to answer for both. It became the only council they held when the civil powers of the confederacy terminated with the supremacy over them of the state.

### Member nations

The first five nations listed below formed the original Five Nations (listed from west to north); the Tuscarora became the sixth nation in 1720, when they fled north from the British colonization of [North Carolina](#) and petitioned to become the Sixth Nation. This is a non-voting position, but places them under the protection of the Confederacy.

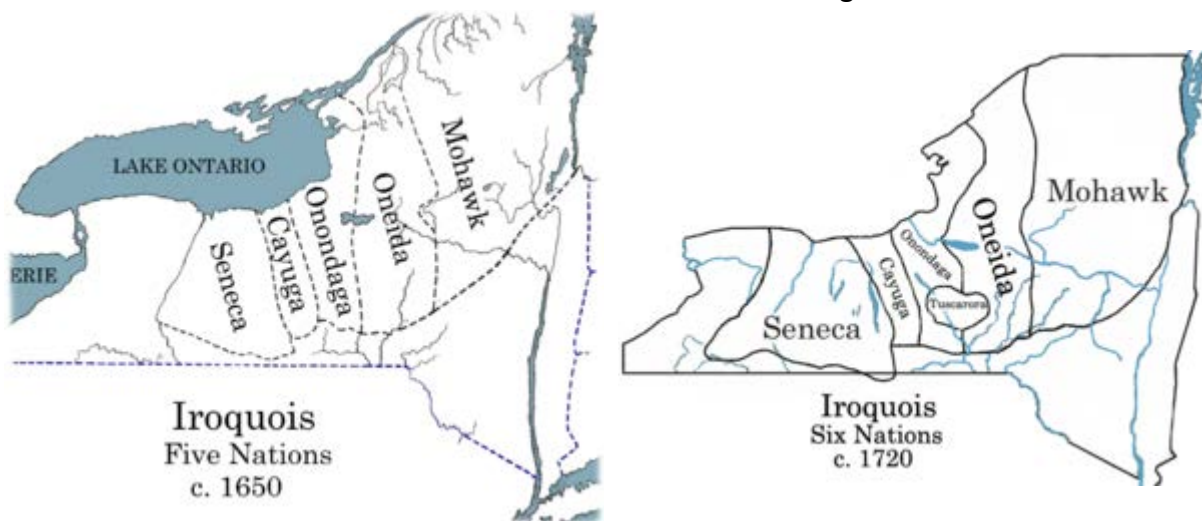
English	Iroquoian	Meaning	17th/18th century location
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<a href="#">Seneca</a>	Onondowahgah	"People of the Great Hill"	Seneca Lake and Genesee River
<a href="#">Cayuga</a>	Guyohkohnyoh	"People of the Great Swamp"	Cayuga Lake
<a href="#">Onondaga</a>	Onundagaono	"People of the Hills"	Onondaga Lake
<a href="#">Oneida</a>	Onayotekaono	"People of Upright Stone"	Oneida Lake
<a href="#">Mohawk</a>	Kanienkéhaka	"People of the Flint"	Mohawk River
<a href="#">Tuscarora</a> <sup>1</sup>	Ska-Ruh-Reh	"Shirt-Wearing People"	From <a href="#">North Carolina</a> <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Not one of the original Five Nations; joined 1720.

<sup>2</sup> Settled between Oneidas and Onondagas.



## **Eighteenth century**

During the [French and Indian War](#), the Iroquois sided with the British against the French and their [Algonquin](#) allies, both traditional enemies of the Iroquois. The Iroquois hoped that aiding the British would also bring favors after the war. Practically, few Iroquois joined the fighting and the Battle of Lake George found a group of Mohawk and French ambush a Mohawk-led British column. The British government issued the Royal Proclamation of 1763 after the war, which restricted white settlement beyond the Appalachians, but this was largely ignored by the settlers and local governments.

During the [American Revolution](#), many Tuscarora and the Oneida sided with the Americans, while the Mohawk, Seneca, Onondaga, and Cayuga remained loyal to Great Britain. This marked the first major split among the Six Nations. After a series of successful operations against frontier settlements, led by the Mohawk leader [Joseph Brant](#) and his British allies, the [United States](#) reacted with vengeance. In 1779, [George Washington](#) ordered Col. Daniel Brodhead and General John Sullivan to lead expeditions against the Iroquois nations to "not merely overrun, but destroy," the British-Indian alliance. The campaign successfully ended the ability of the British and Iroquois to mount any further significant attacks on American settlements.

In 1794, the Confederacy entered into the Treaty of Canandaigua with the United States. After the [American Revolutionary War](#), Captain Joseph Brant and a group of Iroquois left [New York](#) to

settle in [Canada](#). As a reward for their loyalty to the English Crown, they were given a large land grant on the Grand River. Brant's crossing of the river gave the original name to the area: Brant's Ford. By 1847, European settlers began to settle nearby and named the village Brantford, Ontario. The original Mohawk settlement was on the south edge of the present day city at a location favorable for landing canoes. Prior to this land grant, Iroquois settlements did exist in that same area and elsewhere in southern Ontario, extending further north and east (from Lake Ontario eastwards into Quebec around present-day Montreal). Extensive fighting with Huron meant the continuous shifting of territory in southern Ontario between the two groups long before European influences were present.

## **Culture**

### **Government**



Mohawk leader John Smoke Johnson (right) with John Tutela, and Young Warner, two other Six Nations [War of 1812](#) veterans.

The Iroquois have a representative government known as the Grand Council. Each tribe sends chiefs to act as representatives and make decisions for the whole nation. The number of chiefs has never changed.

- 14 Onondaga
- 10 Cayuga
- 9 Oneida
- 9 Mohawk
- 8 Seneca
- 0 Tuscarora

### **Haudenosaunee clans**

Within each of the six nations, people are divided into a number of [matrilineal](#) clans. Each clan is distinguished by its association with a different animal. Men wore feathered hats, called gustoweh, of the style of his mother's tribe. A gustoweh consists of a dome formed from wood used for making baskets, often ash, and covered with [turkey](#) feathers. Sockets are constructed to hold upright and side (laying down) eagle feathers, with each tribe having a different number and arrangement of these feathers. Thus, Mohawk three upright feathers; Oneida have two upright feathers and the third for a side feather; the Onondaga have one upright and one side feather; the Cayuga gustoweh has one feather at a forty-five degree angle; Seneca have one upright feather; and the Tuscarora have just the wing and body feathers with no eagle feathers.<sup>[9]</sup> The number of clans varies by nation, currently from three to eight, with a total of nine different clan names.

### Current clans

Seneca	Cayuga	Onondaga	Tuscarora	Oneida	Mohawk
Wolf	Wolf	Wolf	Wolf	Wolf	Wolf
<a href="#">Bear</a>	Bear	Bear	Bear	Bear	Bear
<a href="#">Turtle</a>	Turtle	Turtle	Turtle	Turtle	Turtle
Snipe	Snipe	Snipe	Snipe	—	Snipe
<a href="#">Deer</a>	—	Deer	Deer	—	—
<a href="#">Beaver</a>	—	Beaver	Beaver	—	—
<a href="#">Heron</a>	Heron	Heron	—	—	—
<a href="#">Hawk</a>	—	Hawk	—	—	—
—	—	<a href="#">Eel</a>	Eel	—	—

### Economy

Iroquois women at work grinding corn or dried berries (1664 engraving).

The **economy of the Iroquois** originally focused on communal production and combined elements of both horticulture and [hunter-gatherer](#) systems. The Iroquois people were predominantly agricultural, harvesting the "Three Sisters" commonly grown by [Native American](#) groups: [maize](#), [beans](#), and [squash](#). They developed certain cultural customs related to their lifestyle. Among these developments were ideas concerning the nature and management of property.



The Iroquois developed a system of economics very different from the now dominant Western variety. This system was characterized by such components as communal land ownership, [division of labor](#) by gender, and trade mostly based on [gift economics](#).

The structure of the traditional Iroquois economy created a unique property and work ethic. The threat of [theft](#) was almost nonexistent, since little was held by the individual except basic tools and implements that were so prevalent they had little value. The only goods worth stealing would have been [wampum](#). A theft-free society can be respected by all, communal systems such as that of the Iroquois are often criticized for not providing

any incentive to work. In order for the Iroquois to succeed without an individual incentive, they had to develop a communal work ethic. Virtue became synonymous with productivity. The idealized Iroquois man was a good warrior and productive hunter while the perfect woman excelled in agriculture and housekeeping.<sup>[10]</sup> By emphasizing an individual's usefulness to society, the Iroquois created a mindset that encouraged their members to contribute even though they received similar benefits no matter how hard they worked.

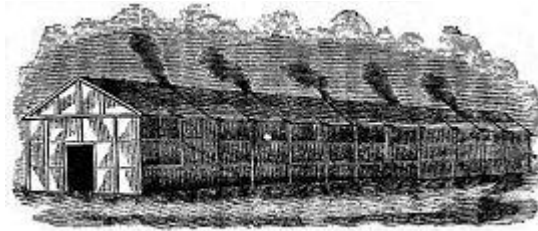
As a result of their communal system, some would expect the Iroquois to have a culture of dependence without individuality. The Iroquois, however, had a strong tradition of autonomous responsibility. Iroquois men were taught to be self-disciplined, self-reliant, and responsible as well as stoic.<sup>[11]</sup> The Iroquois attempted to eliminate any feelings of dependency during childhood and foster a desire for responsibility. At the same time, the child would have to



participate in a communal culture, so children were taught to think as individuals but work for the community.<sup>[11]</sup>

Contact with Europeans in the early 1600s had a profound impact on the economy of the Iroquois. At first, they became important trading partners, but the expansion of European settlement upset the balance of the Iroquois economy. By 1800 the Iroquois had been confined to [reservations](#), and they had to adapt their traditional economic system. In the twentieth century, some of the Iroquois groups took advantage of their independent status on the reservation and started Indian casinos. Other Iroquois have incorporated themselves directly into the outside economies off the reservation.

### **Land ownership**



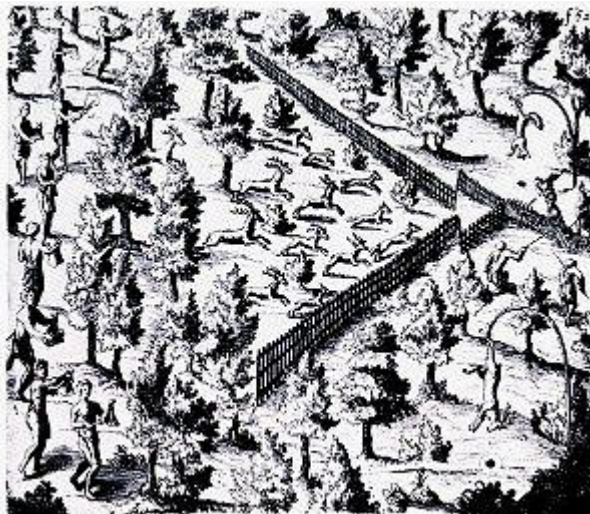
Long House of the Iroquois. (Bureau of Ethnology.)

Latter-day Iroquois longhouse housing several hundred people.

The Iroquois had an essentially communal system of land distribution. The tribe owned all lands but gave out tracts to the different clans for further distribution among households for cultivation. The land would be redistributed among the households every few years, and a clan could request a redistribution of tracts when the Clan Mothers' Council gathered.<sup>[10]</sup> Those clans that abused their allocated land or otherwise did not take care of it would be warned and eventually punished by the Clan Mothers' Council by having the land redistributed to another clan.<sup>[12]</sup> Land property was really only the concern of the women, since it was the women's job to cultivate food and not the men's.<sup>[10]</sup>

The Clan Mothers' Council also reserved certain areas of land to be worked by the women of all the different clans. Food from such lands, called *kěndiġ'gwā'ge' hodi'yě'n'tho*, would be used at festivals and large council gatherings.<sup>[12]</sup>

### **Division of labor: agriculture and forestry**

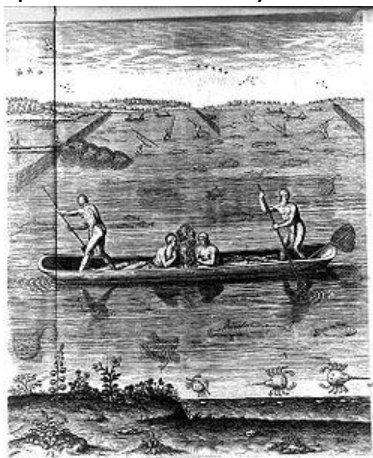


Samuel de Champlain's sketch of a Huron deer hunt; Huron men make noise and drive animals along a V-shaped fence towards an apex where they are captured and killed.

The [division of labor](#) reflected the [dualistic](#) split common in the Iroquois culture. The twin gods Sapling (East) and Flint (West) embodied the dualistic notion of two complementary halves. Dualism was applied to labor with each gender taking a clearly defined role that complemented the work of the other. Women did all work involving the field while men did all work involving the forest including the manufacture of anything involving wood. The Iroquois men were responsible for hunting, trading, and fighting, while the women took care of [farming](#), food gathering, and housekeeping. This gendered division of labor was the predominate means of dividing work in Iroquois society.<sup>[13]</sup> At the time of contact with Europeans, Iroquois women produced about 65 percent of the food and the men 35 percent. The combined production of food was successful to the point where [famine](#) and hunger were extremely rare—early Europeans settlers often envied the success of Iroquois food production.

The Iroquois system of work matched their system of land ownership. Since the Iroquois owned property together, they worked together as well. The women performed difficult work in large groups, going from field to field helping one another work each others' land. Together they would sow the fields as a "mistress of the field" distributed a set amount of seeds to each of the women.<sup>[13]</sup> The Iroquois women of each agricultural group would select an old but active member of their group to act as their leader for that year and agree to follow her directions. The women performed other work cooperatively as well. The women would cut their own wood, but their leader would oversee the collective carrying of the wood back to the village.<sup>[10]</sup> The women's clans performed other work, and according to [Mary Jemison](#), a white girl kidnapped and assimilated into their culture, the collective effort averted "every jealousy of one having done more or less work than another."

The Iroquois men also organized themselves in a cooperative fashion. Of course, the men acted collectively during military actions, as there is little sense in a single individual fighting entirely alone in battle. The other jobs of men, such as hunting and fishing, also involved cooperative elements similar to women's cooperation. However, the men differed from the women in that they more often organized as a whole village rather than as a clan. The men organized hunting parties where they used extensive cooperation to kill a large amount of game. One first hand



account told of a large hunting party that built a large brush fence in a forest forming a V. The hunters burned the forest from the open side of the V, forcing the animals to run towards the point where the village's hunters waited in an opening. A hundred [deer](#) could be killed at a time under such a plan. Native Americans of unknown tribe fishing in fashion similar to Iroquois.

The men also fished in large groups. Extensive fishing expeditions often took place where men in [canoes](#) with weirs and nets covered entire streams to reap large amounts of fish, sometimes a thousand in half of a day.<sup>[10]</sup> A hunting or fishing party's takings were considered common property and would be divided among the party by the leader or taken to the village for a feast. Hunting

and fishing were not always cooperative efforts, but the Iroquois generally did better in parties than as individuals.

## Trade

The cooperative production and communal distribution of goods made internal trade within the Iroquois Confederacy pointless, but external trade with tribes in regions with resources the Iroquois lacked served a purpose. The Iroquois traded excess [corn](#) and [tobacco](#) for the pelts from the tribes to the north and the [wampum](#) from the tribes to the east. The Iroquois used [gift exchange](#) more often than any other mode of exchange. This gift-giving reflected the reciprocity in Iroquois society. The exchange would begin with one clan giving another tribe or clan a present with the expectation of some sort of needed commodity being given in return. This form of trade ties to the Iroquois culture's tendency to share property and cooperate in labor. In all cases no explicit agreement is made, but one service is performed for the community or another member of the community's good with the expectation that the community or another individual would give back.<sup>[10]</sup> External trade offered one of the few opportunities for individual enterprise in Iroquois society. A person who discovered a new trading route had the exclusive right to trade along the same route in the future; however, clans would still collectivize trading routes to gain a monopoly on a certain type of trade.

The arrival of Europeans created the opportunity for greatly expanded trade. [Furs](#) were in demand in Europe, and they could be acquired cheaply from Indians in exchange for manufactured goods the Indians could not make themselves.<sup>[14]</sup> Trade did not always benefit the Indians. The [British](#) took advantage of the gift-giving culture. They showered the Iroquois with European goods, making them dependent on such items as [rifles](#) and metal axes. The Iroquois had little choice but to trade for [gunpowder](#) after they had discarded their other weapons. The British primarily used these gifts to gain support among the Iroquois for fighting against the French.<sup>[4]</sup>

The Iroquois also traded for [alcohol](#), a substance they did not have before the arrival of Europeans. Eventually, this would have a very negative impact on Iroquois society. The problem became so bad by 1753 that Scarrooyady, an Iroquois Chief, had to petition the Governor of Pennsylvania to intervene in trade:

Your Traders now bring scarce anything but Rum and Flour; they bring little powder and lead, or other valuable goods ... and get all the skins that should go to pay the debts we have contracted for goods bought of the Fair Traders; by this means we not only ruin ourselves but them too. These wicked Whiskey Sellers, when they have once got the Indians in liquor, make them sell their very clothes from their backs. In short, if this practice be continued, we must be inevitably ruined.<sup>[14]</sup>

## Land after the Europeans arrived



Iroquois with Western goods, presumably acquired through trade (French engraving, 1722).

The Iroquois system of land management had to change with the coming of the Europeans and the forced isolation to [reservations](#). The Iroquois had a system of collectively owned land free to be used as needed by their members. While this system was not wholly collective as land was distributed to individual

family groups, the Iroquois lacked the Western conception of property as a commodity. After the Europeans arrived and placed the Iroquois on reservations, the natives had to adjust their property system to a more Western model. Despite the influence of Western culture, the Iroquois have maintained a unique view of property over the years. Modern-day Iroquois Doug George-Kanentiio sums up his perception of the Iroquois property view: The Iroquois have no absolute right to claim territory for purely monetary purposes. Our Creator gave us our aboriginal lands in trust with very specific rules regarding its uses. We are caretakers of our Mother Earth, not lords of the land. Our claims are valid only so far as we dwell in peace and harmony upon her.<sup>[15]</sup>

Similar sentiments were expressed in a statement by the Iroquois Council of Chiefs (or Haudenosaunee) in 1981. The Council distinguished the "Western European concepts of land ownership" from the Iroquois view that "the earth is sacred" and "was created for all to use forever—not to be exploited merely for this present generation." Land is not just a commodity and "In no event is land for sale." The statement goes on, "Under Haudenosaunee law, Gayanerkowa, the land is held by the women of each clan." It is principally the women who are responsible for the land, who farm it, and who care for it for the future generations. When the Confederacy was formed, the separate nations formed one union. The territory of each nation became Confederacy land even though each nation continued to have a special interest in its historic territory the Council's statement reflects the persistence of a unique view of property among the Iroquois.

The system of the Grand River Iroquois (two Iroquois reservations in Canada) integrated the traditional Iroquois property structure with the new way of life after being confined to a reservation. The reservation was established under two deeds in the eighteenth century. These deeds gave corporate ownership of the reservation lands to the Six Nations of the Iroquois. Individuals would then take a perpetual lease on a piece of land from the Confederacy. The Iroquois idea that land came into one's possession if cared for and reverted to public control if left alone persisted in reservation property law. In one property dispute case, the Iroquois Council sided with the claimant who had made improvements and cultivated the land over the one who had left it alone. The natural resources on the land belonged to the tribe as a whole and not to those who possessed the particular parcel. The Iroquois leased the right to extract stone from the lands in one instance and fixed royalties on all the production. After natural gas had been discovered on the reservation, the Six Nations took direct ownership of the natural gas wells and paid those who had wells on their land compensation only for damages done by gas extraction. This setup closely resembled the precontact land distribution system where the tribes actually owned the land and distributed it for use but not unconditional ownership. Another instance of traditional Iroquois property views impacting modern-day Indian life involves the purchase of land in New York State by the [Seneca-Cayuga](#) tribe, perhaps for a casino. The casino would be an additional collectively-owned revenue maker. The Seneca-Cayuga already own a bingo hall, a gas station, and a cigarette factory. The later-day organization of reservation property directly reflects the influence of the precontact view of land ownership.

## **Iroquois mythology**





Stonish Giants, engraving by David Cusick from Sketches of the Ancient History of the Six Nations

The Iroquois believed in a supreme spirit, Orenda, the "Great Spirit" from whom all other spirits were derived. Atahensic (also called Ataensic) is a sky goddess who fell to the earth at the time of creation. According to legend, she was carried down to the land by the wings of birds. After her fall from the sky she gave birth to Hahgwehdiyu and Hahgwehdaetgah, twin sons. She died in childbirth and was considered the goddess of pregnancy, fertility, and feminine skills.

Hahgwehdiyu put a plant into his mother's lifeless body and from it grew [maize](#) as a gift to humankind. Hahgwehdaetgah his twin was an evil spirit.

Gaol is the wind god. Gohone is the personification of the winter. Adekagagwaa is the personification of the summer. Onatha is a fertility god and patron of farmers, particularly farmers of wheat. Yosheka is another creator god. A giant named Tarhuhiawahku held the sky up.

The Oki is the personification of the life-force of the Iroquois, as well as the name of the life force itself. It is comparable to Wakanda ([Lakota](#)) and the Manitou (Algonquian).

The Jogah are nature spirits, similar to both [nymphs](#) and [fairies](#). Ha Wen Neyu is the "Great Spirit."

The first people were created by Iosheka, a beneficent God who heals disease, defeated demons, and gave many of the Iroquois magical and ceremonial rituals, as well as [tobacco](#), a central part of the Iroquois religion. He is also venerated in Huron mythology.

The north wind is personified by a [bear](#) spirit named Ya-o-gah, who lived in a cave and was controlled by Gah-oh. Ya-o-gah could destroy the world with his fiercely cold breath, but is kept in check by Gah-oh.

Sosondowah was a great hunter (known for stalking a supernatural [elk](#)) who was captured by Dawn, a goddess who needed him as a watchman. He fell in love with Gendenwitha ("she who brings the day"; alt: Gendewitha), a human woman. He tried to woo her with song. In spring, he sang as a bluebird, in summer as a blackbird and in autumn as a [hawk](#), who then tried to take Gendenwitha with him to the sky. Dawn tied him to her doorpost. She then changed Gendenwitha into the Morning Star, so he could watch her all night but never be with her.

### **Contemporary Life**

The total number of Iroquois today is hard to establish. About 45,000 Iroquois lived in Canada in 1995. In the 2000 census, 80,822 people in the United States claimed Iroquois ethnicity, with 45,217 of them claiming only Iroquois background. However, tribal registrations in the United States in 1995 numbered about 30,000 in total.

Many Iroquois have been fully integrated into the surrounding Western economy of the [United States](#) and [Canada](#). For others their economic involvement is more isolated in the [reservation](#). Whether directly involved in the outside economy or not, most of the Iroquois economy is now greatly influenced by national and world economies. The Iroquois have been involved in the steel construction industry for over a hundred years, with many men from the [Mohawk](#) nations working on such high-steel projects as the [Empire State Building](#) and [World Trade Center](#).<sup>[16]</sup> Inside the reservation the economic situation has often been bleak. For instance, the U.S. side of the Mohawk reservation has recently had [unemployment](#) as high as 46 percent.<sup>[17]</sup> Many reservations have successful businesses, however. The [Seneca](#) reservation contains the City of Salamanca, [New York](#), a center of the hardwoods industry with a Native American population of 13 percent.<sup>[18]</sup> The Seneca make use of their independent reservation status to sell gasoline and cigarettes tax-free and run high-stakes bingo operations. The Seneca have also opened casinos in New York State, including [Niagara Falls](#) and in Salamanca, New York.

The [Oneida](#) have also set up casinos on their reservations in New York and [Wisconsin](#). The Oneida are one of the largest employers in northeastern Wisconsin with over 3,000 employees, including 975 people in tribal government. The Tribe manages over 16 million dollars in federal and private grant monies and a wide range of programs, including those authorized by the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act.<sup>[19]</sup> The Oneida business ventures have brought millions of dollars into the community and improved the standard of living.<sup>[20]</sup>



## Review Native American Studies

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.1

### OBJECTIVES

- Create a large painted mural

### MATERIAL

- Large mural paper
- Paint
- Brushes

### Preparation:

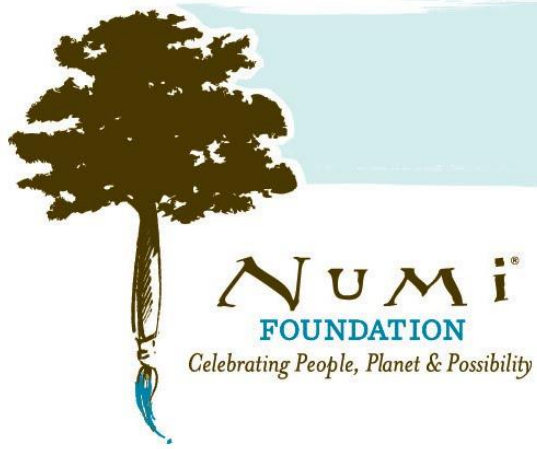
- Begin class with a discussion about how a painted mural might display what the class has learned about Native Americans.
- Develop a plan for the mural and how the class will share the painting.
- One idea could be to use the theme of shelter and paint the various forms of shelter these groups have used.
- When finished, the class should all look at their work, put it somewhere safe to dry, and clean up.
- Class finishes with a look at the mural which should be put on display.

The following Common Core Standards (5.2) should be addressed in the lessons below. Information for the teacher is included in lesson content and in the Teacher Supplement. The teacher should feel free to add material from other sources. The aim is to cover as much information as possible from the list below.

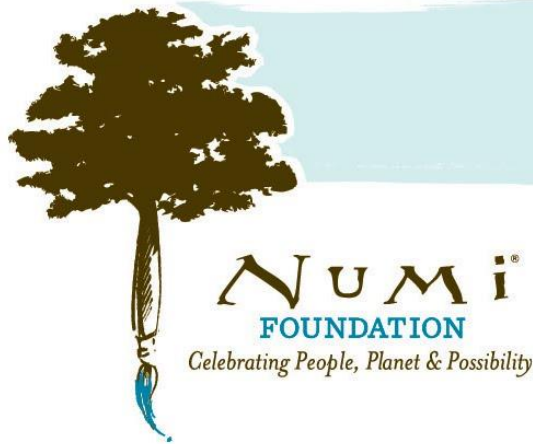
- Describe the entrepreneurial characteristics of early explorers (e.g., Christopher Columbus, Francisco Vásquez de Coronado) and the technological developments that made sea exploration by latitude and longitude possible (e.g., compass, sextant, astrolabe, seaworthy ships, chronometers, gunpowder).
- Explain the aims, obstacles, and accomplishments of the explorers, sponsors, and leaders of key European expeditions and the reasons Europeans chose to explore and colonize the world (e.g., the Spanish Reconquista, the Protestant Reformation, the Counter Reformation).
- Trace the routes of the major land explorers of the United States, the distances traveled by explorers, and the Atlantic trade routes that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe.
- Locate on maps of North and South America land claimed by Spain, France, England, Portugal, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Russia. (See Teacher Supplement)

**Notes/Feedback:**





## Exploration



## The Routes of Early Explorers I

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.2

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Map drawing

### MATERIAL

- Talking Stick (a plain stick made special with a feather
- Leather ties or other decorations)
- Paper
- Drawing pencils

### Preparation:

- Explain to students that in many Native American tribes, people used a "talking stick" to make sure that each person had a turn to share his or her ideas and opinions with the rest of the group. The person holding the stick had the right to speak. Everyone else was expected to listen with respect. When a person finished talking, he or she passed the stick to someone else.

Have students sit in a circle and give the stick to a student who is comfortable speaking to a group. Ask that student to share something with the class. You might specify a topic or let students choose their own. When the first student finishes sharing, he or she passes the stick to the student on the right. Tell students that anyone who doesn't want to

Speak can simply pass the stick to the next person. Students should continue passing the stick until each person has had a chance to speak. You might want students to pass the stick more than once so some of the shyer students have a second chance to share their thoughts, but don't insist that a student talk if he or she doesn't want to.

You can use this activity in a variety of situations, including conflicts between two students who have trouble listening to each other's point of view.

Ideas for specific topics might include any difficulties the children are having at school such as name calling or bullying. It might start with the good things that happen at school.

- Ask the students what it means to explore. After listening to some responses, explain that a long time ago there were no cell phones, no computers, etc., and that because of this people knew very little about the world outside their little village. Changes came due to interest, need for trade, and new inventions. Tell the biography of Columbus. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Have children copy the map of the Columbus voyages in color pencil.
- Class Finishes.

### **Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

### **Why is Columbus Famous?**

#### **Who was Columbus?**

Columbus was an explorer. In 1492, he sailed from Europe to America. He and his sailors crossed the Atlantic Ocean, not knowing where they would land. It was a voyage into the unknown. After Columbus, other Europeans began to explore and settle in America.

#### **When did he live?**

Christopher Columbus was born in 1451. It was a time of new ideas and discoveries in Europe. We call this time the Renaissance - a word that means 'rebirth'. People were making maps of new lands. They were building ships to explore places they had never visited before.

#### **What did Columbus do?**

Columbus did not 'discover' America. There were many people already living there. Vikings from Europe had landed in America 500 years before. But Columbus did not know that. His voyage started regular contact between America and Europe.

### **EARLY DAYS**

#### **Childhood**

Cristoforo Colombo, or Christopher Columbus as we call him, was born in Genoa in Italy. Genoa was a busy port.

His father was a wool merchant and weaver. We don't know if Columbus went to school much. He may have had lessons from monks.

#### **Going to sea**

The Columbus family hoped to get rich by trade. Columbus went to sea at the age of 13. Life at sea was exciting, but dangerous. He hoped to come home a rich man!

Columbus learned how to sail a wooden ship with sails. He learned about the winds and tides. He learned to navigate (find the way), by looking at the Sun and stars.

#### **In Portugal**

Columbus went to live in Portugal. One story says he swam ashore after his ship was attacked by pirates! He and his brother Bartholomew made and sold maps.

#### **Columbus's dream**

People in Europe wanted to find a new sea route east, to trade with Asia. They wanted to send ships to India, China and the East Indies.

The Portuguese tried sailing South, around Africa. It was a long way.

Columbus wanted to sail west. Because maps of the time made the oceans look smaller than they are, Columbus hoped to reach China in a few days. He needed money to make his dream come true.

### **COLUMBUS SETS SAIL**

### **Help from a Queen**

Columbus tried to persuade rich people to help him. Most laughed at him.

At last, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain gave him money for ships. In return he promised them new lands, spices, gold and new people to rule.

### **Columbus sails**

Columbus set sail on 3 August 1492. He had three ships: the Niña, the Pinta and the Santa Maria. They were wooden ships with sails. There were about 90 men in the ships.

Food for the voyage was kept in the ship's hold. The men took salted fish in barrels, cheese, wine, water, live pigs and chickens.

### **Life on the ships**

The sailors worked shifts. The time for each shift was measured using a half-hour glass. The men had no cabins, but slept on deck. Every morning, they said prayers.

The ships let in water all the time. The men had to work pumps, to keep the ships afloat.

### **Finding the way**

Columbus used a compass to help him navigate. He used a traverse board to plot (mark) the direction they wanted to sail in.

The voyage took longer than Columbus expected. There was no land, just ocean. The men got scared. They were running out of food and water. After 36 days, a sailor on the Pinta spotted an island. On 12 October 1492 the explorers went ashore. Columbus called the island San Salvador. It was in the Bahamas.

## **WHAT COLUMBUS DISCOVERED**

### **A New World**

Columbus sailed on to Cuba and Hispaniola. He explored a world new to Europeans. People later called it the New World.

### **Native Americans**

Native American people lived on the islands. Columbus called them 'Indians', because he thought he'd landed in 'the Indies' (Asia).

At first the Native Americans were pleased to see the visitors. Columbus gave them cheap presents and bells. But he also claimed their islands for Spain!

### **Shipwreck**

On Christmas night 1492 the Santa Maria was wrecked. It hit a reef.

The other two ships sailed home. Columbus left 40 men behind. He took some captive Native Americans with him. He landed in Spain in March 1493.

### **Second voyage**

Columbus soon went back to rescue his men. This time, he took 17 ships. But all the men left behind were dead.

## **WHAT HAPPENED TO COLUMBUS?**

### **Columbus in disgrace**

Spain ruled the lands Columbus had found. On his third voyage, Columbus saw South America for the first time. But he came home in disgrace. His enemies said he had ruled Hispaniola to make himself rich. He was sent back to Spain in chains. But the king and queen set him free.

### **Native Americans made slaves**

People from Europe sailed to America to start colonies. Some wanted to make the Native Americans become Christians.

The Europeans began treating the Native Americans badly. They made many of them work as slaves.

### **Columbus dies**

Columbus sailed to America for a fourth time in 1502. He was still hoping to land in China. This time he explored Central America. His ships were too leaky to sail home, so he had to wait a year before being rescued.

When Columbus got back to Spain, he was a sick man. He died in 1506.

### **HOW COLUMBUS CHANGED HISTORY**

#### **Other explorers**

Other explorers followed Columbus. In 1497-98, John Cabot sailed from England to North America. In 1501 Amerigo Vespucci from Italy sailed to South America. 'America' was named after him. People knew that the New World was not Asia, but a new continent.

#### **How Columbus changed history**

Columbus and his sailors sailed bravely into the unknown. Columbus did not give up, even when people laughed at his ideas.

Explorers brought home gold, new foods and new knowledge. However, they brought misery to many Native Americans. The Europeans took their land. Many Native Americans were killed in wars with the Europeans, or died from European diseases.

## Teacher Supplement: MAP OF COLUMBUS' VOYAGES





## The Routes of Early Explorers-II

### STANDARDS

CC5.2

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Making a navigational instrument

### MATERIAL

- Opening Activity-Talking stick
- Materials for the navigational instrument chosen (See Teacher Supplement)
- Journals
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Repeat Talking Stick activity from previous class. Give the students a talking point that has to do with an issue at school.



- (See Teacher Supplement).
- Once made, tell the story of Coronado (See Teacher Supplement).
- Show the class maps of the exploration routes across the Atlantic Ocean and the lands claimed by European nations in North America.
- In their journals, have children write about life on a ship in the early days of exploration.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: HOW TO MAKE AN ASTROLABE

By Deana Zaccaro, eHow Contributor



The astrolabe may have been invented by the astronomer Hipparchus or Apollonius of Perga, a mathematician. Named by the ancient Greeks, "astrolabe" means "the one who catches the heavenly bodies." The University of Hawaii's Institute for Astronomy explains that the astrolabe is used to "calculate the position of celestial objects, measure the time of the night or day, measure the time of the year, compute what part of the sky is visible at any time, determine the altitude of any object over the horizon and determine the current latitude." Although originally constructed from ornate brass discs, children can make their own astrolabes from household arts and crafts materials.

### Instructions

- Download and print an astrolabe picture. An age-appropriate astrolabe drawing is available on the At Home Astronomy's website.
- Glue the astrolabe picture to a piece of heavy paper or cardboard and cut it out.
- Carefully use the scissors to make a small hole at each of the lines that run along the curved edge of the astrolabe.
- Cut a drinking straw to measure the same length as the side of the astrolabe.
- Tape the drinking straw to the edge of the astrolabe where instructed by the picture. Be careful not to tape it directly on the astrolabe.
- Puncture a small hole through the "x" on the astrolabe. Thread the string through the hole and tape the string down on the back of the paper or cardboard.
- Tape the small weight to the bottom of the string and flip it over the front of the astrolabe.

## Teacher Supplement: HOW TO MAKE SEXTANT



By Wesley Davis, eHow Contributor.

A simple sextant can be made at home in about 15 minutes.

A sextant is a device used to measure an object's altitude angle relative to a horizontal line of reference. In the days before global positioning systems, a navigator aboard a ship would use a sextant to measure the altitude angle of prominent stars, such as Polaris, to navigate to and from the home port. In addition to a sextant, a navigator who desires to know his ship's exact position needs an

almanac detailing the position of stars and planets over time, a method of telling time relative to the observatory that produced the almanac, and a method of mathematically computing his ship's location based upon the measurements of the sextant and navigational charts.

### Things You'll Need

- Protractor, clear plastic 6-inch
- 4-by-6-inch note card with lines
- Pencil

### Instructions

- Line up the straight edge of the protractor with the red line nearest the 6 inch edge of the note card with the curve of the protractor sitting on the card. Trace the curve of the protractor using your pencil. This line segment will be referred to as the "arc".
- Make a mark where the cross hairs on the protractor sit on the card. This point will be referred to as the "hub".
- Rotate the protractor 90 degrees keeping the hub lined up with the cross hairs of the protractor. The red line printed on the note card should pass through the 90 degree mark of the protractor.
- Mark the degree measurements at 10-degree increments along the arc. Label the degree measurements along the inside of the arc starting with zero degrees at the center of the arc. Increase by 10 degrees until you reach 90 degrees at the red line on the note card. Place small tic marks at 5-degree measurements between the multiples of 10.
- Draw line segments that extend from the hub of the circle to each degree measurement that is a multiple of 10. The pattern will resemble spokes on a bicycle wheel.
- Cut out your sextant along the arc.
- Unfold the paper clip so that it has a 180-degree "hook" at each end. Poke a hole in the hub of the sextant using your paper clip.

- Place one hooked end of the paper clip through the hub of the sextant and slide the other end of the hook over the edge of the arc of your sextant. The paperclip will act as your needle and should swing freely.
- Cut the straw to 6 inches in length and tape it along the flat edge of the sextant. The straw is your sight. Look through the straw at an object and read the altitude angle at the point where the paperclip crosses the arc of the sextant.
- Read more:

[http://www.ehow.com/how\\_7448600\\_to\\_-simple-homemadesextant.html#ixzz2Y04sdRXn](http://www.ehow.com/how_7448600_to_-simple-homemadesextant.html#ixzz2Y04sdRXn)

## Teacher Supplement: HOW TO MAKE A COMPASS

By an eHow Contributor

With a few household items, you can make a compass. Do this project with **your child** and make learning science fun.

### Things You'll Need

- Needle
- Magnet
- Cork

### Instructions

- Get a one inch sewing needle. The needle can be slightly larger or a little smaller, but should be around that size. Once you have the needle in hand, rub it against a magnet. Be sure to keep rubbing it in the same direction.
- Find a piece of cork. Cork from a wine bottle will work great. Make sure the piece of cork is dry and clean.
- Stick the needle through the piece of cork. On this step be careful because the needle is sharp and you could injure yourself. You shouldn't let a child attempt this step. Stick the needle in until the cork is centralized on the needle.
- Place the needle and cork in a glass of water. Make sure there is enough water in the glass so that the piece of cork is able to float.
- Put the glass of water on a stable surface. Once stabilized, you should notice the needle start to spin until it reaches a point. When the needle stops, it will be pointing north. Now that you have a working compass, you are able to move the glass about and it will continue to point in the same direction.
- Read more:  
[http://www.ehow.com/how\\_2046066\\_make-compass.html#ixzz2Y06WDn00](http://www.ehow.com/how_2046066_make-compass.html#ixzz2Y06WDn00)



## The Routes of Early Explorers-III

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.2

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity-Talking stick
- Teacher led discussion
- Drawing

### MATERIAL

- Photos or drawings of sailing ships
- Drawing paper
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Repeat Talking Stick activity. Give the students a talking point that has to do with an issue at school.
- Teacher led discussion reviewing what has been learned so far about exploration. Review the story of Lewis and Clark and Sacajawea. Introduce the stories of the Spanish Reconquista, the Protestant Reformation and the Counter Reformation.

- Show the students photos or drawings of the sailing ships and have the children create drawings of the ships on paper to be displayed. Try to give them the vocabulary of the parts of the ship.
- Have the class look at the drawings.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: PROTESTANT REFORMATION

The **Protestant Reformation** was a movement which began in the [16th century](#) as a series of attempts to reform the [Roman Catholic Church](#), but ended in division and the establishment of several other [Christian](#) churches, most importantly [Lutheranism](#), [Reformed churches](#), and [Anabaptists](#).

### Roots of the Reformation

- [Avignon Papacy](#) ("Babylonian Captivity of the Church"), [Avignon](#), [Great Schism](#)
- [Jan Hus](#), [John Wyclif](#), [William Tyndale](#)
- Northern Renaissance, [Erasmus](#), [Thomas More](#)

### Reformation begins

- Martin Luther, Johann Tetzel, Indulgences, 95 Theses (not nailed to church door), Nicolaus Von Amsdorf
- Exsurge Domine, Diet of Worms (1521), Peasants' War
- Huldreich Zwingli and Zurich
- John Calvin and Geneva
- John Knox and Scotland
- Radical Reformers -- Müntzer, Anabaptists, Menno Simon[?]
- Reformation in France?

### Underlying Demographic, Economic Factors

Historical upheaval usually yields a lot of new thinking as to how society should be organized. This was the case leading up to the Protestant Reformation. Following the breakdown of monastic institutions and scholasticism in late medieval Europe, accentuated by the "Babylonian Captivity[?]" of the Avignon Papacy, the Great Schism, and the failure of conciliar reform, the sixteenth century saw the fermenting of a great cultural debate about religious reforms and later fundamental religious values. Historians would generally assume that the failure to reform (too many vested interests, lack of coordination in the reforming coalition) will eventually lead to a greater upheaval or even revolution, since the system must eventually be adjusted or disintegrate, and the failure of the Conciliar movement led to the Protestant Reformation in the European West. These frustrated reformist movements ranged from nominalism, modern devotion, to humanism occurring in conjunction with economic, political and demographic forces that contributed to a growing disaffection with the wealth and power of the elite clergy, sensitizing the population to the financial and moral corruption of the secular Renaissance church.

The outcome of the [Black Death](#) encouraged a radical reorganization of the economy and eventually European society. In the emerging urban centers, however, the calamities of the fourteenth and early fifteenth century, and the resultant labor shortages, provided a strong impetus for economic diversification and technological innovations. Following the [Black Death](#),



the initial loss of life due to famine, plague, and pestilence, contributed to an intensification of capital accumulation in the urban areas, and thus a stimulus to trade, industry, and burgeoning urban growth in fields as diverse as banking (the [Fugger](#) banking family in [Augsburg](#) being the most prominent), textiles, armaments, especially stimulated by the [Hundred Years War](#), and mining of iron ore due, in large part, to the booming armaments industry. Accumulation of surplus, competitive overproduction, and heightened competition to maximize economic advantage, contributed to civil war, aggressive militarism, and thus centralization. As a direct result of the move toward centralization, leaders like [Louis XI\[?\]](#) (1461-83), the “spider king” sought to remove all constitutional restrictions on the exercise of their authority. In [England](#), [France](#), and [Spain](#) the move toward centralization begun in the thirteenth century was carried to a successful conclusion.

But as recovery and prosperity progressed, enabling the population to reach its former levels in the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the combination of both a newly abundant labor supply as well as improved productivity, were mixed blessings for many segments of Western European society. Despite tradition, landlords started the move to exclude peasants from common lands. With trade stimulated, landowners increasingly moved away from the manorial economy. Woolen manufacturing greatly expanded in [France](#), [Germany](#), and the [Netherlands](#) and new textile industries began to develop.

### **Humanism to Protestantism**

The frustrated reformism of the humanists, ushered in by the [Renaissance](#), contributed to a growing impatience among reformers. [Erasmus](#) and later figures like [Luther](#) and [Zwingli](#) would emerge from this debate and eventually contribute to the second major schism of Christendom. Unfortunately for the church, the crisis of theology beginning with [William of Ockham](#) in the fourteenth century was occurring in conjunction with the new burger discontent. Since the breakdown of the philosophical foundations of [scholasticism](#), the new [nominalism](#) did not bode well for an institutional church legitimized as an intermediary between man and God. New thinking favored the notion that no religious doctrine can be supported by philosophical arguments, eroding the old alliance between reason and faith of the medieval period laid out by [Thomas Aquinas](#).

The major individualistic reform movements that revolted against medieval scholasticism and the institutions that underpinned it were: [humanism](#), [devotionalism\[?\]](#), and the observatine tradition. In Germany, “the modern way” or devotionalism caught on in the universities, requiring a redefinition of God, who was no longer a rational governing principle but an arbitrary, unknowable will that cannot be limited. God was now an unknowable absolute ruler, and religion would be more fervent and emotional. Thus, the ensuing revival of Augustinian theology, stating that man cannot not saved by his own efforts but only by the grace of God, would erode the legitimacy of the rigid institutions of the church meant to provide a channel for man to do good works and get into heaven. Humanism, however, was more of an educational reform movement with origins in the Renaissance's revival of classical learning and thought. A revolt against Aristotelian logic, it placed great emphasis on reforming individuals through eloquence as opposed to reason. The European Renaissance laid the foundation for the

Northern humanists in its reinforcement of the traditional use of Latin as the great unifying cultural language.

The polarization of the scholarly community in Germany over the [Reuchlin\[?\]](#) (1455-1522) affair, attacked by the elite clergy for his study of Hebrew and Jewish texts, brought Luther fully in line with the humanist educational reforms who favored academic freedom. At the same time, the impact of the Renaissance would soon backfire against Southern Europe, also ushering in an age of reform and a repudiation of much of medieval Latin tradition. Led by Erasmus, the humanists condemned various forms of corruption within the Church, forms of corruption that might not have been any more prevalent than during the medieval zenith of the church. [Erasmus](#) held that true religion was a matter of inward devotion rather than an outward symbol of ceremony and ritual. Going back to ancient texts, scriptures, from this viewpoint the greatest culmination of the ancient tradition, are the guides to life. Favoring moral reforms and de-emphasizing didactic ritual, Erasmus laid the groundwork for Luther.

Humanism's intellectual anticlericalism would profoundly influence Luther. The increasingly well-educated middle sectors of Northern Germany, namely the educated community and city dwellers, would turn to Luther's rethinking of religion to conceptualize their discontent according to the cultural medium of the era. The great rise of the burgers, the desire to run their new businesses free of institutional barriers or outmoded cultural practices, contributed to the appeal of humanist individualism. To many, papal institutions were rigid, especially regarding their views on just price and usury. In the North burgers and monarchs were united in their frustration for not paying any taxes to the nation, but collecting taxes from subjects and sending the revenues disproportionately to the Pope in [Italy](#).

These trends heightened demands for significant reform and revitalization along with [anticlericalism\[?\]](#). New thinkers began noticing the divide between the priests and the flock. The clergy, for instance, were not always well-educated. Parish priests often did not know [Latin](#) and rural parishes often did not have great opportunities for theological education for many at the time. Due to its large landholdings and institutional rigidity, a rigidity to which the excessively large ranks of the clergy contributed, many bishops studied law, not theology, being relegated to the role of property managers trained in administration. While priests emphasized works of religiosity, the respectability of the church began diminishing, especially among well educated urbanites, and especially considering the recent strings of political humiliation, such as the apprehension of [Pope Boniface VIII](#) by [Philip IV\[?\]](#) of [France](#), the "Babylonian Captivity," the [Great Schism](#), and the failure of Conciliar reformism. In a sense, the campaign by [Pope Leo X](#) to raise funds to rebuild the [St. Peter's Basilica](#) was too much of an excess by the secular [Renaissance](#) church, prompting the high-pressure sale of [indulgences\[?\]](#) that rendered the clerical establishments even more disliked in the cities.

Luther, taking the revival of the [Augustinian](#) notion of salvation by faith alone to new levels, borrowed from the humanists the sense of individualism, that each man can be his own priest (an attitude likely to find popular support considering the rapid rise of an educated urban middle class in the North), and that the only true authority is the [Bible](#), echoing the reformist

zeal of the [Conciliar movement](#) and opening up the debate once again on limiting the authority of the Pope. While his ideas called for the sharp redefinition of the dividing lines between the laity and the clergy, his ideas were still, by this point reformist in nature. Luther's contention that the human will was incapable of following good, however, resulted in his rift with Erasmus finally distinguishing Lutheran reformism from [humanism](#).

### The Radical Reformation

Unskilled laborers, the recently squeezed peasants migrating to the cities from the countryside, embraced the most radical of the theological options opened up by the religious revolution, and a good deal of the [Anabaptist](#) preachers, condemned by Lutheranism and its alliance with nationalistic German forces, hailed from this class.

With little understanding of economic processes of markets, peasants and new migrants to the cities just inferred that higher prices were a manifestation of unjust, parasitic, and immoral behavior. The old concept of “just price” was antiquated, given the economic developments of the era. Discontented and morally righteous, the lower classes were ready to follow concerned leaders, who urged them to band together against immorality and decadence and against the usurpation by diversifying landowners and centralizing kings and princes looking for increased tax revenues to fund their growing states. The disadvantaged peasantry, in this sense, did not turn to a figure like [Hung-wu](#), a peasant revolutionary who fought for economic and political control in establishing the [Ming Dynasty](#), but to someone like the [Drummer of Niklashausen](#) and later the [Anabaptist](#) preachers.

As a result, nearly every country in Europe saw a flare up of failed peasant revolts motivated by religious concerns and executed according to religious doctrine. The Peasants' War in [Hungary](#) (1514), the revolt against Charles V in Spain (1520), the discontent of the lower classes in [France](#) with the excessive taxes levied by Louis XI, and the secret associations which prepared the way for the great uprising of the lower classes in [Germany](#) (1524), show that discontent was not confined to any one country in Europe.

### Lutheranism adapted by the German Territorial Princes

Luther, like Erasmus, in the beginning favored maintaining the bishops as an elite class for administrative purposes. And while Luther de-emphasized [sacraments](#), good works, and indulgences, he still recognized the roles of [Baptism](#) and the [Eucharist](#). Luther favored a reformed theology of the [Eucharist](#) called [consubstantiation](#), a doctrine of the presence of Christ in the Eucharist. Traditionally, the consecrated bread and wine were held to become, substantially, the blood of Christ ([transubstantiation](#)). Transubstantiation was most fully spelled out by the medieval scholastics. According to the doctrine of consubstantiation, the substances of the body and the blood of Christ and of the bread and the wine were held to coexist together in the consecrated Host.

In fact, Luther, along with his colleague [Melanchthon](#), emphasized this point in diplomatic plea for the Reformation at the [Reichstag](#) in [1529](#) amid charges of [heresy](#). Once again, though, the

church and the emperor squandered their last chance to reform and salvage the old order; the edict by the [Diet of Worms](#) (1521) prohibited all innovations. Meanwhile, in these efforts remain a Catholic reformer as opposed to a heretical revolutionary, and to appeal to German princes with his religious condemnation of the peasant revolts backed up by the [Doctrine of the Two Kingdoms](#)[?], Luther's growing conservatism would usher in the more radical reformers.

At a religious conference with the Zwinglians in [1529](#), Melanchthon joined with Luther in opposing a union with [Zwingli](#). There would finally be a schism in the reform movement due to Luther's belief in [consubstantiation](#). His original intention was not schism, but with the [Reichstag](#) of Augsburg (1530) a separate Protestant church finally emerged. Subsequently the leadership of the German Reformation was gradually taken over by Melanchthon. In a sense, Luther would take humanism further in its deviation from established Catholic ritual, forcing a rift between Erasmus and Luther. Similarly, Zwingli would further repudiate ritualism, and break with the increasingly conservative Luther.

While it would be an understatement to state that the great cultural elites like [Erasmus](#), [Luther](#), [Zwingli](#), and Melanchthon regarded these fundamental theological questions quite seriously, their followers tended to split along socio-economic lines. Luther found great support from the new bourgeoisie in Germany's urban centers to overthrow the power of the landowning aristocracy and the Latin clergy, rooted in their control of land and peasant labor, which were the central means of production of the time. And up-and-coming merchants, not yet part of the ruling elite, rallied to Luther's cause. Zwingli, however, appealed to poorer segments of society who lacked the stake in German nationalism among the ambitious, consolidating princes and the new bourgeoisie.

Aside from the enclosing of the lower classes, the middle sectors of Northern Germany, namely the educated community and city dwellers, would turn to religion to conceptualize their discontent according to the cultural medium of the era. The great rise of the burgers, the desire to run their new businesses free of institutional barriers or outmoded cultural practices contributed to the appeal of Humanist individualism. To many, papal institutions were rigid, especially regarding their views on just price and usury. In the North burgers and monarchs were united in their frustration against for not paying any taxes to the nation, but collecting taxes from subjects and sending the revenues disproportionately to Italy. In Northern Europe Luther appealed to the growing national consciousness of the German states because he denounced the Pope for involvement in politics as well as religion. Moreover, he backed the nobility, which was now justified to crush the Great Peasant Revolt of [1520](#) and to confiscate church property by Luther's [Doctrine of the Two Kingdoms](#)[?]. This explains the attraction of the territorial princes to Lutheranism, especially its Doctrine of the Two Kingdoms. With the church subordinate to and the agent of civil authority and peasant rebellions condemned on strict religious terms, Lutheranism and German nationalism were ideally suited to coincide.

Though [Charles V](#) fought the reformation, it is no coincidence either that the reign of his nationalistic predecessor [Maximilian I](#) saw the beginning of the Reformation. While the centralized states of western Europe had reach accords with the Vatican permitting them to

draw on the rich property of the church for government expenditures, enabling them to form state churches that were greatly autonomous of Rome, similar moves on behalf of the Reich were unsuccessful so long as princes and prince bishops fought reforms to drop the pretension of secular universal empire.

### **England -- political reformation**

- Different causes because of different situation
- [Henry VIII](#) from Defensor fidei to head of English church
- [Dissolution of the Monasteries](#), Act of Supremacy, Act of Succession, 39 Articles, execution of More
- [Mary I of England](#) and return to [Catholicism](#)
- [Elizabeth I of England](#) and [Anglicanism](#)

### **Wars of Religion**

- Germany -- peace of Augsburg 1555
- France -- 1) St Bartholomew's Day, Edict of Nantes, 2) French Wars of Religion

## COUNTER-REFORMATION

The **Counter-Reformation** or the **Catholic Reformation** was a strong reaffirmation of the doctrine and structure of the [Catholic Church](#), climaxing at the [Council of Trent](#), in reaction to the growth of [Protestantism](#).

Even before the posting of [Martin Luther](#)'s Ninety-Five Theses in [1517](#), there had been evidence of internal reform within the Church, combating trends that heightened demands for radical demands to fundamentally alter the doctrine and structure of the Medieval Church and even contributed to anticlericalism of figures such as [John Huss](#) and [John Wycliffe](#) in the late [fourteenth century](#). The Catholic Reformation, aimed at correcting the sources of the Reformation, and pronounced since the pontificate of [Pope Paul III](#), was both retaliatory, committed to protecting Catholic institutions and practices from [heresy](#) and Protestantism, but also reformist, committed to reform the Church from within to stem the growing appeal of Protestantism. Broadly speaking, the Catholic Reformation, which climaxed in the Council of Trent of only two of such Councils held (the other convening quite recently under [Pope John XXIII](#) in the late 1950s) represented a three-sided strategy: an autocratic church at the top liked to the individual by the parish church. The Catholic Reformation was a strong reaffirmation of the doctrine and structure of the Medieval Church, presiding over reforms that would improve its effectiveness.

The pontificate of Paul III ([1534-1549](#)) cumulated in the Council of Trent, who appointed a commission of cardinals to look into the need for institutional certainly not doctrinal reform, uncovering the appointment of corrupt and worldly bishops and priests, traffic in indulgences, and other financial abuses. The Council of Trent, meeting in three sessions between [1545](#) and [1563](#), was the climax of the Catholic Reformation. The Council clearly repudiated specific Protestant positions and upheld the basic structure of the Medieval Church, its sacramental system, religious orders, and doctrine. It rejected all compromise with the Protestants, restating basic tenants of Catholicism. The Council clearly upheld the dogma of salvation by faith and works and unwritten tradition. [Transubstantiation](#), during which the consecrated bread and wine were held to become (substantially) the blood of Christ, was upheld, along with the [Seven Sacraments](#). Other Catholic practices that drew the ire of liberal reformers within the Church, such as indulgences, [pilgrimages](#), the cult of saints and relics, and the cult of the [Virgin](#) were strongly reaffirmed as spiritually vital as well.

But while the basic structure of the Church was reaffirmed, there were noticeable changes. Among the conditions to be corrected by Catholic reformers was the growing divide between what the priests and the flock; many members of the clergy in the rural parishes, after all, had been poorly-educated, often not knowing [Latin](#) and lacking opportunities for theological education for many at the time, which was one of the fundamental focuses of the [humanist](#) reformers in the past. Parish priests became better educated, while Papal authorities sought to eliminate the distractions of the monastic churches. Notebooks and handbooks thus became common, describing how to be good priests and confessors.

New religious orders were a fundamental part of this trend. Orders such as the [Capuchins](#), [Ursulines](#)[], [Theatines](#)[], and especially the [Jesuits](#) strengthened rural parishes, improved popular piety, helped to curb corruption within the church, and set examples that would be a strong impetus for Catholic renewal. The Theatines were an order of devoted priests who

undertook to check the spread of heresy and contribute to a regeneration of the clergy. The Capuchins, an offshoot of the [Franciscan](#) order, grew rapidly, notable for their preaching and for their care for the poor and the sick, in both size and popularity. The Capuchin fathers were an order based on the imitation of Jesus' life as described by the [Gospels](#). Capuchin-founded confraternities thus took special interest in the poor and lived austere lifestyles. These differing approaches were often complementary, as with the missions to rural areas poorly served by the existing parish structure. Members of orders active in overseas missionary expansionism often expressed the need that the rural parishes, whose poor state of affairs contributed to the growth of Protestantism, often needed Christianizing as much as heathens of Asia and the Americas, thus contributing to recovering significant territories that would have otherwise been lost to the Protestants. The Ursulines focused on the special task of educating girls. Their devotion to the traditional works of mercy exemplifies the Catholic Reformation's reaffirmation of salvation through faith and works, and firmly repudiated the [sola scriptura](#) of the Protestants emphasized by [Lutherans](#) and other Protestant sects. Not only making the Church more effective, they reaffirmed fundamental premises of the Medieval Church.

However, the Jesuits, founded by the Spanish nobleman [Ignatius of Loyola](#) (1491-1556) were, by far, the most effective of the new Catholic orders. His Societas de Jesus was founded in [1534](#) and received papal authorization in 1534 under Paul III. An heir to the devotional, observantine, and legalist traditions, the Jesuits organized their order along military lines, they strongly reflected the autocratic zeal of the period. Characterized by careful selection, rigorous training, and iron discipline, the worldliness of the Renaissance Church had no part in the new order. Loyola's masterwork *Spiritual Exercises* reflected the emphasis on handbooks characteristic of the earlier generation of Catholic reformers before the ninety-five theses and the great psychological penetration that it conveyed was strongly reminiscent of devotionism. However, they are really the heirs to the observantine reform tradition, taking strong monastic vows of chastity, obedience, and poverty and set an example that improved the effectiveness of the entire Church. They became preachers, confessors to monarchs and princes, and educators reminiscent of the humanist reformers, and their efforts are largely credited with stemming Protestantism in [Poland](#), [Bohemia](#), [Hungary](#), southern [Germany](#), [France](#), and the Spanish [Netherlands](#). They also strongly participated in the expansion of the Church in the Americas and Asia, conducting efforts in missionary activity that far outpaced even the aggressive Protestantism of the Calvinists. Even Loyola's biography contributed to the new emphasis on popular piety that had been waning under the eras of politically oriented popes such as [Alexander VI](#) and [Leo X](#). After recovering from a severe battle wound, he took a vow to "serve only God and the Roman pontiff, His vicar on earth." Once again, the emphasis on the Pope is a key reaffirmation of the Medieval Church as the [Council of Trent](#) firmly defeated all attempts at Councilism. Firmly legitimizing the new role of the Pope as an absolute ruler strongly characteristic of the new age of absolutism ushered in by the sixteenth century, the Jesuits strongly contributed to the reinvigoration of the Counter-Reformation Church.

Thus, the Council of Trent was dedicated to improving the discipline and administration of the Church. The worldly excesses of the secular [Renaissance](#) church, epitomized by the era of [Alexander VI](#) (1492-1503), exploded in the Reformation under [Pope Leo X](#) (1513-1522), whose campaign by to raise funds to rebuild [St. Peter's Basilica](#) in the German states by supporting high-pressure sale of indulgences was a key impetus for the ninety-five theses. But the Catholic



Church would respond to these problems by a vigorous campaign of reform inspired by earlier Catholic reform movements that reformers opened up even before the [Council of Constance \(1414-1417\)](#): humanism, devotionism, legalist and the observantine tradition.

The Council, by virtue of its actions, repudiated the pluralism of the Secular Renaissance Church, tightening the organization of religious institutions, improving discipline, and emphasizing the parish. No longer was the appointment of Bishops for political reasons a tolerant practice. In the past, the large landholdings and institutional rigidity of the Church, a rigidity to which the excessively large ranks of the clergy contributed, forced many bishops studied law, not theology, relegating many absent bishops to the role of property managers trained in administration. Thus, the Council of Trent combated absenteeism, which was the practice of bishops living in Roman or on landed estates rather than in their dioceses. Secular practices were combated while the Papacy clearly moved away from its Renaissance posture as a political church tantamount to one of the Italian city-states. The Council of Trent also gave bishops greater power to supervise all aspects of religious life. Zealous prelates such as [Milan's Archbishop Carlo Borromeo\(?\) \(1565-1584\)](#), later canonized as a saint, set an example by visiting the remotest parishes and instilling high standards. At the parish level, the seminary-trained clergy who took over in most places during the course of the seventeenth century were generally faithful to the church's rule of [celibacy](#).

The reign of [Pope Paul IV \(1555-1559\)](#), who is sometimes deemed the first of the Counter-Reformation popes for his resolute determination to eliminate Protestantism and the ineffectual institutional practices of the Church that contributed to its appeal, marks these efforts of Catholic renewal. Two of his key strategies were the [Inquisition](#) and censorship of [prohibited books](#). In this sense, his aggressive and autocratic efforts of renewal greatly reflected the strategies of earlier reform movements, especially the legalist and observantine sides: burning heretics and strict emphasis on [Canon law](#). It also reflected the rapid pace toward absolutism that characterized the sixteenth century.

While the aggressive authoritarian approach was arguably destructive of personal religious experience, a new wave of reforms and orders conveyed a strong devotional side. Devotionalism, not subversive [mysticism](#), would provide a strong individual outlet for religious experience, especially through meditation such as the reciting of the [Rosary](#). The devotional side of the Counter-Reformation combined two strategies of Catholic Renewal. For one, the emphasis of God as an unknowable absolute ruler, a God to be feared, coincided well with the aggressive absolutism of the Church of Paul IV. But it also opened up new paths toward popular piety and individual religious experience to its strong emotional and psychological side.

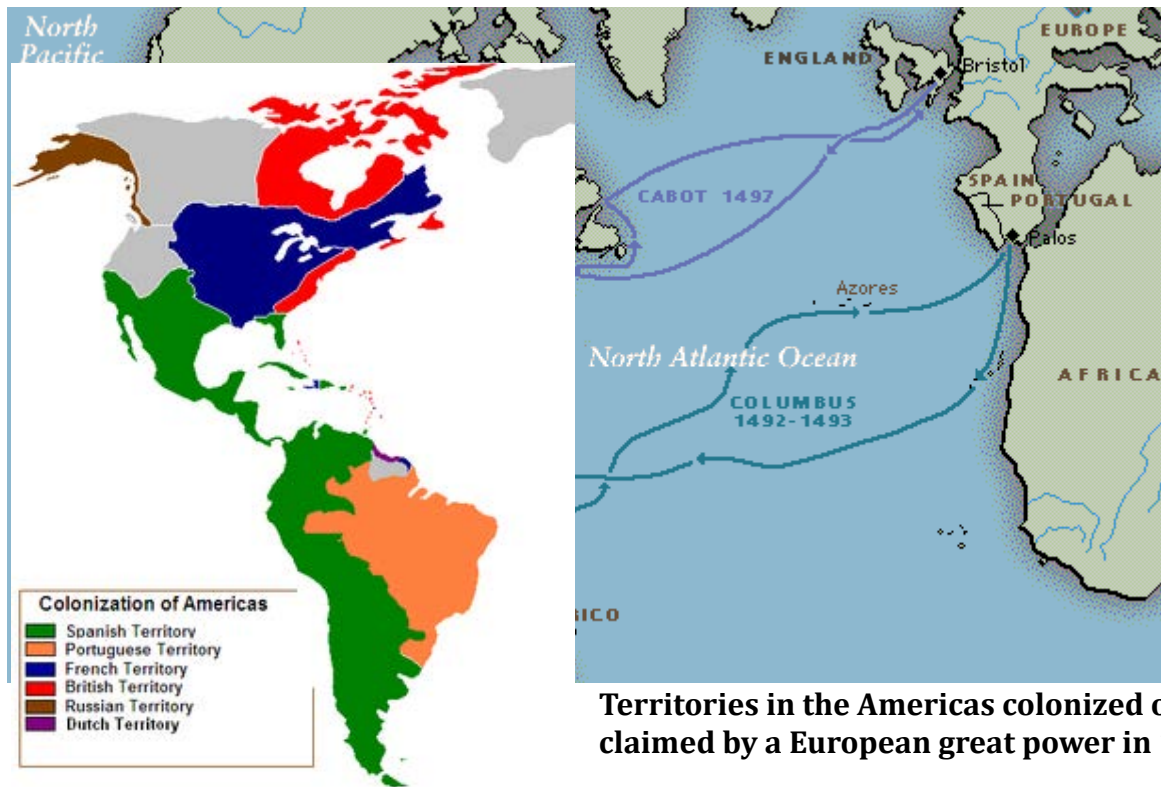
The Papacy of [St. Pius V \(1566-1572\)](#), in this sense, represented a strong effort not only to crack down against heretics and worldly abuses within the Church, but also improve popular piety in effort to firmly stem the appeal of Protestantism. An austere, pious man of impoverished upbringing taken in by the [Dominicans](#), he was trained in a solid and austere piety. It is thus no surprise that he began his pontificate by giving large alms to the poor, charity, and hospitals rather than focusing on patronage. As pontiff he practiced the virtues of a monk, known for daily meditations on bended knees in presence of the Blessed Sacrament. Known for consoling the poor and sick, St. Pius V sought to improve the public morality of the Church, promote the Jesuits, and support the Inquisition. He enforced the observance of the discipline of the Council of Trent, and supported the missions of the New World. The [Spanish Inquisition](#), brought under



the direction of the absolutist Spanish state since [Ferdinand](#) and [Isabella](#), stemmed the growth of heresy before it could spread.

The pontificate of [Pope Sixtus V](#) (1585-1590) opened up the final stage of the Catholic Reformation characteristic of the [Baroque](#) age of the early seventeenth century, shifting away from compelling to attracting. His reign focused on rebuilding Rome as a great European capital and Baroque city, a visual symbol for the Catholic Church. The Baroque style and later [Mannerism](#), along with the [scientific revolution](#) of [Descartes](#) and [Galileo](#), who conceptualized a new way of thinking about nature that was not Aristotelian and not esoteric, but mechanical, marked a stabilization of society. The Baroque, after all, was concerned with creating order, reflecting some confidence that the order at question was understood and how to maintain it. The highest strata of the era consisted of the controlling elite class high nobles and aristocratic families, which were nominally religious, but primarily concerned with a culture of display. The decorative and well-lit interiors of Baroque religious architecture finally marked the stabilization of the Church and its shift from compelling the flock to attracting it.

## Teacher Supplement: ATLANTIC EXPLORATION ROUTES



**Territories in the Americas colonized or claimed by a European great power in 1750.**

## Teacher Supplement: SACAGAWEA

### Synopsis

Sacagawea, the daughter of a Shoshone chief, was born circa 1788 in Lemhi County, Idaho. At around age 12, she was captured by an enemy tribe and sold to a French-Canadian trapper who made her his wife. In November 1804, she was invited to join the [Lewis and Clark](#) expedition as a Shoshone interpreter. After leaving the expedition, she died at Fort Manuel in what is now Kenel, South Dakota, circa 1812.

### Early Life

Born circa 1788 (some sources say 1786 and 1787) in Lemhi County, Idaho, the daughter of a Shoshone chief, Sacagawea was a Shoshone interpreter best known for serving as a member of the [Lewis and Clark](#) expedition into the American West—and for being the only woman on the famous excursion. Much of Sacagawea's life is a mystery. Around the age of 12, Sacagawea was captured by Hidatsa Indians, an enemy of the Shoshones. She was then sold to a French-Canadian trapper named Toussaint Charbonneau who made her one of his wives.

Sacagawea and her husband lived among the Hidatsa and Mandan Indians in the upper Missouri River area (present-day North Dakota). In November 1804, an expedition led by [Meriwether Lewis](#) and William Clark entered the area. Often called the Corps of Discovery, the expedition planned to explore newly acquired western lands and find a route to the Pacific Ocean. The group built Fort Mandan, and elected to stay there for the winter. Lewis and Clark met Charbonneau and quickly hired him to serve as interpreter on their expedition. Even though she was pregnant with her first child, Sacagawea was chosen to accompany them on their mission. Lewis and Clark believed that her knowledge of the Shoshone language would help them later in their journey.

### Lewis And Clark Expedition

In February 1805, Sacagawea gave birth to a son named Jean Baptiste Charbonneau. Despite traveling with a newborn child during the trek, Sacagawea proved to be helpful in many ways. She was skilled at finding edible plants. When a boat she was riding on capsized, she was able to save some of its cargo, including important documents and supplies. She also served as a symbol of peace - a group traveling with a woman and a child were treated with less suspicion than a group of men alone. Sacagawea also made a miraculous discovery of her own during the trip west. When the corps encountered a group of Shoshone Indians, she soon realized that its leader was actually her brother Came ah wait. It was through her that the expedition was able to buy horses from the Shoshone to cross the Rocky Mountains. Despite this joyous family reunion, Sacagawea remained with the explorers for the trip west.

After reaching the Pacific coast in November 1805, Sacagawea was allowed to cast her vote along with the other members of the expedition for where they would build a fort to stay for the winter. They built Fort Clatsop near present-day Astoria, Oregon, and they remained there

until March of the following year. Sacagawea, her husband, and her son remained with the expedition on the return trip east until they reached the Mandan villages.

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During the journey, Clark had become fond of her son Jean Baptiste, nicknaming him "Pomp" or "Pompey." And he even offered to help him get an education.

### **Post-Expedition Life**

Once Sacagawea left the expedition, the details of her life become more elusive. In 1809, it is believed that she and her husband—or just her husband according to some accounts—traveled with their son to St. Louis to see Clark. Pomp was left in Clark's care. Sacagawea gave birth to her second child, a daughter named Lisette, three years later. Only a few months after her daughter's arrival, she reportedly died at Fort Manuel in what is now Kenel, South Dakota, around 1812. (There were stories that it was another wife of Charbonneau who died at Fort Manuel, but historians don't give much credence to this.) After Sacagawea's death, Clark looked after her two children, and ultimately took custody of them both.

Over the years, tributes to Sacagawea and her contribution to the Corps of Discovery have come in many forms, such as statues, place-names, and she was even featured on a dollar coin issued in 2000 by the U.S. Mint.

## Teacher Supplement: WESTERN EXPANSION

The Westward Expansion covers a period in history during which Americans made a concerted effort to expand the United States to the Pacific coast. Spurred by the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, pioneers grew eager to travel west and settle on new land. Hands on activities for Westward Expansion can cover various topics, including pioneer life, the Lewis and Clark Expedition and the California Gold Rush.

### **Wagon Trains**

Have students visit history websites to study the wagons that pioneers used to travel west. Compare the typical wagon, which covered 10 to 15 miles per day, with a car that travels the same distance on a highway in less than 20 minutes. Discuss staples that pioneers loaded into the wagons, such as bacon, coffee, sugar, flour and salt. Remind students that wagons could only carry 2,500 pounds of supplies. Brainstorm the challenges that pioneers faced, which included hostile Native American Indians, rivers, mountains, dry plains, disease and sickness. Tape the size and shape of a wagon on the floor. Place cardboard boxes in the wagon. Have students make lists of the staples they would take for a family of four, or mother, father and two children. Give each student a box and have them fill the box with classroom items that represent items on their list. For example, a phone book could represent a wood stove.

### **Pioneer Life**

Show students pictures of pioneer life in the West. Create a VENN diagram, in which one circle contains items for pioneer life and the other circle for modern life. Indicate that items used by both pioneers and people today appear in the area of intersection. Hand out construction paper to students and have them fold it in half. Ask them to draw a picture about an activity, such as cooking, of pioneer life on one side of the paper and label it "Then." Have them draw the same activity as performed by people today on the other side of the paper and label it "Now." Pair the children and instruct them to explain the differences in their two pictures to their partners.

## THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION

Have students research the Lewis and Clark Expedition, also known as the Corps of Discovery, and study maps of expedition routes, American forts, which include Fort Mandan and Fort Clatsop, and relevant Native American tribes, such as the Omaha, Teton, Shoshone, Nez Perce and Chinook. Gather paper, shoe boxes, rocks, plants, soil, animal crackers, clay, paint and other arts and craft supplies. Have the class review various memorials they have visited or seen. Ask students in what ways the memorials commemorate people or events. For example, Mount Rushmore consists of four presidents chiseled into South Dakota's Black Hills. Why were Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln and Theodore Roosevelt selected for commemoration? Challenge students to create a diorama about one feature of the Lewis and Clark Expedition, such as places along the route, wildlife and plants, the Native American tribes or people in the expedition. Have the class use the soil, rocks, plants, toys and arts and craft supplies to form a landscape, people and wildlife. Create an announcement of the exhibit of Lewis and Clark Expedition dioramas and invite other classes to visit.

Sponsored Links: Read more: Hands on Activities for Westward Expansion eHow.com: [http://www.ehow.com/info\\_8123814\\_hands-activities-westward-expansion.html#ixzz2E1UkjFxD](http://www.ehow.com/info_8123814_hands-activities-westward-expansion.html#ixzz2E1UkjFxD)

### PART 1: FRIENDS GET READY TO GO



Meriwether Lewis and William Clark were the leaders of an expedition to explore the vast unknown territory west of the Mississippi River. They were friends who also happened to know President Thomas Jefferson. (Lewis was, in fact, Jefferson's private secretary at the time.)

Their job was to learn as much as they could about the new territory. They kept detailed notes in journals, and they brought and sent back examples of hundreds of new species of animals and plants.

Both Lewis and Clark had served in the army, and they were familiar with exploring and with Native Americans. They were not, however, familiar with the territory they were about to see.

Relying on their skills as soldiers and leaders, they planned to take a team of about 30 on the long journey, from the Missouri Territory to the source of the Columbia River. During the winter of 1803-1804, Lewis and Clark assembled their team. Among them were 14 other soldiers; nine frontiersmen from Kentucky; two French boatmen; and Clark's servant, York.

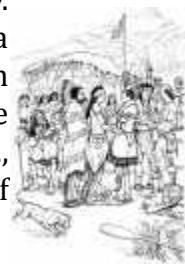
On May 14, 1804, the expedition officially began, with the teams sailing up the Missouri River from a point near St. Louis. They stopped from time to time, then reached the Dakota Territory near wintertime. They decided to build a fort and stay for the winter.

## **PART 2: TWO GUIDES FOR THE PRICE OF ONE**



While in the Dakota Territory, they met a French man named Toussaint Charbonneau, who offered to guide them on their journey. Charbonneau also offered his Shoshone wife, Sacagawea, as a guide. Lewis and Clark accepted, and the expedition resumed in the spring. While samples of the local wildlife and plantlife made their way back to Thomas Jefferson in Washington, D.C., Lewis and Clark and their team--called the Corps of

Discovery--set out west.



They followed the Missouri River west until they reached the Great Falls. Here, the water was too rough and they had to carry their canoes around the falls. Despite this back-breaking one-month delay, they pressed on.

Soon, they were in Shoshone territory. Sacagawea's communication skills came in handy. Communication between Lewis and Clark and the Shoshone proved difficult but not impossible. Sacagawea would listen to what her fellow Shoshone were saying, then tell her husband what they said in Hidatsa, another Native American language. Charbonneau, who also spoke Hidatsa, would translate into French and tell expedition member Francois Labiche, who would translate into English for the team leaders.

## **PART 3: THERE AND BACK AGAIN**

Lewis and Clark had also discovered that Sacagawea knew much about the territory they were all traveling through. She knew the safe paths over mountains and down rivers. She knew where her family lived, where they could all get fresh horses and supplies.

Crossing the Continental Divide proved difficult, even in warm weather. Snow was still on some of the paths. But by September, the Corps of Discovery was on the other side of the Rocky Mountains and traveling onward. In fact, they had left the land behind.

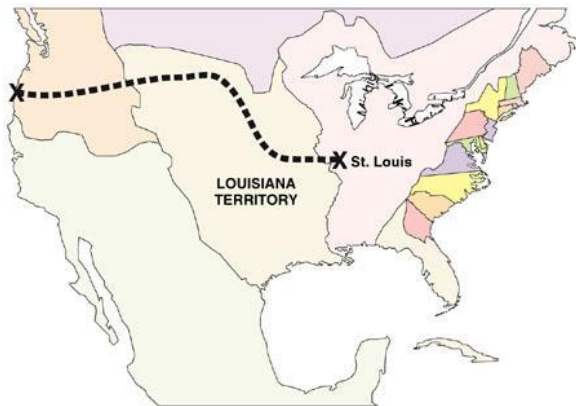


They reached the Clearwater River, which would take them to the Columbia River and, eventually, to the Pacific Ocean. And on November 7, 1805, they saw the great ocean. They celebrated their achievement and built a fort, in which they spent the winter.



The next March, they started on the trip home. A few months later, Lewis and Clark split up, in order to cover more territory. Clark and several men went southeast, to the Yellowstone River, and followed it to the Missouri. Lewis took Sacagawea and several men and went northeast. As on the trip west, they kept detailed notes and gathered samples of unfamiliar animal and plant life.

#### **PART 4: THE JOURNEY HOME**



On Lewis's part of the journey home, he was involved in a skirmish with Native Americans. (This was the only fight of the entire journey, in both directions.) Lewis's bad luck continued several days later when one of his own men shot him while they were out hunting. The party eventually made it to the Dakota Territory, where Lewis recovered and they left Sacagawea and her family. Incredibly, she had given birth to a baby just before they had departed the Dakota

Territory, in 1804, and had carried that baby on her back during the entire expedition. When she arrived home, the baby was 2 years old.

Here also, Lewis and Clark hooked up again and headed back to St. Louis. They arrived there on Sept. 22, 1806. In the more than two years of their journey, they had covered 8,000 miles and discovered 173 new plants and 122 species and subspecies of animals.

## THE DONNER PARTY

On April 16, 1846, nine covered wagons left Springfield, Illinois on the 2500 mile journey to California, in what would become one of the greatest tragedies in the history of westward migration. The originator of this group was a man named James Frasier Reed, an Illinois business man, eager to build a greater fortune in the rich land of California. Reed also hoped that his wife, Margaret, who suffered from terrible headaches, might improve in the coastal climate. Reed had recently read the book *The Emigrants' Guide to Oregon and California*, by Landsford W. Hastings, who advertised a new shortcut across the Great Basin. This new route enticed travelers by advertising that it would save the pioneers 350-400 miles on easy terrain. However, what was not known by Reed was that the Hastings Route had never been tested, written by Hastings who had visions of building an empire at Sutter's Fort (now Sacramento.) It was this falsified information that would lead to the doom of the Donner Party.

Reed soon found others seeking adventure and fortune in the vast West, including the Donner family, Graves, Breens, Murphys, Eddys, McCutcheons, Kesebergs, and the Wolfingers, as well as seven teamsters and a number of bachelors. The initial group included 32 men, women and children.

With James and Margaret Reed were their four children, Virginia, Patty, James and Thomas, as well as Margaret's 70-year-old mother, Sarah Keyes, and two hired servants. Though Sarah Keyes was so sick with consumption that she could barely walk, she was unwilling to be separated from her only daughter. However, the successful Reed was determined his family would not suffer on the long journey as his wagon was an extravagant two-story affair with a built-in iron stove, spring-cushioned seats and bunks for sleeping. Taking eight oxen to pull the luxurious wagon, Reed's 12-year-old daughter Virginia dubbed it "The Pioneer Palace Car."

In nine brand new wagons, the group estimated the trip would take four months to cross the plains, deserts, mountain ranges and rivers in their quest for California. Their first destination was Independence, Missouri, the main jumping-off point for the Oregon and California Trails.

Also in the group were the families of George and Jacob Donner. George Donner was a successful 62-year-old farmer who had migrated five times before settling in Springfield, Illinois along with his brother Jacob. Obviously adventurous, the brothers decided to make one last trip to California, which unfortunately would be their last. With George were his third wife, Tamzene, their three children, Frances, Georgia, and Eliza, and George's two daughters from a previous marriage, Elitha and Leanna. Jacob Donner, and his wife Elizabeth, brought their five children, George, Mary, Isaac, Samuel and Lewis, as well as Mrs. Donner's two children from a previous marriage, Solomon and William Hook.

Also along with them were two teamsters, Noah James and Samuel Shoemaker, as well as friend named John Denton. In the bottom of Jacob Donner's saddlebag was a copy of Lansford Hastings's *Emigrant's Guide*, with its tantalizing talk of a faster route to the garden of the earth.

Ironically, on the very day that the Illinois party headed west from Springfield, Lansford Hastings prepared to head east from California, to see what the shortcut he had written about was really like.

The wagon train reached Independence, Missouri about three weeks later, where they re-supplied. The next day, on May 12, 1846, they headed west again in the middle of a thunderstorm. A week later they joined a large wagon train captained by Colonel William H. Russell that was camped on Indian Creek about 100 miles west of Independence. Along the entire journey, others would join the group until its size numbered 87.



month.

On May 25<sup>th</sup> the train was held for several days by high water at the Big Blue River near present-day Marysville, Kansas. It was here that the train would experience its first death, when Sarah Keyes died and was buried next to the river. After building ferries to cross the water, the party was on their way again, following the Platte River for the next

Along the way, William Russell resigned as the captain of the wagon train and the position was assumed by a man named William M. Boggs. Encountering few problems along the trail, the pioneers reached Fort Laramie just one week behind schedule on June 27, 1846.

<http://www.legendsofamerica.com/photos-nativeamerican/FortLaramie.jpg> At Fort Laramie James Reed ran into an old friend from Illinois by the name of James Clyman, who had just traveled the new route eastwardly with Lansford Hastings. Clyman advised Reed not to take the Hastings Route, stating that the road was barely passable on foot and would be impossible with wagons; also warning him of the great desert and the Sierra Nevadas. Though he strongly suggested that the party take the regular wagon trail rather than this new false route, Reed would later ignore his warning in an attempt to reach their destination more quickly. Joined by other wagons in Fort Laramie, the pioneers were met by a man carrying a letter from Lansford W. Hastings at the Continental Divide on July 11<sup>th</sup>. The letter stated that Hastings would meet the emigrants at Fort Bridger and lead them on his cutoff, which passed south of the Great Salt Lake instead of detouring northwest via Fort Hall (present-day Pocatello, Idaho.)

### TRAIL OF THE DONNER PARTY



### Donner Party Map, courtesy Donner Party Diary

The letter successfully allayed any fears that the party might have had regarding the Hastings cutoff. On July 19<sup>th</sup> the wagon train arrived at the Little Sandy River in present-day Wyoming, where the trail parted into two routes – the northerly known route and the untested Hastings Cutoff. Here, the train split, with the majority of the large caravan taking the safer route. The group preferring the Hastings route elected George Donner as their captain and soon began the southerly route, reaching Fort Bridger on July 28<sup>th</sup>. However, upon their arrival at Fort Bridger, of Lansford Hastings, there was no sign, only a note left with other emigrants resting at the fort. The note indicated that Hastings had left with another group and that later travelers should follow and catch up. Jim Bridger and his partner Louis Vasquez assured the Donner Party that the Hastings Cutoff was a good route. Satisfied, the emigrants rested for a few days at the fort, making repairs to their wagons and preparing for the rest of what they thought would be a seven week journey.

On July 31<sup>st</sup>, the party left Fort Bridger, joined by the McCutchen family. The group now numbered 74 people in twenty wagons and for the first week made good progress at 10-12 miles per day.

On August 6, the party reached the Weber River after having passed through Echo Canyon. Here they came to a halt when they found a note from Hastings advising them not to follow him down Weber Canyon as it was virtually impassible, but rather to take another trail through the Salt Basin.

While the party camped near modern day Henefer, Utah, James Reed, along with two other men forged ahead on horses to catch up with Hastings. Finding the party at the south shore of the Great Salt Lake, Hastings accompanied Reed part way back to point out the new route, which he said would take them about one week to travel. In the meantime, the Graves family caught up with the Donner Party, which now numbered 87 people in 23 wagons. Taking a vote among the party members, the group decided to try the new trail rather than backtracking to Fort Bridger.

On August 11<sup>th</sup>, the wagon train began the arduous journey through the Wasatch Mountains, clearing trees and other obstructions along the new path of their journey. In the beginning, the wagon train was lucky to make even two miles per day, taking them six days

just to travel eight miles. Along the way, they discovered that some of their wagons would have to be abandoned and before long, morale began to sink and the pioneers began to adamantly blame Lansford Hastings. By the time they reached the shore, they also blamed James Reed.

On August 25<sup>th</sup>, the caravan lost another member, one Luke Halloran, who died of consumption, near present-day Grantsville, Utah. About this time, fear began to set in as provisions were running low and time was against them. In the twenty-one days since reaching the Weber River they had moved just 36 miles.

Five days later, on August 30<sup>th</sup>, the group began to cross the Great Salt Lake Desert, believing the trek would take only two days, according to Hastings. However, what they didn't know was that the desert sand was moist and deep, where wagons quickly got bogged down, severely slowing their progress. On the third day in the desert, their water supply was nearly exhausted and some of Reed's oxen ran away. When they finally reached the end of the grueling desert five days later on September 4<sup>th</sup>, the emigrants rested near the base of Pilot Peak for several days. On their eighty mile journey through the Salt Lake Desert, they had lost a total of thirty-two oxen; Reed was forced to abandon two of his wagons, and the Donners, as well as man named Louis Keseberg, lost one wagon each.

On the far side of the desert, an inventory of food was taken and found to be less than adequate for the 600 mile trek still ahead. Ominously, snow powdered the mountain peaks that very night. They reached the Humboldt River on September 26<sup>th</sup>.



#### Fort Bridger, Wyoming

Realizing that the difficult journey through the mountains and the desert had depleted their supplies, two of the young men traveling with the party, William McCutcheon and Charles Stanton, were sent ahead to Sutter's Fort, California to bring back supplies.

From September 10<sup>th</sup> through the 25<sup>th</sup>, the party followed the trail into Nevada around the Ruby Mountains, finally reaching the Humboldt River on September 26<sup>th</sup>. It was here that the "new" trail met up with Hastings's original



es through strenuous mountain terrain and dry tment of Hastings, and ultimately, Reed, was

The Donner Party soon reached the junction with the California Trail, about seven miles west of present-day Elko, Nevada and spent the next two weeks traveling along the Humboldt River. As the disillusionment of the party increased, tempers began to flare in the group.





On October 5th at Iron Point, two wagons became entangled and John Snyder, a teamster of one of the wagons began to whip his oxen. Infuriated by the teamster's treatment of the oxen, James Reed ordered the man to stop and when he wouldn't, Reed grabbed his knife and stabbed the teamster in the stomach, killing him. The Donner Party wasted no time in administering their own justice. Though member, Lewis Keseberg, favored hanging for James Reed, the group, instead, voted to banish him. Leaving his family, Reed was last seen riding off to the west with a man named Walter Herron.

The Donner Party continued to travel along the Humboldt River with their remaining draft animals exhausted. To spare the animals, everyone who could, walked. Two days after the Snyder killing, on October 7th, Lewis Keseberg turned out a Belgian man named Hardcoop, who had been traveling with him. The old man, who could not keep up with the rest of the party with his severely swollen feet, began to knock on other wagon doors, but no one would let him in. He was last seen sitting under a large sage brush, completely exhausted, unable to walk, worn out, and was left there to die.

The terrible ordeals of the caravan continued to mount, when on October 12th, their oxen were attacked by Piute Indians, killing 21 one of them with poison tipped arrows, further depleting their draft animals.

Continuing to encounter multiple obstacles, on October 16th, they reached the gateway to the Sierra Nevada on the Truckee River (present day Reno) almost completely depleted of food supplies. Miraculously, just three days later on October 19th, one of the men the party had sent on to Fort Sutter -- Charles Stanton, returned laden with seven mules loaded with beef and flour, two Indian guides, and news of a clear, but difficult path through the Sierra Nevada. Stanton's partner, William McCutchen had fallen ill and remained at the fort. The caravan camped for five days 50 miles from the summit, resting their oxen for the final push. This decision to delay their departure was yet one more of many that would lead to their tragedy.

October 28th, an exhausted James Reed arrived at Sutter's Fort, where he met William McCutchen, now recovered, and the two men began preparations to go back for their families.

In the meantime, while the wagon train continued to the base of summit, George Donner's wagon axle broke and he fell behind the rest of the party. Twenty two people, consisting of the Donner family and their hired men, stayed behind while the wagon was repaired. Unfortunately, while cutting timber for a new axle, a chisel slipped and Donner cut his hand badly, causing the group to fall further behind.

As the rest of the party continued to what is now known as Donner's Lake, snow began to fall. Stanton and the two Indians who were traveling ahead made it as far as the summit, but

could go no further. Hopeless, they retraced their steps where five feet of new snow had already fallen.

With the Sierra pass just 12 miles beyond, the wagon train, after attempting to make the pass through the heavy snow, finally retreated to the eastern end of the lake, where level ground and timber was abundant. At the lake stood one existing cabin and realizing they were stranded, the group built two more cabins, sheltering 59 people in hopes that the early snow would melt, allowing them to continue their travels.

The 22 people with the Donners were about six miles behind at Alder Creek. Hastily, as the snow continued, the party built three shelters from tents, quilts, buffalo robes and brush to protect themselves from the harsh conditions.

At Donner Lake, two more attempts were made to get over the pass in twenty feet of snow, until they finally realized they were snowbound for the winter. More small cabins were constructed, many of which were shared by more than one family. The weather and their hopes were not to improve. Over the next four months, the remaining men, women, and children would huddle together in cabins, make shift lean-tos, and tents. Continued Next Page

Meanwhile, Reed and McCutchen had headed back up into the mountains attempting to rescue their stranded companions. Two days after they started out it began to rain. As the elevation increased, the rain turned to snow and twelve miles from the summit the pair could go no further. Caching their provisions in Bear Valley, they returned to Sutter's fort hoping to recruit more men and supplies for the rescue. However, the Mexican War had drawn away the able-bodied men, forcing any further rescue attempts to wait. Not knowing how many cattle the emigrants had lost, the men believed the party would have enough meat to last them several months.

On Thanksgiving, it began to snow again, and the pioneers at Donner Lake killed the last of their oxen for food on November 29th.

The very next day, five more feet of snow fell, and they knew that any plans for a departure were dashed. Many of their animals, including Sutter's mules, had wandered off into the storms and their bodies were lost under the snow. A few days later their last few cattle were slaughtered for food and party began eating boiled hides, twigs, bones and bark. Some of the men tried to hunt with little success.



rary of Congress.

This image available for photographic prints [HERE!](#)



On December 15, Balis Williams died of malnutrition and the group realized that something had to be done before they all died. The next day five men, nine women

and one child departed on snow shoes for the summit, determined to travel the 100 miles to Sutter's Fort. However, with only meager rations and already weak from hunger the group faced a challenging ordeal. On the sixth day, their food ran out and for the next three days no one ate while they traveled through grueling high winds and freezing weather. One member of the party, Charles Stanton, snow-blind and exhausted was unable to keep up with the rest of the party and told them to go on. He never rejoined the group. A few days later, the party was caught in a blizzard and had great difficulty getting and keeping a fire lit. Antonio, Patrick Dolan, Franklin Graves, and Lemuel Murphy soon died and in desperation, the others resorted to cannibalism.

Living off the bodies of those that died along the path to Sutter's Fort, the snowshoeing survivors were reduced to seven by the time they reached safety on the western side of the mountains on January 19, 1847. Only two of the ten men survived, including William Eddy and William Foster, but all five women lived through the journey. Of the eight dead, seven had been cannibalized. Immediately messages were dispatched to neighboring settlements as area residents rallied to save the rest of the Donner Party.

On February 5, the first relief party of seven men left Johnson's ranch, and the second, headed by James Reed, left two days later. On February 19th, the first party reached the lake finding what appeared to be a deserted camp until the ghostly figure of a woman appeared. Twelve of the emigrants were dead and of the forty-eight remaining, many had gone crazy or were barely clinging to life. However, the nightmare was by no means over. Not everyone could be taken out at one time and since no pack animals could be brought in, few food supplies were brought in.

The first relief party soon left with 23 refugees, but during the party's travels back to Sutter's Fort, two more children died. En route down the mountains the first relief party met the second relief party coming the opposite way and the Reed family was reunited after five months.

On March 1st the second relief party finally arrived at the lake, finding grisly evidence of cannibalism. The next day, they arrived at Alder Creek to find that the Donners had also resorted to cannibalism. On March 3rd, Reed left the camp with 17 of the starving emigrants but just two days later they are caught in another blizzard. When it cleared, Isaac Donner had died and most of the refugees were too weak to travel. Reed and another rescuer, Hiram Miller, took three of the refugees with them hoping to find food they had stored on the way up. The rest of the pioneers stayed at what would become known as "Starved Camp."

On March 12th the third relief led by William Eddy and William Foster reached Starved Camp where Mrs. Graves and her son Franklin had also died. The three bodies, including that of Isaac Donner, had been cannibalized. The next day, they arrived at the lake camp to find that both of their sons had died. On March 14th they arrived at the Alder Creek camp to find George Donner was dying from an infection in the hand that he had injured months before. His wife Tamzene, though in comparatively good health, refused to leave him; sending her three little girls on without her. The relief party soon departed with four more members of the party, leaving those who are too weak to travel. Two rescuers, Jean-Baptiste



Trudeau and Nicholas Clark, are left behind to care for the Donners, but soon abandon them to catch up with the relief party.

A fourth rescue party set out in late March but were soon stranded in a blinding snow storm for several days. On April 17th, the relief party reached the camps to find only Louis Keseberg alive among the mutilated remains of his former companions. Keseberg was the last member of the Donner Party to arrive at Sutter's Fort on April 29th. It took two months and four relief parties to rescue the entire surviving Donner Party.

In the Donner Party tragedy, two-thirds of the men in the party perished, while two-thirds of the women and children lived. Forty-one individuals died, and forty-six survived. In the end, five had died before reaching the mountains, thirty-five perished either at the mountain camps or trying to cross the mountains, and one died just after reaching the valley. Many of those who survived lost toes to frostbite.

The story of the Donner tragedy quickly spread across the country. Newspapers printed letters and diaries, and accused the travelers of bad conduct, cannibalism, and even murder. The surviving members had differing viewpoints, biases and recollections so what actually happened was never extremely clear. Some blamed the power hungry Lansford W. Hastings for the tragedy, while others blamed James Reed for not heeding Clyman's warning about the deadly route.

After the publicity, emigration to California fell off sharply and Hastings' cutoff was all but abandoned. Then, in January 1848, gold was discovered in at John Sutter's Mill in Coloma and gold hungry travelers began to rush out West once again. By late 1849 more than 100,000 people had come to California in search of gold near the streams and canyons where the Donner Party had suffered.

Donner Lake, named for the party, is today a popular mountain resort near Truckee, California. Sutter's Fort, a National Historic Landmark, is located in Colusa, California. The Donner Ca

Sutter's  
in



Fort

Sacramento, California, 1847, photo courtesy Library of Congress

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## THE FIRST TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROAD



The coming of the Transcontinental Railroad, the first communication revolution in the USA.

The First Transcontinental Railroad in the United States was built in the 1860s, linking the well developed railway network of the Eastern coast with rapidly growing California. The main line was officially completed on May 10, 1869. The vast number of people who traveled the line, and the network that followed, set the USA on the path to economic abundance. It also ended the centuries old way of life of the Native Americans and greatly altered the environment.

The rail line was an important goal of President Abraham Lincoln, fostered during the early portion of his term and completed four years after his death. The building of the railroad was motivated in part to bind California to the Union during the American Civil War. The railroad is considered by some to be the greatest technological feat of the 19th century. The transcontinental railroad replaced the slower and more dangerous wagon trains, Pony Express and stagecoach lines that crossed the country by land and the equally difficult sea journey around the southern tip of South America.

The route followed the well established Oregon, Mormon and California Trails. The new line began in Omaha, Nebraska, followed the Platte River, crossed the Rocky Mountains at South Pass in Wyoming and then through northern Utah and Nevada before crossing the Sierras to Sacramento, California. Additional track was laid to connect Denver, Colorado and Salt Lake City, Utah and other cities not directly on the route.

The Central Pacific laid 690 miles (1,110 km) of track, starting in Sacramento, and the Union Pacific laid 1,087 miles (1,749 km) of track, starting in Omaha. The two lines connected at Promontory Summit, Utah.

### **Early Discussions**

Talk of a transcontinental railroad started in 1830, shortly after railroads began large scale operation in the United States. At about the same time English-speaking settlers began settling in Mexican controlled California. Much of the early debate was not so much over

whether it would be built, but what route it should follow: a "central" route, via the Platte River in Nebraska and the South Pass in Wyoming, or a "southern" route, avoiding the Rockies by going through Texas to Los Angeles. (A "northern" option generally following the route explored by Lewis and Clark through Montana and Oregon was considered impractical because of snow.)

In June 1845 Asa Whitney led a team along the proposed central route to assess its capabilities. Whitney travelled widely to solicit support for the rail line, printed maps and pamphlets, and submitted several proposals to Congress. Legislation to begin construction of the Pacific Railroad via the central route was introduced in Congress but not acted on.

### **The Southern Route and the Gadsden Purchase**



California became a U.S. territory in 1848 with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo which ended the Mexican-American War. The very same year saw the beginnings of the California Gold Rush (better known in 1849) which brought great numbers of people west, many of whom stayed. California became increasingly an important part of the United States and the idea of a rail connection to it gained support. Concerns lingered that snow would make the central route impractical. A survey indicated that the best southern path ran through territory still held by Mexico. Therefore in 1853, only five years after taking California by force, the United

States made the Gadsden Purchase from Mexico, acquiring the southern portions of what is now New Mexico and Arizona. This placed the southern transcontinental route entirely within the U.S. However, despite approving the Purchase, Congress did not fund construction of a rail line at that time. The southern route was completed in 1881, giving it the dubious distinction of being America's second transcontinental railroad. The route is generally followed by Interstate 10 today.

### **The Central Route**

In early 1861, Theodore Judah, a rail construction engineer and Daniel Strong, a local miner, surveyed what became the western portion of the route. They proposed a rail line through the Sierra Nevada mountains through Clipper Gap, Emigrant Gap, and Donner Pass, then south to Truckee.

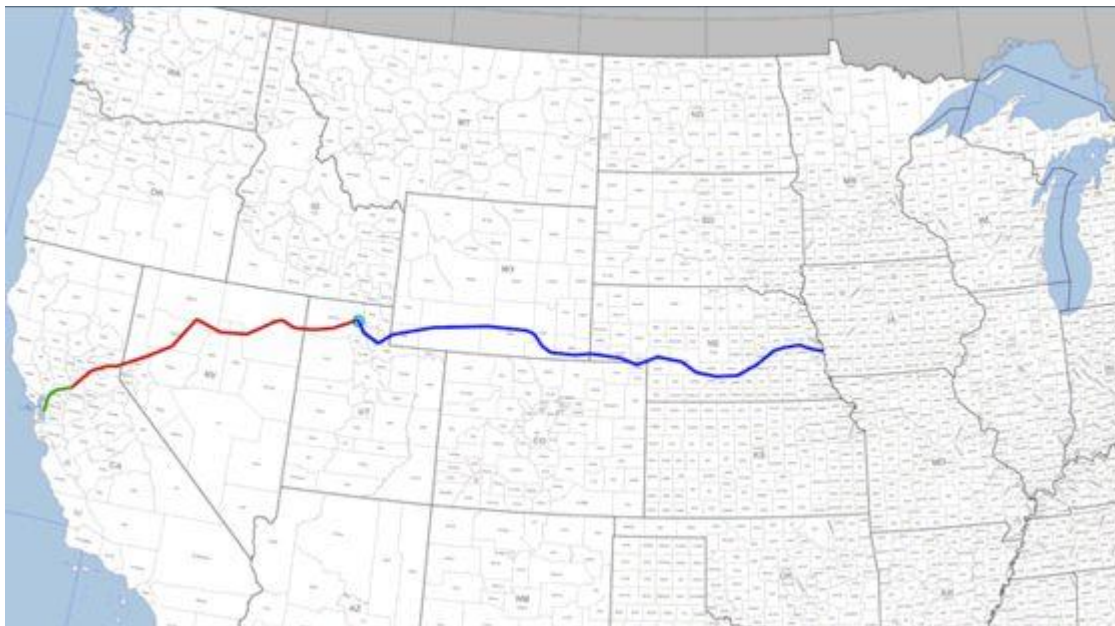
Collis Huntington was inspired by a Theodore Judah lecture on the possibilities of a railroad. Huntington found four partners who initially invested \$1,500 each. The partners included Leland Stanford, a grocer, the future governor of California, and founder of the

university that bears his name. The investors became known as the Big Four and their venture was called the Central Pacific Railroad.

The fabled Pony Express, which provided mail service from the East to California, only operated in 1860 and 1861. In that short time the riders learned that the central route was usable despite the winter snows. With the weather worries cleared away and Texas joining the Confederacy, the central route, always the more favorable economically, became the route of choice.

The House of Representatives voted for the line on May 6, 1862, and the Senate on June 20. Lincoln signed it into law on July 1. Two companies were hired -- the Central Pacific would build from the west and the Union Pacific from the east.

Besides land grants along the right-of-way, each railroad was paid \$16,000 per mile (\$9,940/km) built over an easy grade, \$32,000 per mile (\$19,880/km) in the high plains, and \$48,000 per mile (\$29,830/km) in the mountains. These terms encouraged the companies to construct many extra miles of track, direct the line toward property they owned, and in many other ways exploit the poorly written law to their benefit.



Route of the First Transcontinental Railroad. Original artwork by DanMS subject to the GNU Free Documentation License

Once it was decided that the railroad would follow the central rather than the southern route, there was general agreement that the western terminus would be Sacramento. However, there was considerable competition for the eastern terminus. Abraham Lincoln selected Council Bluffs, near Omaha, although the closest rail line was 150 miles east. He



had visited the site in 1859 while working for Thomas Durant as a private attorney. Durant was a central figure in the TCRR.

### **Labor on the Transcontinental Railroad**

The majority of the Union Pacific track heading westward was built by Irish laborers, by Mormons who constructed much of the track in Utah, and after the war by veterans of the Union and Confederate armies. Chinese immigrants did most of the work on the Central Pacific track. Most White men received between one and three dollars per day, but workers from China received less and were supervised by Whites. Eventually, the Chinese went on strike and gained a small increase in salary. Track laying employed a quarter of the labor force. The operation also required a great number of blacksmiths, carpenters, engineers, masons, surveyors, teamsters, and cooks. Telegraph lines were built following the tracks, bringing near-instant communication.



Rail work in the 1850s was hand work. But see the guy on the left sitting in a chair.

### **The Central Pacific Railroad**

On January 8, 1863, Leland Stanford, now governor, officially broke ground in Sacramento to begin construction of the Central Pacific Railroad. The Central Pacific made quick progress along the Sacramento Valley. However construction soon slowed, first by the

Sierra Nevada mountains and then by winter snowstorms. The mountains required tunneling, a slow, expensive and dangerous process. Holes about 3/4 inch (2 cm) diameter were pounded five feet into the rock face by hammer and chisel, a single hole was a day's work for two men. The holes were then filled with black powder explosive. The workers developed a method, perhaps based on Chinese technique, of placing explosives on the side of cliffs while working from large suspended baskets. The baskets were then rapidly pulled to safety after the fuses were lit. The Central Pacific built 15 tunnels over the course of the construction, the longest was called the Summit with a length of 1659 feet.

### **The Union Pacific Railroad**

The enabling legislation for the Union Pacific required that no partner was to own more than 10 percent of the company's stock. However, the major investor was Thomas Clark Durant, President Lincoln's former employer, who made his money smuggling Confederate cotton. Durant used proxies to control about half the stock of the railroad.

The law provided payment by the mile, so Durant saw to it that the railroad built many miles of track rambling around the countryside, mostly on land Durant owned, never venturing further than 40 miles from Omaha. Durant played this game for 2 1/2 years.

With the end of the Civil War came increased government supervision. The Union Pacific began laying track west. Construction was handed to another company controlled by Durant, Crédit Mobilier.



Engraving by Vaningen Snyder It is supremely ironic that Abraham Lincoln, known for ending Black slavery, was also responsible for the railroad that destroyed much of Native American culture.

Westward construction proceeded very quickly over the open terrain of the Great Plains. Soon, however, they entered Indian-held lands. The Native Americans saw the railroad as a violation of their treaties with the United States. Some groups began to raid the labor camps along the line. Union Pacific responded by increasing security and by hiring marksmen to kill Bison (commonly known as American buffalo) which were both a physical threat to trains and the primary food source for the Plains Indians. The pointed wedge of iron bars at the front of early train engines was called a "cow catcher". It served the same purpose for bison, lifting and pushing the errant beast to the side, preventing derailment of the train but usually killing the animal. As tourists began streaming west, some amused themselves during the long journey by shooting bison from the windows of their rail cars.

Most killing of bison, though, was for the fine leather of their skins, useful both for clothing and as belts for industrial machines. The rail line gave the hunters convenient access to markets, and soon there was a widening gap in the bison herd as the hunt progressed outward from the rails. Estimates put the population of bison at the beginning of the 19th century at 30 to 100 million over all of North America. By the mid 1880's the population was down to a few hundred. From this tiny remnant a few conservationists were able to restore the species to stability.

### **The Famous Golden Spike**

Six years after work began, laborers of the Central Pacific Railroad from the west and the Union Pacific Railroad from the east met at Promontory Summit, Utah. It was here on May 10, 1869 that Governor Stanford drove the Golden Spike (or the Last Spike), that symbolized the completion of the transcontinental railroad. Few were aware that the spike was merely gold plated, gold being much too soft for the purpose, and probably not billable.

In perhaps the world's first live mass-media event, the hammer and spike were wired to the telegraph line so that each hammer stroke would be heard as a click at telegraph stations nationwide. Technical problems occurred, so clicks were actually sent by the telegraph operator, which makes this, most likely, the world's first fake mass media event.

Indeed, there were four spikes driven that afternoon. A message was then transmitted over the new telegraph lines that read: "DONE." Those spikes, along with the special polished California Laurel tie, were replaced with ordinary ones as soon as the celebrities went off to their gala parties.

There was great celebration around the country, travel time from coast to coast had been reduced from six months to one week.



It has been noted that no Chinese workers are present in this famous photograph of the Golden Spike ceremony, despite having done half the work. Such were the times. Each group had its' own party, but the white guys got to play with the locomotives. Photo by Andrew Russell, 1869.

### **The First Transcontinental Railroad Journey**

Despite the publicity for the "last spike", the American rail network did not yet actually run to either coast. In August 1870 the final connection was made. The journey was not cheap - the fare from Omaha to San Francisco in a third class sleeping car was about \$65.

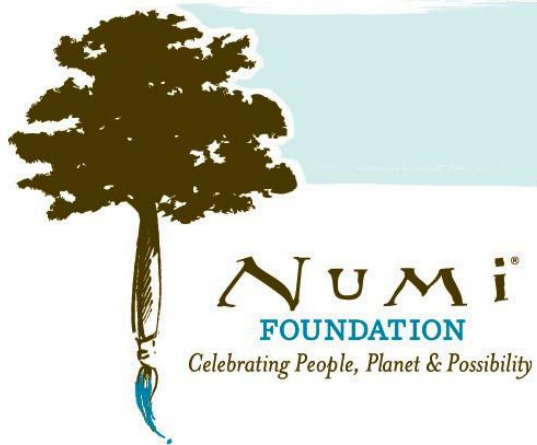
On June 4, 1876 a train named the Transcontinental Express arrived in San Francisco 83 hours and 39 minutes after it left New York City. The Union Pacific RR was in bankruptcy less than three years after the completion of the line as details surfaced about overcharges by Credit Mobilier for the building of the railroad. The scandal was one of the biggest of the 19th century.

### **Remnants of the Line and Information for Travelers**

Promontory Summit was bypassed by a shorter route in 1904, the rails there were pulled up in 1942 and recycled for the war effort. This began with a ceremonial "undriving" at the Golden Spike location. Today hundreds of miles of the historic TCRR line are still in service, especially through the Sierra Nevada Mountains and canyons in Utah and Wyoming. While the original rails and ties have long since been replaced, and the roadbed has been upgraded and repaired, the lines generally run on top of the original grade. Vista points on Interstate 80 through California's Truckee Canyon provide a panoramic view of many miles of the original Central Pacific grade. In many areas where the original line has been bypassed and abandoned, primarily in Utah, the former route is still obvious. Amtrak runs the California Zephyr rail service using the original Transcontinental Railroad route from Sacramento to Winnemucca, Nevada. The Zephyr often uses the original route on the westbound runs from Winnemucca to Wells, Nevada. The eastbound runs between these towns usually use more recent tracks.

Today the rail line moves through a far different countryside. Wheat fields fill the plains instead of buffalo, condos have replaced the Indian Tipi. But people still ride the train to visit their family and conductors still swing their lanterns as the train passes by. In another hundred years they probably still will. The Transcontinental Railroad Information extensively revised and edited from Wikipedia and other sources. Wikipedia material is subject to the terms of use of Wikipedia.org





## **American Indian Cooperation and Conflict**



## American Indian Cooperation and Conflict I

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.3

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening activity-Talking Stick, give the children a talking point about cooperation and conflict
- Teacher led discussion
- Reading
- Summarizing

### MATERIAL

- Talking stick
- Reading material
- Journals
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Repeat Talking Stick activity. Give the children a talking point about cooperation and conflict.
- Review the exploration of North America and discuss how it might feel if people came to school and decided they wanted to move in and start to push out the people who were in school first.
- Give the children a copy of the reading material. (Included here and in the Teacher Supplement). They are to read it first and then write a summary of the material with introduction, body, and conclusion. The teacher will collect after class and correct.
- When finished writing and correcting, the students should take out their journals and either write how they feel about the idea of people coming to live on their land or draw a scene where the new people are welcomed onto the land.
- Class Finishes

### **Cooperation and Conflict in North America**

- When the Europeans arrived in North America in the late 1400's, there was cooperation and conflict between the Native Americans and between them and the new settlers. The Europeans called their settlements, "The New World," and competed with each other and the Indian nations for land or territory, trade and economics, and political control. By the 1600's, Nova Scotia and Quebec had been claimed by the French, Jamestown and the Massachusetts Bay Colony claimed by the English, New Spain by the Spanish, and New Amsterdam by the Dutch.
- The Indian nations each dealt with the European newcomers differently. Some declared war. Others were neutral. Many American Indians negotiated treaties so that life could remain peaceful. Nations competed with each other in agriculture, fur trading, military alliances, and culture. The Europeans introduced new crops and domestic livestock into the diets of the American Indians. These changed the environment and introduced diseases that killed many American Indian tribes.
- It became impossible for the Indian nations to be neutral while the European colonists threatened their lives. Increasingly, there were broken treaties, skirmishes and massacres. American Indians rejected the European culture and authority, returned to their native spiritual traditions, and created military, political and economic alliances among American Indian nations and tribes. In the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, (1600's and 1700's), American Indians were angry about the formation of permanent European settlements and the expansion of commercial farming on native land.
- The tensions that existed between native tribes was made worse with the arrival of the Europeans. Suddenly, American Indians were trading with Europeans and not other tribes, breaking agreements that had been in place. Land disputes among the Iroquois, Huron, and Sioux led to war which was made more violent with the introduction of gunpowder from the Europeans.

- Britain and France had a history of war before they came to “The New World.” In the French and Indian War (1754-1763), also called the Seven Years’ War, the Iroquois sided with the British and Dutch and fought against the French.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: COOPERATION AND CONFLICT

When the Europeans arrived in North America in the late 1400's, there was cooperation and conflict between the Native Americans and between them and the new settlers. The Europeans called their settlements, "The New World," and competed with each other and the Indian nations for land or territory, trade and economics, and political control. By the 1600's, Nova Scotia and Quebec had been claimed by the French, Jamestown and the Massachusetts Bay Colony claimed by the English, New Spain by the Spanish, and New Amsterdam by the Dutch.

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The End



## American Indian Cooperation and Conflict II

### STANDARDS

CC5.3

### OBJECTIVES

- Last Talking Stick activity
- Role Play

### MATERIAL

- Talking stick

### Preparation:

- Last Talking Stick activity. Give the children a talking point about cooperation and conflict.
- Review the material read and the summaries written about this subject in the last class.
- Begin first role play by taking two students to the side and quietly explaining their role play without the class hearing. Two students, one Native American, one European discuss their points of view about the European settlements in what they called, "The New World." After the role play, have students in the class tell what they saw and how that relates to the essay they read and the summaries they wrote.

- Second Role Play. Native American Women caring for their children who are sick with measles brought to this land by the European settlers.
- Third Role Play. Native American tribal leaders acting out the making arrows and arrow heads while discussing how the tribes have turned against each other in order to get trade business from the settlers.
- Fourth Role Play. Two settlers with opposite points of view discuss the cooperation or antagonism they have experienced with the Native Americans who are people they never saw in Europe.
- Fifth Role Play. Large group of children, half in favor of European settlers taking land from the Native people for their own and the other half arguing that it is wrong to take their land.
- If time allows, have the students create ideas for more role plays.
- If not, class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**





## The Colonial Era



## The Colonial Era I: The Thirteen Colonies

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.4

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Map drawing

### MATERIAL

- Paper and drawing pencils for map drawing

### Preparation:

- Opening activity will be to learn to recite from memory the preamble to the Constitution and the introduction and preamble to the Declaration of Independence. Both are included here. Do not give to the children in writing. Begin with one and recite each class until it is memorized. They should stand while speaking. Discussion of these documents will come later in the curriculum.

### U.S. Constitution—Preamble

- We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

**Declaration of Independence—Introduction and Preamble**

**IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.**

**The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America**

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

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

- Teacher led discussion of the 13 colonies and how they differed. (See Teacher Supplement).
- The children will draw a map of the 13 colonies in their journals. (See Teacher Supplement). Have students copy from a board drawing or a large sheet of paper displayed for the class.
- The children will write in their journals about how it would feel to leave home and move to a new land.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## SETTLING THE COLONIES

### THE FOLLOWING MATERIAL IS CONTAINED IN THE CALIFORNIA COMMON CORE CURRICULUM

A brief overview of French and Spanish colonization in the New World introduces students to the different groups of people who met on the North American continent. The Spanish and French colonial systems differed from the British in that they did not have entrenched colonial populations consisting of families living in permanent settlements. Major emphasis in this unit is placed on the English colonies, where the settlers and colonists shaped the economic and political values and institutions of the new nation. Students chronicle and evaluate how the British colonial period created the basis for the development of political self-government and a free-market economic system.

The original 13 colonies differed regionally in economic, political, religious, and social development. As students compare and contrast the colonies, teachers guide students in considering how geography and climate affected their establishment and organization. For example, why did seaport cities become more prominent in New England and the Middle Colonies, and what effect did this have on commerce in the regions? Why did plantations dominate in the South while family farms flourished in New England? Students study how geography affected economic development and subsequently influenced the political organization of the colonies. Finally, religious orientation also contributed to the variation in the colonies' social and political structure.

### **Southern Colonies**

Southern colonies developed an economy based on agriculture. The settlement of Jamestown in the Chesapeake Bay region was a risky venture, in light of the failure of its predecessors. Virginia's first immigrants included a small number of lesser gentry and laborers, including indentured servants, who made up the largest segment of the population. Captain John Smith directed the digging of wells, the planting of crops, and the construction of shelter. He also introduced a system of incentives, proclaiming that people who would not work would not get to eat. John Rolfe's suggestion of growing and selling tobacco ensured Jamestown's economic livelihood and led to the formation of the plantation economy.

The first Africans arrived in Jamestown in 1619. In seventeenth-century colonial Virginia, some Africans came as indentured servants, while others had been sold or traded as enslaved labor. A few gained their freedom. Changing economic and labor conditions, as well as presumptions of racial inequity, contributed to the tobacco planters' increasing reliance on slavery as a major source of labor.

Starting with Maryland in 1641 (technically a middle colony), laws spread to southern colonies that codified slavery throughout the Atlantic Seaboard. By the 1680s, the institution of slavery was firmly established as part of colonial economies. Students can study maps, ships' logs, and other primary sources to clarify the eighteenth-century transatlantic slave trade that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe.

In their study of Virginia, students understand the importance of the House of Burgesses as the first representative assembly in the European colonies. How did Virginia's status as a royal charter and government affect the political rights of the settlers? Who was allowed to

vote? Who was excluded? They also learn the meaning of the established church as Anglicans in Virginia understood it.

Beyond Virginia, the founding of southern colonies ranged in purpose and organization. Teachers assist students in determining how geography and climate affected the southern colonies' agricultural production. For example, tobacco cultivation dominated in Maryland; in Georgia and North and South Carolina, humid, swampy fields were conducive to rice farming.

### **Life in New England**

New England provided a dramatic contrast with the southern colonies. Two groups of Christians sought to live there with an emphasis on their religious beliefs: the separatist Pilgrims, who broke with the Church of England, and the Puritans, who sought to reform and purify the church from within.

The story of the Pilgrims begins with their flight from England and religious dissent within the Church of England, their temporary haven in the Netherlands, and their voyage to the New World aboard the Mayflower. After an arduous trip, 41 male "saints" organized and joined in signing the Mayflower Compact to "covenant and combine our selves together into a civil body politick." Led by William Bradford, the Pilgrims finally settled Plymouth in 1620. In keeping with the times, they did not ask women to sign.

Life in the new land was hard, and at first the American Indians aided the settlers. However, relations between the colonists and American Indians eventually grew violent because of land rights and trade alliances. Increasingly outnumbered, outgunned, and ravaged by diseases, the native population declined. As students examine the era, teachers help them to envision the simple homes and the rigors of each day. They might also analyze the work of men, women, and children to get a sense of each member's function in the colonial home.

The Puritans also had an enduring influence on American literature, education, and attitudes toward life and work. Inspired by religious zeal, Puritans sought to establish "a city upon a hill" where they might live out their religious ideals. Led by John Winthrop, they founded Boston and within 10 years had opened Harvard College and the first common school in Massachusetts. They valued hard work, social obligation, simple living, and self-governing congregations. Their religious views shaped their way of life, clothing, laws, forms of punishment, education practices, gender expectations, and institutions of self-government. Although they came to Massachusetts to escape religious persecution, the Puritans established a society intolerant of religious dissent and diversity. An examination of the experiences of Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson reveals the Puritans' intolerance of religious dissent and their insistence that women firmly conform to gender-specific expectations. At the same time, the stories of Anne Hutchinson and Roger Williams are milestones in the development of religious freedom in Connecticut and Rhode Island.

The colonies of Maryland, New Amsterdam, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware provided havens for a wide variety of ethnic, linguistic, and religious groups, including English, Dutch, Swedish, German, Irish, Scottish, Catholic, and Jewish settlers. Mapping activities can reveal to students the diversity of these colonies. In identifying the religious and political origins of the colonies, students discover that Catholics established Maryland as a political and religious refuge but became outnumbered by Protestants in search of free land. In Pennsylvania, William Penn founded a Quaker colony that practiced religious

tolerance and representative government. Industrious farmers, fur traders, skilled craftspersons, indentured servants, slaves, merchants, bankers, shipbuilders, and overseas traders made the colony prosperous. Fertile soil and mild climate enabled the middle colonies to thrive and led to the development of New York and Philadelphia as busy seaports.

## MAP OF THE 13 COLONIES



### Southern Colonies

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## THE ROAD TO THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

British efforts to exert more power over the colonies resulted in a strong reaction and a growing spirit of resistance. For example, Parliament's efforts to assert imperial sovereignty over the colonies and impose taxes, because of the debts incurred during the French and Indian War, fueled a growing dissatisfaction with Parliament among colonists, particularly among those who firmly believed that only the colonial assemblies were empowered to raise taxes. Students should become familiar with the Stamp Act of 1765 and the colonists' outrage against it; the Townshend Acts that again stirred protest and led to the Boston Massacre; the tax on tea that provoked the Boston Tea Party; and the Coercive Acts, designed in part to punish colonists for their destruction of tea. Amidst these struggles, the colonists still perceived themselves as fully British. In general, the feeling of the King and Parliament was that the French and Indian War had been fought to protect the colonists and it consequently drained the British Treasury. Parliament's efforts to repress resistance led to the first Continental Congress of 1774 and the Committees of Correspondence that established communication between the colonies and forged a new national identity based on opposition to British policies. In discussing the conflict, students can read excerpts from speeches in the Parliament by William Pitt and Edmund Burke, whose pleas for moderation were ignored. Students learn that a third of the colonists remained loyal to King George III, and many others were undecided. For example, John Dickinson of Pennsylvania argued against independence and promoted reconciliation. He maintained that independence would lead to chaos. Philadelphia merchant Thomas Clifford complained, "Independence would assuredly prove unprofitable." He feared that France and Spain would prey on the colonies without British protection.

Students consider Thomas Paine's *Common Sense*, published in January 1776. Paine galvanized support for independence by persuasively arguing that America needed to break free from a government that violated the natural rights of its citizens. "We have it in our power, to begin the world over again . . . the birthday of a new world is at hand," Paine promised. Over 120,000 copies of *Common Sense* sold within its first few months of publication.

Paine's arguments became the foundation of the Declaration of Independence, drafted by Thomas Jefferson. Influenced by leading Enlightenment thinkers as well as other revolutionaries, the Declaration of Independence listed grievances against King George, outlined a social contract between the government and the governed, and declared independence from Great Britain. Teachers should help students read and understand the Declaration, given its importance to American history and its relevance today. Although written in the eighteenth century, its discussion of natural rights and the relationship between the governed and the government became pillars of American democracy.



## The Colonial Era II: Southern Colonies

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.4

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Journal Writing

### MATERIAL

- Journals and Pencils

### Preparation:

- Opening activity will be to learn to recite from memory the preamble to the Constitution and the Introduction and preamble to the Declaration of Independence.
- Teacher led discussion about the southern colonies and their agricultural economy and slavery.
- Children will write a story in their journals about a child growing up in a southern colony. Teacher explains how a story that is partly fiction and partly history is historical fiction.
- Class Finishes.

### Notes/Feedback:



## The Colonial Era III: New England

### STANDARDS

CC5.4

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Drawing

### MATERIAL

- Journals or drawing paper and drawing pencils or crayons

### Preparation:

- Opening activity will be to learn to recite from memory the preamble to the Constitution and the Introduction and preamble to the Declaration of Independence.
- Teacher led discussion about the colonies of New England including a story about the first Thanksgiving. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Children will draw the first Thanksgiving in their journals or on large paper to display.
- Children will view each other's drawings.
- Class Finishes.

### Notes/Feedback:



## The Colonial Era IV: Maryland, New Amsterdam, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware

### STANDARDS

#### CC5.4

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Role play/charade game

### Preparation:

- Opening activity will be to learn to recite from memory the preamble to the Constitution and the Introduction and preamble to the Declaration of Independence.
- Teacher led discussion about the remaining colonies and their unique qualities. (See Teacher Supplement).
- Role Play. Have children act out living in one of the thirteen colonies as a charade and at the end have the class guess which colony is being acted out.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**





## The Revolutionary War

## Notes/Feedback:



# The Revolutionary War I

## STANDARDS

### CC5.5

## OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion

## Preparation:

- Opening activity will be to learn to recite from memory the preamble to the Constitution and the Introduction and preamble to the Declaration of Independence. If these both have memorized, introduce the song, Yankee Doodle Dandy (See Teacher Supplement).
- Teacher led discussion to include: The Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, tea tax, Coercive Acts, 1st and 2nd Continental Congress, writing of the Declaration of Independence and a biography of one or more of the following, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher should write an outline on the board or on large paper of the information presented for the children to copy in their journals.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## The Revolutionary War II

### STANDARDS

CC5.5

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Reading of the Declaration of Independence

### MATERIAL

- Copies of the Declaration of Independence for each child

### Preparation:

- Opening activity will be to learn to recite from memory the preamble to the Constitution and the Introduction and preamble to the Declaration of Independence. If these both have memorized, introduce the song, Yankee Doodle Dandy (See Teacher Supplement).
- Teacher should review information previous class with children looking at their outlines. Teacher should ask questions of children necessitating their looking for answers in their outlines.
- With teacher, class should read The Declaration of Independence aloud, stopping for explanation from teacher.
- Children should write in their journals what Independence meant to the original colonists and what it means to each of us today. This should be shared aloud.
- Class Finishes.

### Notes/Feedback:



## The Revolutionary War III: Battles

### Week 18.2

#### STANDARDS

CC5.6

#### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Reading and summarizing
- 

#### MATERIAL

- Maps of American Revolution battles
- Journals
- Pencils

#### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing Yankee Doodle (See Teacher Supplement)
- Review the causes of the American Revolution.
- Show the class maps of the major battles of the Revolution.

- Have students read the printout of “The American Revolution begins with the Battles of Lexington and Concord.
- Have each child summarize this reading in class or for homework in their journal.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## The Revolutionary War IV: The Leaders

### STANDARDS

CC5.6

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing The Star Spangled Banner, My Country tis of Thee or America the Beautiful (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about Franklin, Lafayette, Steuben, Abigail Adams, Molly Pitcher, James Armistead.
- Divide group into four. One group will discuss Franklin, Lafayette, Steuben, second will discuss Abigail Adams, third will discuss Molly Pitcher and fourth will discuss James Armistead.
- Each group must answer the following questions about their revolutionary person: (This may be a written assignment for homework)
  - What work did this person do during the American Revolution?
  - What kind of personality do you think they had? Outgoing, shy, smart, quick to get angry, polite...
  - If they lived today, would they think we are living the words of the Declaration of Independence? Life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness?

- Each group will share their answers with the class.
- 5.Class Finishes

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Teacher Supplement: Founders

### GEORGE WASHINGTON

On April 30, 1789, George Washington, standing on the balcony of Federal Hall on Wall Street in New York, took his oath of office as the first President of the United States. "As the first of everything, in our situation will serve to establish a Precedent," he wrote James Madison, "it is devoutly wished on my part, that these precedents may be fixed on true principles." Born in 1732 into a Virginia planter family, he learned the morals, manners, and body of knowledge requisite for an 18th century Virginia gentleman.

He pursued two intertwined interests: military arts and western expansion. At 16 he helped survey Shenandoah lands for Thomas, Lord Fairfax. Commissioned a lieutenant colonel in 1754, he fought the first skirmishes of what grew into the French and Indian War. The next year, as an aide to Gen. Edward Braddock, he escaped injury although four bullets ripped his coat and two horses were shot from under him.

From 1759 to the outbreak of the American Revolution, Washington managed his lands around Mount Vernon and served in the Virginia House of Burgesses. Married to a widow, Martha Dandridge Custis, he devoted himself to a busy and happy life. But like his fellow planters, Washington felt himself exploited by British merchants and hampered by British regulations. As the quarrel with the mother country grew acute, he moderately but firmly voiced his resistance to the restrictions.

When the Second Continental Congress assembled in Philadelphia in May 1775, Washington, one of the Virginia delegates, was elected Commander in Chief of the Continental Army. On July 3, 1775, at Cambridge, Massachusetts, he took command of his ill-trained troops and embarked upon a war that was to last six grueling years.

He realized early that the best strategy was to harass the British. He reported to Congress, "we should on all Occasions avoid a general Action, or put anything to the Risque, unless compelled by a necessity, into which we ought never to be drawn." Ensuing battles saw him fall back slowly, then strike unexpectedly. Finally in 1781 with the aid of French allies--he forced the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Washington longed to retire to his fields at Mount Vernon. But he soon realized that the Nation under its Articles of Confederation was not functioning well, so he became a prime mover in the steps leading to the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia in 1787. When the new Constitution was ratified, the Electoral College unanimously elected Washington President.

He did not infringe upon the policy making powers that he felt the Constitution gave Congress. But the determination of foreign policy became preponderantly a Presidential concern. When the French Revolution led to a major war between France and England, Washington refused to accept entirely the recommendations of either his Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson, who was pro-French, or his Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton, who was pro-British. Rather, he insisted upon a neutral course until the United States could grow stronger.

To his disappointment, two parties were developing by the end of his first term. Wearied of politics, feeling old, he retired at the end of his second. In his Farewell Address, he urged his countrymen to forswear excessive party spirit and geographical distinctions. In foreign affairs, he warned against long-term alliances. Washington enjoyed less than three years of retirement

at Mount Vernon, for he died of a throat infection December 14, 1799. For months the Nation mourned him.

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Learn more about George Washington's spouse, [Martha Dandridge Custis Washington](#).

## **THOMAS JEFFERSON**

In the thick of party conflict in 1800, Thomas Jefferson wrote in a private letter, "I have sworn upon the altar of God eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the mind of man."

This powerful advocate of liberty was born in 1743 in Albemarle County, Virginia, inheriting from his father, a planter and surveyor, some 5,000 acres of land, and from his mother, a Randolph, high social standing. He studied at the College of William and Mary, then read law. In 1772 he married Martha Wayles Skelton, a widow, and took her to live in his partly constructed mountaintop home, Monticello.

Freckled and sandy-haired, rather tall and awkward, Jefferson was eloquent as a correspondent, but he was no public speaker. In the Virginia House of Burgesses and the Continental Congress, he contributed his pen rather than his voice to the patriot cause. As the "silent member" of the Congress, Jefferson, at 33, drafted the Declaration of Independence. In years following he labored to make its words a reality in Virginia. Most notably, he wrote a bill establishing religious freedom, enacted in 1786.

Jefferson succeeded Benjamin Franklin as minister to France in 1785. His sympathy for the French Revolution led him into conflict with Alexander Hamilton when Jefferson was Secretary of State in President Washington's Cabinet. He resigned in 1793.

Sharp political conflict developed, and two separate parties, the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans, began to form. Jefferson gradually assumed leadership of the Republicans, who sympathized with the revolutionary cause in France. Attacking Federalist policies, he opposed a strong centralized Government and championed the rights of states.

As a reluctant candidate for President in 1796, Jefferson came within three votes of election. Through a flaw in the Constitution, he became Vice President, although an opponent of President Adams. In 1800 the defect caused a more serious problem. Republican electors, attempting to name both a President and a Vice President from their own party, cast a tie vote between Jefferson and Aaron Burr. The House of Representatives settled the tie. Hamilton, disliking both Jefferson and Burr, nevertheless urged Jefferson's election.

When Jefferson assumed the Presidency, the crisis in France had passed. He slashed Army and Navy expenditures, cut the budget, eliminated the tax on whiskey so unpopular in the West, yet reduced the national debt by a third. He also sent a naval squadron to fight the Barbary pirates, who were harassing American commerce in the Mediterranean. Further, although the Constitution made no provision for the acquisition of new land, Jefferson suppressed his qualms over constitutionality when he had the opportunity to acquire the Louisiana Territory from Napoleon in 1803.

During Jefferson's second term, he was increasingly preoccupied with keeping the Nation from involvement in the Napoleonic wars, though both England and France interfered with the neutral rights of American merchantmen. Jefferson's attempted solution, an embargo upon American shipping, worked badly and was unpopular.

Jefferson retired to Monticello to ponder such projects as his grand designs for the University of Virginia. A French nobleman observed that he had placed his house and his mind "on an elevated situation, from which he might contemplate the universe."

He died on July 4, 1826.

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Learn more about Thomas Jefferson's spouse, [Martha Wayles Skelton Jefferson](#).

## **BENJAMIN FRANKLIN**

Born in Boston in 1706, Benjamin Franklin organized the United States' first lending library and volunteer fire department. His scientific pursuits included investigations into electricity, mathematics and mapmaking. He helped draft the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution, and negotiated the 1783 Treaty of Paris, which marked the end of the Revolutionary War.

### **Early Life**

Benjamin Franklin was born on January 17, 1706, in Boston in what was then known as the Massachusetts Bay Colony. His father, Josiah Franklin, a soap and candle maker, had 17 children, seven with first wife, Anne Child, and 10 with second wife Abiah Folger. Benjamin was his 15th child and the last son. Despite his success at the Boston Latin School, Ben was removed at 10 to work with his father at candle making, but dipping wax and cutting wicks didn't fire his imagination. Perhaps to dissuade him from going to sea as one of his brothers had done, Josiah apprenticed Ben at 12 to his brother James at his print shop. Ben took to this like a duck to water, despite his brother's hard treatment. When James refused to publish any of his brother's writing, Ben adopted the pseudonym Mrs. Silence Dogood, and "her" 14 imaginative and witty letters were published in his brother's newspaper, *The New England Courant*, to the delight of the readership. But James was angry when it was discovered the letters were his brother's, and Ben abandoned his apprenticeship shortly afterward, escaping to New York, but settling in Philadelphia, which was his home base for the rest of his life.

Franklin furthered his education in the printing trade in Philadelphia, lodging at the home of John Read in 1723, where he met and courted Read's daughter Deborah. Nevertheless, the following year, Franklin left for London under the auspices of Pennsylvania Governor William Keith, but felt duped when letters of introduction never arrived and he was forced to find work at print shops there. Once employed, though, he was able to take full advantage of the city's pleasures, attending theater, mingling with the populace in coffee houses and continuing his lifelong passion for reading. He also managed to publish his first pamphlet, "A Dissertation upon Liberty and Necessity, Pleasure and Pain."

Franklin returned to Philadelphia in 1726 to find that Deborah Read had married. In the next few years he held varied jobs such as bookkeeper, shopkeeper and currency cutter. He also fathered a son, William, out of wedlock during this time. In late 1727, Franklin formed the "Junto," a social and self-improvement study group for young men, and early the next year was able to establish his own print shop with a partner.

### **Prominent Citizen**

After publishing another pamphlet, "The Nature and Necessity of a Paper Currency," Franklin was able to purchase *The Pennsylvania Gazette* newspaper from a former boss, and was elected the official printer of Pennsylvania. He was also able to take Deborah Read as his common-law wife in 1730, after her husband disappeared after stealing a slave. Their first son, Francis, was born in 1732 (although he died four years later of smallpox).

Franklin's prominence and success grew during the 1730s, especially with the publication of *Poor Richard's Almanack* at the end of 1732. Franklin amassed real estate and businesses,

organized the Union Fire Company to counteract dangerous fire hazards, established a lending library so others could share his passion for reading, and was elected Grand Master of the Pennsylvania Masons, clerk of the state assembly and postmaster of Philadelphia.

The 1740s saw Franklin expanding into entrepreneurship with invention of the Franklin stove, and also into scientific pursuits. His pamphlet "A Proposal for Promoting Useful Knowledge" underscored his interests. His beloved daughter Sarah was born in 1743. He became a soldier in the Pennsylvania militia at the age of 42, but his abiding interest in electricity was ignited at this time, too. He conducted the famous kite-and-key experiment in 1752 after some of his theories on electricity were published in England the previous year.

### **Public Service**

Franklin was tapped as a foreign diplomat and represented the Pennsylvania Assembly, and subsequently Massachusetts, Georgia and New Jersey, in England, but he continued to work toward colonial union and in 1766 supported the repeal of the Stamp Act.

In 1775, Franklin was elected to the Second Continental Congress and as postmaster general for the colonies, having mapped the postal routes in 1762. And in 1776, he was one of five men to draft the Declaration of Independence. Franklin was also one of the 13 men who drafted the Articles of Confederation.

### **Later Years**

Much has been made of Franklin's life in Paris as essentially the first U.S. ambassador to France, chiefly his romantic life. Deborah, his wife of 44 years, died in 1774, two years before he accepted the post, and Franklin had a rich romantic life in his nine years abroad. He even proposed marriage, to a widow named Madame Helvetius, at the age of 74, but she rejected him. Franklin was embraced in France as much, if not more, for his intellectual standing in the scientific community and for his wit, as for his status as a political appointee from a fledgling country. His reputation facilitated respect and entrees into closed communities, including that of King Louis XVI. And it was his adept diplomacy that led to the peace treaty with England in 1783 and other foreign alliances and trade treaties.

After almost a decade in France, Franklin returned to America in 1785. He was elected to represent Pennsylvania at the Constitutional Convention, which drafted and ratified the new U.S. Constitution, and participated in electing George Washington as the country's first president, inaugurated in April 1789.

He also served as president of the Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, wrote many tracts urging the abolition of slavery and petitioned the U.S. Congress for it in 1790.

## **Successes and Failures**

With so many of America's early heroes, successes take the spotlight, while failures are rarely mentioned. But with any great entrepreneur the failures are just paving stones to the triumphs. Franklin himself said, "Do not fear mistakes. You will know failure. Continue to reach out."

He took his own advice. Franklin mapped the Gulf Stream, invented swim fins, the lightning rod and musical instruments, established colleges, and amassed scores of other accomplishments. His self-education earned him honorary degrees from Harvard, Yale, Oxford University in England, and the University of St. Andrews in Scotland. But he also began a magazine that failed, devised a new "scheme" for the alphabet that proposed to eliminate the letters C, J, Q, W, X and Y as redundant, and made disastrous political decisions that involved the leaking of letters, called the "Hutchinson Affair." He also made an ill-advised recommendation for Pennsylvania's stamp distribution that caused the public to misconstrue where he stood on American support. His own son William, whom he helped to achieve the governorship of New Jersey, opposed him on the unification of the colonies, which stung Franklin to the point where he mentioned it in his will almost 25 years later. Franklin's voracious capacity for knowledge, investigation and finding practical solutions to problems was his primary focus, as was his commitment to "doing good," which led to the concept of paying it forward.

## **Death and Legacy**

Benjamin Franklin died on April 17, 1790, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, at the home of his daughter, Sarah Bache. He was 84, suffered from gout and had complained of ailments for some time, completing the final codicil to his will a little more than a year and a half prior to his death. Franklin had actually written his epitaph when he was 22: The body of B. Franklin, Printer (Like the Cover of an Old Book Its Contents torn Out And Stript of its Lettering and Gilding) Lies Here, Food for Worms. But the Work shall not be Lost; For it will (as he Believ'd) Appear once More In a New and More Elegant Edition Revised and Corrected By the Author. In the end, however, the stone on the grave he shared with his wife read simply, "Benjamin and Deborah Franklin 1790." The image of Benjamin Franklin that has come down through history, along with the image on the \$100 bill, is something of a caricature—a bald man in a frock coat holding a kite string with a key attached. But the scope of things he applied himself to was so broad it seems a shame. Founding universities and libraries, the post office, shaping the foreign policy of the fledgling United States, drafting the Declaration of Independence, publishing newspapers, warming us with the Franklin stove, pioneering advances in science, letting us see with bifocals and, yes, lighting our way with electricity—all from a man who never finished school but shaped his life through abundant reading and experience, a strong moral compass and an unflagging commitment to civic duty, and an overall wit, good humor and integrity. Franklin illumined corners of American life that still have the lingering glow of his attention. He was a true polymath and entrepreneur, which is no doubt why he is often called the First American. Perhaps it is a fitting image after all. © 2013 A+E Networks. All rights reserved.

## MOLLY PITCHER



Molly Pitcher was a brave and heroic woman. She served our country in a time of need. For that we have given her great recognition. She was one of America's founding leaders and one of the American Revolution's greatest Patriots ever.

Molly Pitcher was born in 1754 in Trenton, New Jersey. Her birth name was Mary Ludwig. She grew up and moved to Carlisle, Pennsylvania, and lived there until she died. Her first job when she moved to Carlisle was a servant. She was sixteen when she married a barber named William Hays. When her husband decided to go fight in the war, Molly tagged along.

In the Battle of Monmouth on July 28, 1778, soldiers were falling left and right because of the heat. When the temperatures got really high, she carried pitchers

of water to the soldiers. That's how she got her name, Molly Pitcher.

Image courtesy of Art Today. When her husband and other men became wounded, she helped to tend them. When her husband could not fight any longer in the battle of Monmouth, she took over his place at the cannon. After the battle, General Washington found out about her heroic actions. He then named her Sergeant Molly.

In 1789, William Hays died. Molly then married George McCauley. She died in the year 1832 at age 78. Now, you can visit her grave site in Carlisle, Pennsylvania. A flag and cannon stand by her tombstone. Her life was a long one and very happily lived.



## ABIGAIL ADAMS

- **Occupation:** First Lady of the United States
- **Born:** November 22, 1744 in Weymouth, Massachusetts Bay Colony
- **Died:** October 28, 1818 in Quincy, Massachusetts
- **Best known for:** Wife of President John Adams and mother of President John Quincy Adams



### Biography:

#### Where did Abigail Adams grow up?

Abigail Adams was born Abigail Smith in the small town of Weymouth, Massachusetts. At the time, the town was part of the Massachusetts Bay Colony of Great Britain. Her father, William Smith, was the minister of the local church. She had a brother and two sisters.

#### Education

Since Abigail was a girl, she did not receive a formal education. Only boys went to school at this time in history. However, Abigail's mother taught her to read and write. She also had access to her father's library where she was able to learn new ideas and educate herself.

Abigail was an intelligent girl who wished that she could attend school. Her frustration over not being able to get a better education led her to argue for women's rights later on in life.

#### Marrying John Adams

Abigail was a young lady when she first met John Adams, a young country lawyer. John was a friend of her sister Mary's fiancé. Over time, John and Abigail found they enjoyed each other's company. Abigail liked John's sense of humor and his ambition. John was attracted to Abigail's intelligence and wit.

In 1762 the couple became engaged to be married. Abigail's father liked John and thought he was a good match. Her mother, however, wasn't so sure. She thought Abigail could do better than a country lawyer. Little did she know that John would one day be president! The marriage was delayed due to an outbreak of smallpox, but finally the couple was married on October 25, 1763. Abigail's father presided over the wedding. Abigail and John had six

children including Abigail, John Quincy, Susanna, Charles, Thomas, and Elizabeth. Unfortunately, Susanna and Elizabeth died young, as was common in those days.

### **Revolutionary War**

In 1768 the family moved from Braintree to the big city of Boston. During this time relations between the American colonies and Great Britain were getting tense. Events such as the Boston Massacre and the Boston Tea Party occurred in the town where Abigail was living. John began to take a major role in the revolution. He was chosen to attend the Continental Congress in Philadelphia. On April 19, 1775 the American Revolutionary War began with the Battle of Lexington and Concord.

### **Home Alone**

With John away at the Continental Congress, Abigail had to take care of the family. She had to make all sorts of decisions, manage the finances, take care of the farm, and educate the children. She also missed her husband terribly as he was gone for a very long time.

In addition to this, much of the war was taking place close by. Part of the Battle of Lexington and Concord was fought only twenty miles from her home. Escaping soldiers hid in her house, soldiers trained in her yard, she even melted utensils to make musket balls for the soldiers.

When the Battle of Bunker Hill was fought, Abigail woke to the sound of cannons. Abigail and John Quincy climbed a nearby hill to witness the burning of Charleston. At the time, she was taking care of the children of a family friend, Dr. Joseph Warren, who died during the battle.

### **Letters to John**

During the war Abigail wrote many letters to her husband John about all that was happening. Over the years they wrote over 1,000 letters to each other. It is from these letters that we know what it must have been like on the home front during the Revolutionary War.

### **After the War**

The war was finally over when the British surrendered at Yorktown on October 19, 1781. John was in Europe at the time working for the Congress. In 1783, Abigail missed John so much that she decided to go to Paris. She took her daughter Nabby with her and went to join John in Paris. When in Europe Abigail met Benjamin Franklin, who she did not like, and Thomas Jefferson, who she did like. Soon the Adams packed up and moved to London where Abigail would meet the King of England. In 1788 Abigail and John returned to America. John was elected as Vice-President under President George Washington. Abigail became good friends with Martha Washington.

### **First Lady**

John Adams was elected president in 1796 and Abigail became the First Lady of the United States. She was worried that people wouldn't like her because she was so different from Martha Washington. Abigail had strong opinions on many political issues. She wondered if she would say the wrong thing and make people angry.

Despite her fears, Abigail did not back off her strong opinions. She was against slavery and believed in the equal rights of all people, including black people and women. She also believed that everyone had the right to a good education. Abigail always firmly supported her husband and was sure to give him the woman's point of view on issues.

### **Retirement**

Abigail and John retired to Quincy, Massachusetts and had a happy retirement. She died of typhoid fever on October 28, 1818. She did not live to see her son, John Quincy Adams, become president.

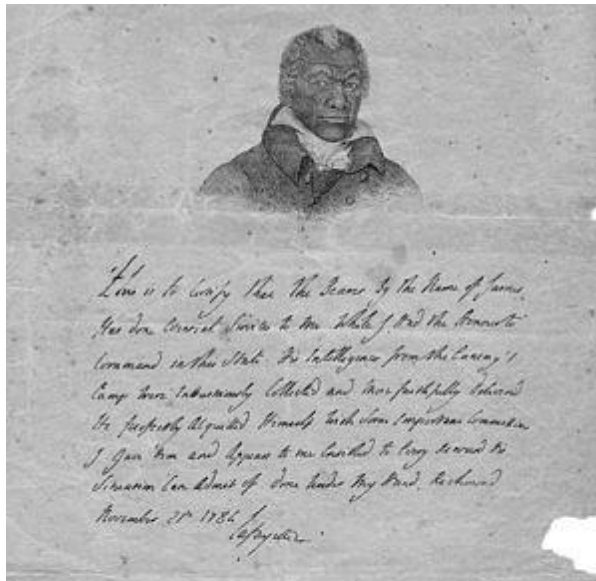
"Remember the Ladies"

### **Interesting Facts about Abigail Adams**

- Her cousin was Dorothy Quincy, wife of the founding father John Hancock.
- Her nickname as a child was "Nabby".
- When she was First Lady some people called her Mrs. President because she had so much influence over John.
- The only other woman to have a husband and a son be president was Barbara Bush, wife of George H. W. Bush and mother of George W. Bush.
- In one of her letters Abigail asked John to "Remember the ladies". This became a famous quote used by women's rights leaders for years to come.
- Abigail paved the way for First Ladies in the future to speak their minds and fight for causes that they considered important.

## JAMES ARMISTEAD

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia



Facsimile of [Marquis de Lafayette](#)'s certificate of commendation of James Armistead Lafayette, 1784

**James Armistead Lafayette** (December 10, 1760–August 9, 1830) was the first African American [double agent](#).<sup>[1]</sup> An African American slave, Armistead was owned by William Armistead in Virginia during the [American Revolution](#).

Most sources indicate that Armistead was born in 1748 in [New Kent County, Virginia](#) as a slave to William Armistead. Other sources put his birth around 1760 in [Elizabeth City, Virginia](#).

### Military espionage

After getting consent of his master, he volunteered in 1781 to join the [army](#) under

[General Lafayette](#). He was stationed as a [spy](#). First he spied on Brigadier General [Benedict Arnold](#) (by this time, Arnold had defected from the American Continental Army to lead British forces). After Arnold departed north in the spring of 1781, James went to the camp of [Lord Cornwallis](#). He relayed much information about the British plans for troop deployment and about their arms. The intelligence reports from his [espionage](#) were instrumental in helping to defeat the [British](#) during the [Battle of Yorktown](#).

While pretending to be a British spy, Armistead gained the confidence of General Benedict Arnold and General Cornwallis. Arnold was so convinced of Armistead's pose as a runaway slave that he used him to guide British troops through local roads. Armistead often traveled between camps, spying on British officers, who spoke openly about their strategies in front of him. Armistead documented this information in written reports, delivered them to other American spies, and then returned to General Cornwallis's camp.

### Emancipation

Although Virginia passed a manumission act in 1782 allowing for the freedom of any slave by his or her owner, James remained the property of William Armistead. (A 1783 law targeted specifically at freeing slaves whose owners had used them as substitutes for army service in exchange for their liberty did not apply to James). However, in 1786, with the support of William Armistead (then a member of the House of Delegates) and carrying a 1784 testimonial of his service from the Marquis de Lafayette, James petitioned the Virginia Assembly for his freedom. (The facsimile of the letter of commendation can be viewed on the [Lafayette College](#) website.<sup>[2]</sup>) On January 9, 1787, the Virginia Assembly granted James' petition. At that time he chose to add "Armistead" and "Lafayette" to his name, to honor the general.<sup>[3]</sup>

He continued to live in New Kent County with his new wife, one son and several other children. He became a farmer and at one point owned three slaves.<sup>[4]</sup> By 1818 he applied to the state

legislature for financial aid. He was granted \$60 for present relief and \$40 annual pension for his services in the Revolutionary War.

Some black Americans with the last name "Armistead" are suspected of being descendants of James Armistead Lafayette as he is said to have had a number of children after the Revolution. Also, it is possible that James was an illegitimate son of William Armistead, the Purser of the Virginia Troops. Regardless of his birth, he is remembered as an American patriot. His intelligence contributions to Lafayette and Washington aided in the capture Gen. Cornwallis at Yorktown, Va. with few shots fired.

## Teacher Supplement: THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

As the war began with the clashes at Lexington and Concord, the second Continental Congress met in 1775 to begin administering and coordinating the war effort, as well to establish revolutionary governments within the colonies. A veteran of the Seven Years' War, George Washington commanded the Continental Army and fought key battles at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Valley Forge, and Yorktown. His task was unique in that he was charged with removing the British while fighting a defensive war. Students can immerse themselves in the major events in the Revolution, including the battles of Bunker Hill and Saratoga and Patrick Henry's appeal to his fellow legislators to support the fight. Studying the events at Valley Forge, the alliance with France, and the final battle at Yorktown provides students with a dramatic narrative of the Revolutionary War.

In addition to the conventional style of warfare conducted by the Continental Army, much of the fighting in the colonies was done by local militias that spontaneously took up their own arms and engaged in battles with the British Regulars, known as Red Coats. In this context, each side courted alliances with American Indians who knew the terrain. Most American Indians ultimately sided with the British; during the Revolution, approximately 1,500 Iroquois fought alongside the British soldiers. The American Indians had the potential for losing vast amounts of land if the colonists won. This fear proved to be prophetic with the passage of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and, nearly a half century later, with the "Trail of Tears," the forceful removal and relocation of American Indians from their homelands.

Students also examine the issues at stake for free blacks and slaves, as well as that group's contributions to the war. Thousands of black men fought on both sides of the war. In Virginia, the royal governor Lord Dunmore promised freedom to slaves who fought for the British cause, and in the closing days of the war he upheld his promise. For many black people, in and out of bondage, the Revolutionary War allowed a vision of liberty that was not fully attained. Over several years following the war, the northern states abolished slavery, and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 banned slavery from the new territories north of the Ohio River. The antislavery movement did not, however, abolish slavery in the South, where nine out of ten American slaves lived.

In the spring of 1776, Abigail Adams asked John Adams to "remember the Ladies," as he and other statesmen contemplated establishing a new nation and delineating the rights of citizens. To appreciate the role women played in the Revolutionary War, students should examine the Daughters of Liberty, the experiences of women who directly supported the war effort, the unique challenges and opportunities slave women faced, and the changing role of women. The contributions of women traveling with troops

included nursing, cooking, laundering, and cleaning. Teachers guide students in debating the effects of the revolutionary struggle on women by comparing women's pre- and post-war status.



## The Revolutionary War V: Hardship

**Week 20**  
**STANDARDS**  
**CC5.6**

### **OBJECTIVES**

- Teacher led discussion
- Drawing
- Journal Writing

### **MATERIAL**

- Drawing paper
- Crayons
- Pencils
- Journals



**Preparation:**

- Opening Activity—Sing The Star Spangled Banner, My Country tis of Thee or America the Beautiful (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher tells a story from the material below on the hardships of the war.
- Students draw individual drawings on the hardships of the war or land policies.
- Students will summarize what they have learned today in their journal.
- Class Finishes.

## Hardships during the American Revolutionary War

Sometime that seismic spring of 1776, 16-year-old Levi Hanford of Norwalk, Connecticut, enrolled in his uncle's militia company and went to war against the British. He expected to make short work of the enemy. Everybody knew how simple farm boys like himself had just sent the redcoats reeling from Lexington and Concord, then cut them down at Bunker Hill. But Hanford's war got off to a slow start.

Levi had heard stories of the terrible winter when the harsh weather had taken a toll on the soldiers. Their clothing was worn thin and there were holes in the soles of their shoes so they were never free of the cold or wet. This exposure to the weather made many very sick.

He also heard that food supplies were often not delivered so the men had to eat what they could find. There were no bathrooms in those days and the sanitary conditions were bad.

Many soldiers gave up and deserted the war. They just left and walked home. This left the remaining soldiers short of men to fight.

Except for a brief stint building fortifications around New York City, Levi's first year under arms consisted mostly of standing watch along the Connecticut coast of Long Island Sound and rounding up Tories. He missed the disastrous Battle of Brooklyn on August 27, 1776, in which Gen. William Howe's redcoats captured a thousand American rebels. Neither was he present two weeks later, when the British swarmed across the East River onto Manhattan, seized the city, and rounded up several hundred more Americans. Hanford did not get his first real taste of action, in fact, until a cold, stormy night in March 1777, when he and a dozen other Connecticut men were surprised and taken prisoner by a Tory raiding party from Huntington, Long Island. What happened next would haunt him until the day he died, 77 years later.

Their captors marched Hanford and his comrades to occupied New York, now the nerve center of British operations in North America and the main holding point for rebel prisoners until the war ended in 1783. Several months before he arrived, more than 5,000 of his countrymen had been squeezed into several churches gutted for the purpose, plus a

pair of sugar refineries, the municipal jail and almshouse, and even the King's College building (now Columbia University).

By all accounts, conditions in these makeshift prisons were frightful. The men never had enough clothing, blankets, or firewood. Their rations—when they received them—consisted mostly of rotten pork or beef and scraps of moldy bread. Some inmates ate rats, shoes, and even the lice that covered their bodies. All lost weight, and virtually all exhibited the bleeding gums, open sores, tooth loss, and listlessness characteristic of scurvy. Survivors told of floors slick with human excrement and of air so fetid that candles would not stay lit. Not surprisingly, typhus, dysentery, and other infectious diseases ran rampant, and men died so quickly that burial details could barely keep up. By January or February 1777, it appears that six or seven of every 10 American prisoners had perished.

Hanford's destination was a five-story "sugar house" on Crown (now Liberty) Street, just east of Nassau, in what is today the lower Manhattan business district. It had been confiscated from the redoubtable Livingston family, who had built it in the early 1700s to manufacture loaf sugar and rum. The building's massive stone walls and small, dungeonlike windows made it serviceable as a prison. Although a sizable majority of the 800-odd Americans confined therein over the winter of 1776–77 were long dead by the time Hanford arrived, British operations in New Jersey, Westchester, and Connecticut soon brought in hundreds to replace them. As spring turned to summer, he recalled, the stench became overpowering, and the air grew so oppressively thick it was hard to breathe. "Our allowance of provisions," he added, "was a scanty supply of pork and sea-biscuit"—too scanty to keep a man going for long. The moldy biscuits, wet from seawater, teemed with weevils. "It was our common practice to put water in our camp kettle, then break up the biscuit into it, and after skimming off the worms, to put in the pork, and then, if we had fuel, to boil the whole together."

At any point in this ordeal, Hanford might have won his freedom by enlisting in King George's service. Yet he rebuffed every overture by recruiters, and when finally exchanged in May 1778—one of the relatively few who lasted as long as 13 months in captivity—he went home, rejoined his old unit, and resumed the fight. Instead of weakening his resolve, his stint as a prisoner of war had made him more determined than ever to send the redcoats packing.

The trouble was that the American armies seemed—especially at the beginning of the war—like undisciplined rabble led by men without the standing in civil society to make them genuine officers. Opinions changed as the war developed, but it remained a question for the British as to whether men who in civilian life had been merchants and tradesmen, even plain farmers, deserved the courtesies automatically due real gentlemen in uniform—and if captured, whether it was appropriate to exchange them, rank for rank, as if they were social equals. Said one Hessian after the Battle of Brooklyn: "Among the prisoners are many so-called colonels, lieutenant colonels, majors, and other officers, who, however, are nothing but mechanics, tailors, shoemakers, wigmakers, barbers, etc. Some of them

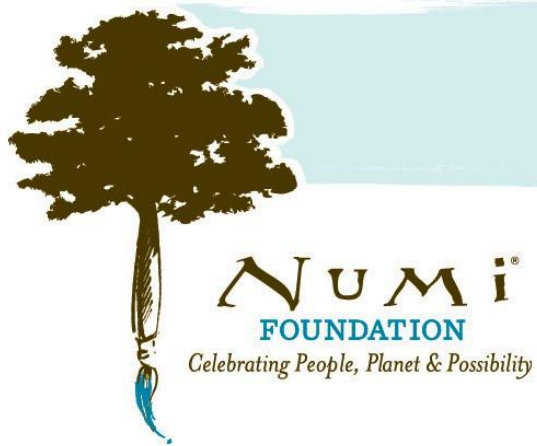
were soundly beaten by our people, who would by no means let such persons pass for officers.” Another observed that “prisoners who knelt and sought to surrender were beaten . . . Most of their officers are no better dressed and until recently were ordinary manual laborers.”

The story of New York’s Revolutionary War prisons and enlarges our understanding of how the United States was made—not merely by bewigged founding fathers, of whom we have heard so much in recent years, but also by thousands upon thousands of mostly ordinary people who believed in something they considered worth dying for.

Adapted from *Forgotten Patriots: The Untold Story of American Prisoners During the Revolutionary War* by Edwin G. Burrows. Published by Basic Books, a member of the Perseus Books Group © 2008. This article appears here by permission of Perseus Books Group.

Edwin G. Burrows. *Patriots or Terrorists: The Lost Story of Revolutionary War POW's*. *American Heritage* (8 Issues/5 Year). Fall 2008; Volume 58, Issue 5.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## The Constitution



## The Constitution I: Development

### STANDARDS CC5.7

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion
- Group work

### MATERIAL

- Pencils
- Journals

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Have the class recite the preamble to the Constitution.
- Teacher led discussion about the people involved with the Constitution; Samuel Adams, John Adams, Alexander Hamilton, Patrick Henry, Andrew Jackson, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, George Washington, Tecumseh. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Break class into groups. Have them write a document that lists the rules of the classroom and the school. Compare at the end of class and save until next class when the U S Constitution will be read.
- Class Finishes.

### Notes/Feedback:

## **DEVELOPMENT OF THE U.S. CONSTITUTION**

The Articles of Confederation were the first attempt to create a federal government for the 13 autonomous states that had freed themselves from British rule. The Articles provided a governing structure for the United States during the Revolutionary War, but they quickly proved to be inadequate for the needs of the new nation. By the spring of 1787, plans were under way to revise the Articles of Confederation. James Madison played an influential role in planning the Constitutional Convention and setting its agenda. Between May and September of 1787, 55 delegates met in Philadelphia to draft the U. S. Constitution. Students learn about the delegates to better understand the conflicts and compromises in drafting the new Constitution. For example, although these delegates were geographically dispersed and held different ideas about government, they shared personal traits and common characteristics that set them apart from the other white men with the franchise. The majority, mainly born in the colonies, fought in the war; 41 served in the Continental Congress. Although some, such as Benjamin Franklin, were self-taught, most were relatively well educated.

In the Great Compromise, the framers divided the federal government's legislative power between two houses, one which represented all states equally and another in which state population accounted for state representatives. The framers also agreed with the 3/5 compromise, that three-fifths of the slave population would be counted in determining states' representation in the national legislature and for imposing property taxes. Lastly, the Northwest Ordinance codified the process for admitting new states.

The U.S. Constitution vested the federal government with power divided among three branches, while it also preserved states' and individual rights. Teachers can use the metaphor of a three-legged stool to describe the stability of a government with power distributed among three branches. Students also study how state constitutions written after the Revolution influenced the writing of the U.S. Constitution. Learning songs that express American ideals, such as "America the Beautiful" and "The Star-Spangled Banner," can guide students to understand the meaning of the American creed and the spirit of the era.

## Teacher Supplement: THE CONSTITUTION

### History Spark Notes

#### People

##### John Adams

A prominent Boston lawyer who first became famous for defending the British soldiers accused of murdering five civilians in the Boston Massacre. At the Continental Congresses, Adams acted as a delegate from Massachusetts and rejected proposals for self-governance within the British Empire. He served as vice president to George Washington and then as president from 1797–1801.

##### Samuel Adams

A second cousin of John Adams and a failed Bostonian businessman who became an ardent political activist in the years leading up to the Revolutionary War. Samuel Adams organized the first **Committee of Correspondence** and was a delegate to both Continental Congresses in 1774 and 1775.

##### Alexander Hamilton

A brilliant New York lawyer and statesman who, in his early thirties, was one of the youngest delegates at the Constitutional Convention in 1787. An ardent **Federalist**, Hamilton supported the Constitution during the ratification debates even though he actually believed that the new document was still too weak. He helped write the **Federalist Papers**, which are now regarded as some of the finest essays on American government and republicanism. He served as the first secretary of the treasury under George Washington and established the first **Bank of the United States**.

##### William Henry Harrison

A former governor of Indiana Territory and brigadier general in the U.S. Army who rose to national stardom when he defeated the Northwest Confederacy at the **Battle of Tippecanoe** in 1811. Harrison went on to be elected president in 1840.

##### Patrick Henry

A fiery radical who advocated **rebellion** against the Crown in the years prior to the American Revolution, as in his famous “Give me liberty or give me death” speech. Later, Henry was a die-hard **Anti-Federalist** who initially opposed ratification of the Constitution.

##### Andrew Jackson

A hero of the **War of 1812** and the **Creek War** who later entered the national political arena and became president in 1829. Jackson, nicknamed “Old Hickory,” was the first U.S. president to come from a region west of the Appalachians.

### **John Jay**

A coauthor of the **Federalist Papers**, which attempted to convince Anti-Federalist New Yorkers to ratify the Constitution. Jay served as the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and became one of the most hated men in America after he negotiated **Jay's Treaty** with Britain in 1794.

### **Thomas Jefferson**

A Virginia planter and lawyer who in 1776 drafted the **Declaration of Independence**, which justified American independence from Britain. Jefferson went on to serve as the first secretary of state under George Washington and as vice president under John Adams. He then was elected president himself in 1800 and 1804.

### **James Madison**

A Virginia Federalist who advocated for the ratification of the Constitution, coauthored the **Federalist Papers**, and sponsored the **Bill of Rights** in Congress. After ratification, he supported southern and western agrarian interests as a **Democratic-Republican**. After a brief retirement, he reentered politics and was elected president in 1808 and 1812. As president, Madison fought for U.S. **shipping rights** against British and French aggression and led the country during the **War of 1812**.

### **James Monroe**

A Virginia officer, lawyer, and **Democratic-Republican** who was elected president in 1816 and inaugurated the Era of Good Feelings. An excellent administrator, Monroe bolstered the federal government and supported internal improvements, and was so popular in his first term that he ran uncontested in 1820. The "good feelings" ended, however, during the **Missouri Crisis** that split the United States along north-south lines. Monroe is most famous for his 1823 **Monroe Doctrine**, which warned European powers against interfering in the Western Hemisphere.

### **Tecumseh**

A member of the Shawnee tribe who, along with his brother **Tenskwatawa** (often called the Prophet), organized many of the tribes in the Mississippi Valley into the **Northwest Confederacy** to defend Native American ancestral lands from white American settlers. Even though the tribes had legal rights to their lands under the **Indian Intercourse Acts** of the 1790s, expansionist War Hawks in Congress argued the need for action against Tecumseh, and eventually **William Henry Harrison** was sent to wipe out the Confederacy. Tecumseh's forces were defeated at the **Battle of Tippecanoe** in 1811.

### **George Washington**

A Virginia planter and militia officer who led the attack that initiated the **French and Indian War** in 1754. Washington later became commander in chief of the American forces



during the **American Revolution** and first president of the United States in 1789. Although he lost many of the military battles he fought, his leadership skills were unparalleled and were integral to the creation of the United States. In his noteworthy **Farewell Address**, Washington warned against factionalism and the formation of political parties, believing they would split the nation irreparably.

## **TERMS**

### **Alien Acts**

A group of acts passed in 1798, designed to restrict the freedom of foreigners in the United States and curtail the free press in anticipation of a war with France. The Alien Acts lengthened the residency time required for foreigners to become American citizens from five years to fourteen years and gave the president the power to expel aliens considered dangerous to the nation. It was passed simultaneously with the **Sedition Act**, and together they provoked the **Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions**, written the same year in protest. These resolutions stated that individual states had the right to nullify unconstitutional laws passed by Congress.

### **Annapolis Convention**

A meeting of delegates from five states in Annapolis, Maryland, in 1786 to discuss the bleak commercial situation in the United States, growing social unrest, and Congress's inability to resolve disputes among the states. The conference dissolved when Alexander Hamilton proposed holding the **Constitutional Convention** in Philadelphia the next year to revise the Articles of Confederation.

### **Anti-Federalists**

Primarily farmers and poorer Americans in the West, a group that strongly opposed ratification of the **Constitution**. The Anti-Federalists were suspicious of governments in general and a strong central government in particular. Rather, they believed that state legislatures should maintain sovereignty. Although they eventually lost the ratification battle, their protests did encourage the first Congress to attach the **Bill of Rights** to the Constitution.

### **Articles of Confederation**

The first U.S. constitution, adopted in 1777 and ratified in 1781. The Articles established a national Congress in which each state in the Union was granted one vote. Congress had the right to conduct foreign affairs, maintain a military, govern western territories, and regulate trade between states, but it could not levy taxes. Because most states refused to finance the Congress adequately, the government under the Articles was doomed to fail. After **Shays's Rebellion** in 1786–1787, delegates met to discuss revising the Articles of Confederation, which ultimately led to the drafting of the **Constitution**.

### **Bank of the United States**

A plan proposed by **Alexander Hamilton** for a treasury for federal money funded by private investors. The Bank sparked a debate between “**strict constructionists**” and “**loose constructionists**” regarding interpretation of the Constitution.

### **Bill of Rights**

The first ten amendments to the Constitution, sponsored in Congress by **James Madison**, to guarantee basic freedoms and liberties. The Bill of Rights protects freedoms of speech, press, religion, assembly, and petition, and the rights to have trial by jury, bear arms, and own property, among others. Moreover, the Ninth Amendment states that the people have additional rights beyond those written explicitly in the Constitution; the Tenth Amendment awards state governments all the powers not granted to the federal government. The promise of a Bill of Rights helped convince many **Anti-Federalists** to ratify the new Constitution. Today, these rights are considered fundamental American liberties.

### **Checks and Balances**

A term referring to the overlapping of powers granted to the three branches of government under the **Constitution**. For example, Congress has the power to pass laws and regulate taxes, but the president has the ability to veto, or nullify, those acts. On the other hand, Congress may override a president’s veto if two-thirds of its members support the bill in question. The Supreme Court, meanwhile, has the power to review all laws but must rely on the president to enforce its decisions. The framers of the Constitution included this system of checks and balances to prevent any one branch of government from having too much power over the others.

### **Constitution**

A 1787 document that established the structure of the U.S. government, drafted at the **Constitutional Convention** in Philadelphia by prominent statesmen from twelve states (minus Rhode Island). Unlike its predecessor, the **Articles of Confederation**, the Constitution established a strong central government divided into three separate but equal branches (legislative, executive, and judiciary). This **separation of powers**, combined with a system of **checks and balances**, was designed to prevent the new government from becoming too strong and tyrannical.

### **Constitutional Convention**

A 1787 meeting in Philadelphia in which delegates from twelve states convened to revise the **Articles of Confederation**. The Convention quickly decided that the Articles should be scrapped and replaced with an entirely new document to create a stronger central government binding the states. The result was the **Constitution**.

### **Declaration of Independence**

A document written by **Thomas Jefferson** in 1776 that proclaimed the creation of the United States. The Declaration sets forth a persuasive argument against King George III, claiming that the king ruled the colonies poorly and unjustly. The document thus served not merely as a declaration but also as a rational justification for breaking away from Britain.

## **Democratic-Republicans**

Successors of the **Anti-Federalists** who formed a party under **Thomas Jefferson's** leadership during Washington's and Adams's presidencies. The Democratic-Republicans generally favored westward expansion, the formation of an agrarian republic, and an alliance with France, and were **strict constructionists** and advocates of **states' rights**. Political battles between the Democratic-Republicans and the Federalists were frequent during the first years of the nineteenth century. Though the Federalist Party died out during the War of 1812, the Democratic-Republicans lived on during the Era of Good Feelings and eventually became the Democratic party.

## **Elastic Clause**

A nickname for Article I, Section VIII, Paragraph 18 of the **Constitution**, which states that Congress has the power "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper" to carry out its proscribed duties. **Alexander Hamilton** and the **Federalists** interpreted this clause to mean that the Constitution allows everything it does not expressly forbid, and used it to justify the creation of the **Bank of the United States**. **George Washington** agreed, and the clause has since given presidents and Congress ample justification for expanding federal power. The clause has been dubbed "elastic" because it gives federal policymakers great flexibility when drafting laws.

## **Electoral College**

A body of representatives appointed by states to cast their votes for president. The presidential candidate who receives the most Electoral College votes, regardless of how many popular votes he or she receives, becomes president. The framers of the **Constitution** created the Electoral College out of fear that the whimsical American masses might one day popularly elect someone "unfit" for the presidency.

## **Excise Tax of 1791**

A liquor tax proposed by **Alexander Hamilton** in 1790 to raise revenue so that Congress could pay off all national and state debts. The excise tax was immensely unpopular with western farmers, whose protests eventually culminated in the **Whiskey Rebellion** of 1794.

## **The Federalist Papers**

A series of eighty-five articles written by **James Madison**, **Alexander Hamilton**, and **John Jay** in 1787–1788 to convince New Yorkers to ratify the **Constitution**. The Federalist Papers are now regarded as some of the finest essays on the Constitution, American government, and republicanism.

## **Federalists**

Primarily from the wealthier and propertied classes of Americans along the eastern seaboard, a group that supported ratification of the **Constitution** and creation of a **strong central government**. The Federalists eventually became a full-fledged political party under the leadership of John Adams and Alexander Hamilton. Adams was the first and only Federalist president, as the party died after Federalist delegates from the **Hartford Convention** protested the War of 1812 and were labeled traitors.

### **Great Compromise**

An agreement between the large and small states at the **Constitutional Convention** of 1787 to create a **bicameral** (two-house) Congress with one chamber of delegates assigned based on population (the **House of Representatives**) and another chamber in which all states had two representatives regardless of population (the **Senate**). The agreement ended the deadlock among the states and set a precedent for compromise in American politics.

### **Hartford Convention**

An 1814–1815 meeting of delegates from five New England states in Hartford, Connecticut, to discuss possible secession from the Union due to discontent with the **War of 1812**. The delegates ultimately decided to remain in the Union but sent a petition to Congress, requesting amendments to the **Constitution** in order to alter the office of the presidency and to change the distribution and powers of Congress. None of their demands were met, however, because the petition arrived at Congress during celebrations over **Andrew Jackson's** victory at the **Battle of New Orleans** and the signing of the **Treaty of Ghent**. Nonetheless, the convention demonstrated the sectional nature of the war and the growing differences between the North and the South.

### **Indian Intercourse Acts**

A series of acts passed in the 1790s that attempted to smooth relations between the United States and Native American tribes along the western frontier. The act attempted to regulate trade between these groups and promised that the United States would acquire western lands only via treaties. Most American settlers ignored this bill, which produced bloody clashes between tribes and settlers.

### **Judiciary Act of 1789**

The first act that Congress passed, which created the tiered U.S. federal court system. The Supreme Court, under Chief Justice **John Jay**, was at the head of the court system, supported by three circuit courts and thirteen district courts. Even though the Judiciary Act strengthened federal judicial power, it also upheld local and state courts by stipulating that most cases heard in federal courts would be appeals cases.

### **Land Ordinance of 1785**

An ordinance passed by the national Congress under the **Articles of Confederation** that established an efficient system to survey and auction lands west of the Appalachian Mountains.

### **Loose Constructionists**

People such as **Alexander Hamilton**, who believed that the **Constitution** allowed the government to take any actions that were not expressly forbidden in the document. The

loose constructionists' interpretation was challenged by Thomas Jefferson and other **strict constructionists**, who believed that the Constitution must be read literally.

### **Macon's Bill No. 2**

An 1810 bill that restored U.S. commerce with Britain and France (after their interruption under the **Embargo Act** and **Non-Intercourse Act**) but threatened to revive the terms of the Non-Intercourse Act if either country failed to respect U.S. neutrality and shipping rights.

### **New Jersey Plan**

Also known as the **small state plan**, a proposal at the 1787 Constitutional Convention to create a **unicameral** (single-house) legislature in which all states would be equally represented. The New Jersey plan appealed to smaller states but not to more populous states, which backed the **Virginia Plan** to create a bicameral legislature in which representatives were apportioned by population. The **Great Compromise** solved the dilemma by creating a bicameral Congress featuring one house with proportional representation and another with equal representation.

### **Non-Intercourse Act**

An 1809 act that replaced the ineffective **Embargo Act** in an attempt to revive the faltering American economy by boosting U.S. exports. The Non-Intercourse Act banned trade only with France and Britain (unlike the Embargo Act, which banned exports completely) until both nations agreed to respect American sovereignty. When this bill also failed, Congress passed **Macon's Bill No. 2**.

### **Northwest Confederacy**

A confederation of Native American tribes in the Mississippi Valley, led by Tecumseh and his brother, for mutual defense against white settlers. Although the tribes of the Northwest Confederacy had legal rights to their lands under the **Indian Intercourse Acts** of the 1790s, expansionist War Hawks in Congress nonetheless prevailed, and **William Henry Harrison** was sent to wipe out the Confederacy. Tecumseh's forces were defeated at the **Battle of Tippecanoe** in 1811.

### **Northwest Ordinance of 1787**

A framework passed by the national Congress under the **Articles of Confederation** to decide which western U.S. territories (Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Indiana) could become states. Because the ordinance also abolished slavery and established basic civil liberties (trial by jury, freedom of religion) in the Northwest Territory, it is often seen as an important first step toward the creation of the **Bill of Rights**.

### **Second Continental Congress**

A meeting of colonial delegates that convened in different places from 1775 to 1789 to establish a new U.S. government after declaring independence from Britain. In 1777, the Congress drafted the **Articles of Confederation** as the first U.S. constitution.

### **Sedition Act**

A 1798 act (passed simultaneously with the **Alien Acts**) that banned all forms of public expression critical of the president or Congress. President John Adams approved the act, fearing the influence of French immigrants in the United States and also hoping the free speech ban would harm his political opponents, the **Democratic-Republicans**. Ironically, the act only made the opposition party stronger. Thomas Jefferson and James Madison wrote the **Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions** the same year in protest, arguing that individual states had the right to nullify unconstitutional laws passed by Congress.

### **Separation of Powers**

A term referring to the fact that each of the three branches in the American federal government has separate and distinct powers. The **legislative** branch, for example, has the sole ability to propose and pass laws, while the **executive** branch has the power to enforce those laws, and the **judiciary** the power to review them. The writers of the Constitution separated these powers to prevent any one part of the new government from becoming too powerful.

### **Shays's Rebellion**

A 1786–1787 revolt by western Massachusetts farmer **Daniel Shays**, who led 1,200 other men in an attack on the federal arsenal at Springfield, Massachusetts. Shays and others like him throughout the United States were dissatisfied with the ineptitude of state legislatures during the economic depression after the American Revolution. Shays's Rebellion and other revolts spurred leading Americans to meet and discuss revising the **Articles of Confederation**.

### **Strict Constructionists**

People such as **Thomas Jefferson** who believed that the Constitution forbade the government to take any actions that it did not expressly permit. The strict constructionists' interpretation was challenged by Alexander Hamilton and other **loose constructionists**, who believed that the Constitution allowed the government many implied powers.

### **Three-Fifths Clause**

A nickname for Article I, Section II, Paragraph 3 of the Constitution, which states that representation in the House of Representatives is determined by counting all free persons and "three-fifths of all other persons," or slaves. The three-fifths clause was created as part of the **Great Compromise** between states with few slaves and those with many slaves.

### **Treaty of Ghent**

The December 1814 treaty that ended the **War of 1812** between Britain and the United States. The treaty stated that the war had ended in a stalemate and that neither side had gained or lost any territory. Ironically, the **Battle of New Orleans**—the greatest American victory in the war—was fought about two weeks after the treaty had been signed, as General **Andrew Jackson** had not gotten word of the war's end.



### **Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions**

Two resolutions, passed in 1798–1799 and written by **Thomas Jefferson** and **James Madison**, that declared that the individual states had the right to nullify unconstitutional acts of Congress. The resolutions stated that because the individual states had created the Union, they also reserved the right to nullify any legislation that ran counter to their interests.

### **Virginia Dynasty**

A nickname that arose because four of the first five presidents (Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe) all hailed from Virginia. Many northern states resented this fact, as demonstrated by the **Hartford Convention**'s 1814 request that presidents should not come from the same state as their predecessor.

### **Virginia Plan**

Also known as the **large state plan**, a proposal at the 1787 **Constitutional Convention** to create a **bicameral** (two-house) legislature in which delegates would be appointed according to the population of the state they represented. Large states with greater populations supported this plan, unlike small states, which backed the **New Jersey Plan** to create a unicameral legislature in which all states were equally represented. The **Great Compromise** solved the dilemma by creating a bicameral Congress featuring one house with proportional representation and another with equal representation.

### **War Hawks**

A younger generation of statesmen, primarily from the West and South, who replaced the Founding Fathers in the first decade of the 1800s. The War Hawks favored westward expansion and a nationalist agenda and thus encouraged war against both the **Northwest Confederacy** and against Britain (in the **War of 1812**). Despite their early zeal, many War Hawks, such as **Henry Clay**, eventually settled down to become some of the most revered statesmen in American history.

### **XYZ Affair**

A bribery scandal that caused public uproar during the Adams administration in 1798. After several naval skirmishes and French seizures of American merchant ships, Adams sent ambassadors to Paris to try to normalize relations. When the emissaries arrived, however, French officials demanded \$250,000 before they would even speak with the Americans, let alone guarantee a truce. These officials, whom Adams dubbed X, Y, and Z, outraged Congress and the American public. Adams's popularity skyrocketed, and Congress braced for war. Although no war declaration was ever made, the United States and France waged undeclared naval warfare in the Atlantic for several years.





## THE CONSTITUTION DOCUMENT

After the [American Revolutionary War](#) the United States started as a new country in 1781 [AD](#), the leaders of the United States got together to try to write up some rules for how the government of this new country would work. Men came from all of the [thirteen states](#) (except Rhode Island). Benjamin Franklin came from [Pennsylvania](#). But even though they asked to join, women and people of color and non-Christians were [excluded](#).

Some of the men at the meeting thought the government should help the poor to be equal to rich men. Other men disagreed; they thought the rich men knew more about how to run the United States. Some men thought that each state should decide most things for itself. Other men thought that the United States should decide most things together. Little by little, the leaders worked out compromises, and this is what they came up with (but shorter and in simpler words):

We, the people of the United States, are writing this Constitution in order to have justice, to have peace, to be able to defend ourselves, to be better off, and to be free - not just for ourselves, but for all our children and descendants.

There will be a Senate and a House of Representatives, and both will be made up of men (not women) elected by the citizens. They will be the only people who can make new laws for the whole United States (but each state can make other laws just for that state). Together, these two groups are called Congress. Congress can make laws to raise taxes, to defend the United States and to make people's lives better. Congress can also borrow money, mint money, set up a post office, allow copyrights and patents, and a few other things. And Congress can declare war on other countries.

There will be a President, elected by the citizens. He will be the commander in chief of the army and the navy. He can make treaties with other countries, if two-thirds of the Senators agree. And he can appoint the judges of the Supreme Court.

There will be a Supreme Court, whose job it is to decide whether Congress and the President are doing what the Constitution tells them to do. The Supreme Court will also decide any law cases where people disagree about what the law means. All court cases will be decided by juries.

Every state has to honor any arrangement made by another state. If someone has committed a crime and runs away to another state, that state should send him or her back to be tried. Every state should have a Republican form of government. The United States government will protect each state against invasion and against riots or revolution.

Just after the men wrote this Constitution, some states insisted on having people's rights stated clearly. So they added a [Bill of Rights](#) to the Constitution.

### Teacher Supplement: UNITED STATES CONSTITUTION

#### Preamble

We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

## **ARTICLE I**

### **Section 1**

All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

### **Section 2**

- The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.
- No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.
- Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons.<sup>2</sup> The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.
- When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.
- The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

### **Section 3**

- The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof,<sup>3</sup> for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.
- Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.<sup>4</sup>
- No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

- The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.
- The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.
- The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.
- Judgment in Cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

#### **Section 4**

- The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators.
- The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December,<sup>5</sup> unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

#### **Section 5**

- Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.
- Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.
- Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.
- Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

#### **Section 6**

- The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States.<sup>6</sup> They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

- No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

### **Section 7**

- All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.
- Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.
- Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

### **Section 8**

- The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defense and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;
- To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;
- To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;
- To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;
- To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;
- To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;
- To establish Post Offices and post Roads;
- To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

- To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;
- To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations;
- To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;
- To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;
- To provide and maintain a Navy;
- To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;
- To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;
- To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;
- To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings;--And
- To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

## **Section 9**

- The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.
- The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.
- No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.
- No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.<sup>2</sup>
- No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.
- No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.
- No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.
- No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any

present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.

### **Section 10**

- No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.
- No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.
- No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.

## **ARTICLE II**

### **Section 1**

- The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows
- Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.
- The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; A quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But

if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice President.<sup>8</sup>

- The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.
- No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.
- In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office,<sup>9</sup> the Same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.
- The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.
- Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation:--“I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

## **Section 2**

- The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.
- He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.
- The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

## **Section 3**

He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers;



he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

#### **Section 4**

The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

### **ARTICLE III**

#### **Section 1**

The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behaviour, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

#### **Section 2**

- The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority;--to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls;--to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction;--to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party;--to Controversies between two or more States;--between a State and Citizens of another State;<sup>54</sup> --between Citizens of different States, --between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.
- In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the Supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.
- The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

#### **Section 3**

- Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.



- The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

## **ARTICLE IV**

### **Section 1**

Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

### **Section 2**

- The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.
- A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.
- No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.<sup>55</sup>

### **Section 3**

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

### **Section 4**

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

## **ARTICLE V**

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose [Amendments](#) to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress;

Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.

## **ARTICLE VI**

- All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.
- This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.
- The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

## **ARTICLE VII**

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.



## The Constitution II: Significance

### STANDARDS

CC5.7

### OBJECTIVES

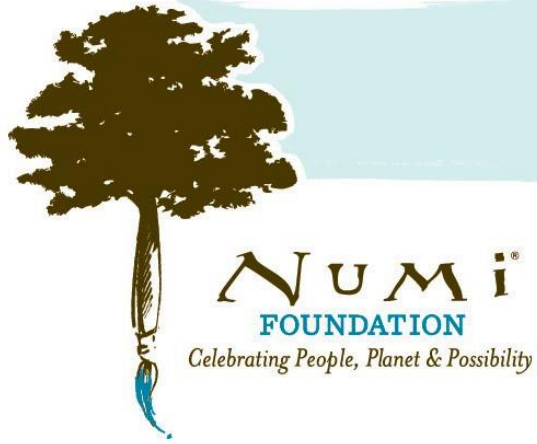
- Opening Activity
- Reading aloud
- Group work

### MATERIAL

- Copies of the U S Constitution
- Pencils
- Journals

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Have the class recite the preamble to the Constitution.
- Distribute copies of the U S Constitution to the children. Read a portion of the document aloud. Discuss what it means to them.
- Explain that this document is still used to decide how the laws in our land should work.
- Have the children return to their groups from previous class and analyze their list of rules. Would they add anything since they've read the U S Constitution? What?
- Class Finishes.



## Colonization, Immigration, and Settlement



## Colonization, Immigration, and Settlement I

### STANDARDS

CC5.8

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Mural painting

### MATERIAL

- Large mural paper and paint

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “She’ll Be Coming Round the Mountain.”
- Teacher led discussion on immigration and settlement in the West requiring various forms of transportation—wagon trains, river boats, canal boats, trains, horses. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Large mural painting of transportation to the West.
- When children are not actively involved in painting, they should draw a similar picture in their journals.
- Class Finishes

**Notes/Feedback:**

### Teacher Supplement: LIFE IN THE YOUNG REPUBLIC

In this unit, students examine the daily lives of those who built the young republic under the new Constitution. Between 1789 and 1850, new waves of immigrants arrived from Europe, especially English, Scots-Irish, Irish, and Germans. The Great Irish Famine helped to push immigrants to come to the United States during this period. Traveling by overland wagons, canals, flatboats, and steamboats, these newcomers advanced into the fertile Ohio and Mississippi valleys and through the Cumberland Gap to the south. Students learn about the Louisiana Purchase and the expeditions of Lewis and Clark, guided by Sacagawea, and of John C. Fremont.

Interest in promoting civic virtue among citizens increased with the establishment of a republic. Mothers had the important role of raising their sons to become virtuous and active citizens. To ensure that women could fulfill this new role, a movement began to open the doors of education more widely to women. For example, the Young Ladies' Academy of Philadelphia (later called the Philadelphia Academy) was founded by Benjamin Rush and supported by many of the signers of the Constitution.



## **THE NEW NATION'S EXPANSION**

The American West should be presented as a borderland region inhabited by diverse and competing populations. In this unit, students examine the advance of pioneer settlements beyond the Mississippi. The westward migration began with fur traders and mountain men who made the first forays into the west. Many fur traders and mountain men married Native American women who served as liaisons between the two cultures. Westward migration continued with settlers heading for Texas, Mormon families relocating to the new Zion in Utah, Midwestern farmers moving to western Oregon's fertile valleys, and forty-niners traveling to the Mother Lode region of California. These migrants were joined by whalers, New England sailors engaged in the hide and tallow trade in California, and traders of sea otter and seal furs, who sailed their clipper ships around Cape Horn and westward to the Pacific. Migrants from the United States arrived in areas already inhabited and claimed by diverse populations of American Indians, Mexicans, British, and small numbers of Russians and Chileans. They also encountered immigrants from Asia, including China, Japan, Korea, the Philippines, and India, in search of labor in gold mines and farming.

Students may compare overland trail routes, especially the purpose of the journey; where the trail ran; the influence of geographic terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate; and life in the territories at the end of these trails. Meanwhile, Mexican settlers also migrated into New Mexico, Texas, and California. While learning about life on the trail, students can discuss the reactions of American Indians to the increasing migration and the reasons for the Indians' growing concern.

Pioneer women played varied roles in coping with the rigors of daily life on the frontier. Biographies, journals, and diaries disclose the strength and resourcefulness of pioneer women who helped to farm the land and worked as missionaries, teachers, and entrepreneurs. The autobiographical works of Laura Ingalls Wilder provide a unique perspective on these topics. Some slave women gained their freedom in the West. Once established by Anglo-American settlers, many western communities and territories proved to be less beholden to eastern traditions, as evidenced by the territory of Wyoming granting women in 1869 the right to vote, followed by Utah, Colorado, and Idaho.

Studying maps and geographic landmarks explains how and when California, Texas, and other western lands became part of the United States.

Battles for independence followed Anglo-American settlement in modern-day Texas. The war with Mexico led to annexation of this territory by the United States. These events provide important opportunities to focus on the Hispanic people of California and the Southwest, on the effects of these events on their lives, and on their distinctive contributions to American culture. Students can also learn how the Oregon Territory boundary conflict was settled by negotiation with England and how that territory became a state.

## Women Pioneers

The impact of various ideas and enthusiasms women brought to the Western frontier were much greater than one might imagine. The standard assumption according to scholars prior to recent concentrations in women's history identifies women's participation in westward migration during the nineteenth century as secondary to that of men. Although there were some exceptions, many pioneer women drew on their domestic skills and values to establish not only "civilization," but their own security as well. Women's activism (the flip side of domesticity), which included attitudes toward race and "civilization," the tie between a vision of a unified continent and a cultivated wilderness, and republican values are also a large part of the roles that women played on the frontier. Women never stopped arriving with more fuel for the flames [of expansionism] as their families tried to find a place to settle down, some place with a little more room, where national destiny and personal dreams merged into a glorious whole. In doing so, Migrant women expanded not only American borders, but their own as well. Women never stopped arriving with more fuel for the flames [of expansionism] as their families tried to find a place to settle down, some place with a little more room, where national destiny and personal dreams merged into a glorious whole. In doing so, Migrant women expanded not only American borders, but their own as well. Expansion and the concept of manifest destiny was the fever of the early nineteenth century, and women burned with it as surely as men. Many more women than would be imagined set out for the Western frontier with similar goals to those of men, to find fortune and a new start. While other women subscribed to the "cult of true womanhood," which valued domesticity, piety, and similar "feminine" virtues, women championed expansion for the cause of civilization, even while largely avoiding the masculine world of politics.

Many women arriving on the western frontier had huge tasks before them. They were challenged by inadequate housing as well as an inadequate local social structure. It was up to them to establish a home for their families on the frontier, but they were also tasked with developing schools, churches, and other socially acceptable and expected programs. These types of challenges were usually met through women organizing women's clubs, which were established as women arrived in what would become new frontier communities.

### Making History in a Man's World

It is interesting that even though women certainly were a large part of the great western migration of the nineteenth century, until recently the history books concentrated on the pioneering experiences of men. It is because of the "place of women" in Victorian times that they found themselves a hardworking, but silent contributor to the western frontier. Women wanted many of the same things as men when it came to packing up and moving across the plains, or even by sea to get to the newest "promise land." They wanted their piece of manifest destiny. They just had to go about it a little differently than men of the time.

Although women did experience more freedoms in the West, they still needed a male influence to assist them when it came to matters of the law, banking, property, protection, etc. Men were expected to work outside, and women were "allowed." Even with women working out of doors, mining, herding and branding livestock, etc. There was a double-standard that men were not

caught up in. That of the woman's other job, the house wife. After branding cattle all day, odds were that the wife or daughter would be sent back to the house to clean and get supper on the table for the men folk. While the men on the frontier worked hard, the women worked harder in both traditional and non-traditional roles according to Victorian era standards. It is equally interesting that in at least the Southwestern region of present day United States, which encompassed a large part of the western frontier still live according to many of the social norms created at that time.

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## Colonization, Immigration, and Settlement II

### STANDARDS

CC5.8

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Map drawing
- Journal Writing

### MATERIAL

- Journals
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “She’ll Be Coming Round the Mountain.”
- Teacher led discussion of overland trails across the nation. (See Teacher Supplement) Discuss why pioneers headed west—promise of new life, free land, better food growing climates. Discuss physical and political geography.
- Have the students copy maps of overland trails into their journals.

- Also in journals, the children should write a letter as a child traveling to the new west sharing feelings about the journey to grandparents or other relatives back in the East. Review letter form. **(This may be a written assignment for homework)**
- Share the letters.
- Class Finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: SHE'LL BE COMIN 'ROUND THE MOUNTAIN LYRICS

She'll be coming 'round the mountain when she comes (when she comes)  
She'll be coming 'round the mountain when she comes (when she comes)  
She'll be coming 'round the mountain, she'll be coming 'round the mountain  
She'll be coming 'round the mountain when she comes (when she comes).

She'll be driving six white horses when she comes (when she comes)  
She'll be driving six white horses when she comes (when she comes)  
She'll be driving six white horses, she'll be driving six white horses  
She'll be driving six white horses when she comes (when she comes).

We'll all go out to meet her when she comes  
We'll all go out to meet her when she comes  
We'll all go out to meet her, we'll all go out to meet her  
We'll all go out to meet her when she comes.

We'll kill the old red rooster when she comes (when she comes)  
We will kill the big red rooster when she comes (when she comes)  
We'll kill the big red rooster, we will kill the big red rooster  
We'll kill the big red rooster when she comes (when she comes).

She will bring us to the portals when she comes (when she comes)  
She will bring us to the portals when she comes (when she comes)  
She will bring us to the portals, she will bring us to the portals  
She will bring us to the portals when she comes (when she comes).

We'll all sing hallelujah when she comes (when she comes)  
We'll all sing hallelujah when she comes (when she comes)  
We'll all sing hallelujah, we'll all sing hallelujah  
We'll all sing hallelujah when she comes (when she comes).

She'll be coming 'round the mountain when she comes (when she comes)  
She'll be coming 'round the mountain when she comes (when she comes)  
She'll be coming 'round the mountain, she'll be coming 'round the mountain  
She'll be coming 'round the mountain when she comes (when she comes).



## Colonization, Immigration, and Settlement III

### STANDARDS

CC5.8

### OBJECTIVES

- Opening Activity
- Teacher led discussion
- Writing

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “Oh Susannah.”
- Teacher led discussion on the roles of pioneer women. (See Teacher Supplement)
- Tell the biography of Laura Ingalls Wilder.
- In their journals, have the children answer the question, “What was the role of pioneer women?” **(This may be a written assignment for homework)**

### Notes/Feedback:

### Teacher Supplement: OH, SUSANNAH LYRICS

I come from Alabama  
With a banjo on my knee  
I'm going to Louisiana,  
My true love for to see.

It rained all night the day I left  
The weather it was dry  
The sun so hot, I froze to death  
Susannah, don't you cry.

Oh, Susannah,  
Oh don't you cry for me  
For I come from Alabama  
With a banjo on my knee.

I had a dream the other night  
When everything was still  
I dreamed I saw Susannah dear  
A-coming down the hill.

The buckwheat cake was in her mouth  
The tear was in her eye  
Says I, "I'm coming from the south,  
Susannah, don't you cry."

Oh, Susannah,  
Oh don't you cry for me  
For I come from Alabama  
With a banjo on my knee.

I come from A-la-ba-ma  
With a ban-jo on my knee,  
I'm going to Lou-i-siana,  
My true love for to see.

Oh, Su-san-nah, oh,  
Don't you cry for me,  
For I come from A-la-ba-ma  
With a ban-jo on my knee.



## Teacher Supplement: LAURA INGALLS WILDER



**Born: February 7, 1867, Pepin, Wisconsin**

**Died: February 10, 1957, Mansfield, Missouri**

American writer

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American author Laura Ingalls Wilder was the creator of the much-loved children's series of "Little House" books that recounted her life as a young girl on the Western frontier during the late 1800s.

### **Raised on the American prairie**

Laura Ingalls Wilder was born Laura Elizabeth Ingalls on February 7, 1867, in Pepin, Wisconsin, the second of four children. She once described her father, Charles Philip Ingalls, as always jolly and sometimes reckless. Her mother, Caroline Lake Quiner, was educated, gentle, and proud, according to her daughter. Her sisters, all of whom would eventually appear in her books, were Mary, Carrie, and Grace. Laura also had a younger brother, Charles, Jr. (nicknamed Freddie), who died at the age of only nine months.

As a young girl, Laura moved with her family from place to place across America's heartland. In 1874, the Ingalls family left Wisconsin for Walnut Grove, Minnesota, where they lived at first in a dugout house. Two years later, the family moved to Burr Oak, Iowa, where Charles became part-owner of a hotel. By the fall of 1877, however, they had all returned to Walnut Grove. In 1879, the Ingalls family moved again, this time to homestead in the Dakota Territory.

The family finally settled in what would become De Smet, South Dakota, which remained Charles and Caroline's home until they died. Their second winter in De Smet was one of the worst on record. Numerous blizzards prevented trains from delivering any supplies, essentially cutting off the town from December until May. Years later, Laura wrote about her experiences as a young teenager trying to survive the cold temperatures and lack of food, firewood, and other necessities.

Laura attended regular school whenever possible. However, because of her family's frequent moves, she was largely self-taught. In 1882, at the age of fifteen, she received her teaching certificate. For three years, Laura taught at a small country school a dozen miles from her home in De Smet and boarded with a family who lived nearby.

### **Married a farmer**

During this same period, Ingalls came to know Almanzo Manly Wilder, who had settled near De Smet in 1879 with his brother Royal. Almanzo frequently headed out into the country on his sleigh to pick up the young teacher and drop her off at her parents' home for weekend visits. After courting for a little more than two years, they were married on August 25, 1885. Laura

Wilder then quit teaching to help her husband on their farm. She later wrote about this time in her life in her book *The First Four Years*.

The couple's only surviving child, Rose, was born on December 5, 1886. Although all homesteaders (those settling new lands) had to endure the hardships and uncertainty of farm life, the Wilders experienced more than their share of tragedy and misfortune. In August 1889, Wilder gave birth to a baby boy who died shortly after, an event that never appeared in any of her books. Her husband then came down with diphtheria, a terrible disease that causes breathing problems, which left him partially paralyzed. Finally, their house, built by Manly himself, burned to the ground.

On July 17, 1894, the Wilders began their journey to Mansfield, Missouri, the place they would call home for the rest of their lives. There they established a farm and named it Rocky Ridge. Wilder kept a journal of their experiences as they traveled. When she reached Lamar, Missouri, she sent her account of their travels through South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas to the *De Smet News*. This was her first published writing.

### **Produced her first autobiographical work**

By the mid-1920s Wilder and her husband were doing little of their own farming on Rocky Ridge, which allowed her to spend most of her time writing. Around this same time, Rose returned to Missouri, built a new home for her parents on Rocky Ridge, and moved into the old farmhouse. She also began encouraging her mother to write the story of her childhood.

Wilder completed her first autobiographical work in the late 1920s. Entitled *Pioneer Girl*, it was a first-person account of her childhood on the frontier from the time she was three until she reached the age of eighteen. After Rose edited the book, Wilder submitted it to various publishers under the name Laura Ingalls Wilder. But no one was interested in her chronicle, which contained plenty of historical facts about her childhood but little in the way of character development.

### **Created the "Little House" books**

Refusing to become discouraged, Wilder changed her approach. The "I" in her stories became "Laura," and the focus moved from the story of one little girl to the story of an entire family's experiences on the new frontier. Wilder also decided to direct her writing specifically at children. Although she sometimes streamlined events, created or omitted others entirely (such as the birth and death of her brother), and opted for happier endings, she wrote about real people and things that had actually happened.

In 1932, at the age of sixty-five, Wilder published the first of her eight "Little House" books, *Little House in the Big Woods*. It told the story of her early childhood years in Wisconsin and was a huge hit with readers. *Farmer Boy*, an account of Manly's childhood in New York state, followed in 1933. Two years later, *Little House on the Prairie* appeared on the shelves. Five more books followed that took the reader through Wilder's courtship and marriage to Manly— *On the Banks of Plum Creek* (1937), *By the Shores of Silver Lake* (1939), *The Long Winter* (1940), *Little Town on the Prairie* (1941), and *These Happy Golden Years* (1943). New editions of all of the "Little House" books were reissued by Harper in 1953 with the now-familiar illustrations of Garth Williams (1912–1996).

Wilder was seventy-six years old when she finished the final book in her "Little House" series. By that time, she and her husband had sold off the majority of their land and virtually all of their

livestock, but they still lived on the remaining seventy acres of Rocky Ridge. It was there that Manly died in 1949 at the age of ninety-two.

Wilder was ninety when she died at Rocky Ridge Farm on February 10, 1957. After her death, her daughter, Rose Wilder Lane, edited the diary her mother had written as she and Manly traveled to Missouri, the one that had first appeared in the De Smet newspaper. The resulting book, *On the Way Home: The Diary of a Trip from South Dakota to Mansfield, Missouri, in 1894*, was published in 1962. Twelve years later, a television series based on Wilder's stories debuted and ran for nine seasons. Through her engaging tales of life on the untamed American frontier, Wilder succeeded beyond her wildest dreams at taking a unique time and place of adventure, hardship, and simple pleasures and making it real to scores of young readers across the world.

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Read more:

<http://www.notablebiographies.com/We-Z/Wilder-Laura-Ingalls.html#ixzz2YEexHvGa>



## The Fifty States

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Pacific States
- Begin index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States
- Blank index cards and pencils
- Blank paper maps of the US
- Teacher Supplement for geography of the United States

### Preparation:

Opening Activity—Sing, “What



## 50 States I

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Pacific States
- Begin index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States
- Blank index cards and pencils
- Blank paper maps of the US
- Teacher Supplement for geography of the United States

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Pacific States region.
- Students choose five blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or

something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.

- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should fill in the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.
- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Pacific States.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

## Teacher Supplement: WHAT DID DELA WARE, BOYS? LYRICS

What did Delaware?  
What did Delaware, boys,  
What did Delaware?  
What did Delaware, boys,  
What did Delaware?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
What did Delaware?

She wore her New Jersey, boys,  
She wore her New Jersey  
She wore her New Jersey, boys,  
She wore her New Jersey  
She wore her New Jersey, boys,  
She wore her New Jersey  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She wore her New Jersey

What did Idaho, boys,  
What did Idaho?  
What did Idaho, boys,  
What did Idaho?  
What did Idaho, boys,  
What did Idaho?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
What did Idaho?

She hoed her Maryland, boys,  
She hoed her Maryland  
She hoed her Maryland, boys,  
She hoed her Maryland  
She hoed her Maryland, boys,  
She hoed her Maryland  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She hoed her Maryland

What did Ioway, boys,  
What did Ioway?  
What did Ioway, boys,  
What did Ioway?

What did Ioway, boys,  
What did Ioway?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
What did Ioway?  
She weighed a Washington, boys,  
She weighed a Washington  
She weighed a Washington, boys,  
She weighed a Washington  
She weighed a Washington, boys,  
She weighed a Washington  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She weighed a Washington

How did Wiscon-sin, boys,  
How did Wiscon-sin?  
How did Wiscon-sin, boys,  
How did Wiscon-sin?  
How did Wiscon-sin, boys,  
How did Wiscon-sin?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
How did Wiscon-sin?

She stole a New-bras-key, boys,  
She stole a New-bras-key  
She stole a New-bras-key, boys,  
She stole a New-bras-key  
She stole a New-bras-key, boys,  
She stole a New-bras-key  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She stole a New-bras-key

What did Tennessee, boys,  
What did Tennessee?  
What did Tennessee, boys,  
What did Tennessee?  
What did Tennessee, boys,  
What did Tennessee?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
What did Tennessee?

She saw what Arkansaw, boys,  
She saw what Arkansaw  
She saw what Arkansaw, boys,  
She saw what Arkansaw



She saw what Arkansaw, boys,  
She saw what Arkansaw  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She saw what Arkansaw

How did Flora-die, boys,  
How did Flora-die  
How did Flora-die, boys,  
How did Flora-die  
How did Flora-die, boys,  
How did Flora-die  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
How did Flora-die?

She died in Missouri, boys,  
She died in Missouri  
She died in Missouri, boys,  
She died in Missouri  
She died in Missouri, boys,  
She died in Missouri  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She died in Missouri

Where has Oregon, boys,  
Where has Oregon?  
Where has Oregon, boys,  
Where has Oregon?  
Where has Oregon, boys,  
Where has Oregon?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
Where has Oregon?

She's gone to Oklahom, boys,  
She's gone to Oklahom  
She's gone to Oklahom, boys,  
She's gone to Oklahom  
She's gone to Oklahom, boys,  
She's gone to Oklahom  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
She's gone to Oklahom

Why did Califon-ya, boys,  
Why did Califon?  
Why did Califon-ya, boys,

Why did Califon?  
Why did Califon-ya, boys,  
Why did Califon?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
Why did Califon?

She phoned to say Hawai-ya, boys,  
She phoned to say Hawai-ya  
She phoned to say Hawai-ya, boys,  
She phoned to say Hawai-ya  
She phoned to say Hawai-ya, boys,  
She phoned to say Hawai-ya  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
That's why Califoned.

What did Mississip, boys,  
What did Mississip?  
What did Mississip, boys,  
What did Mississip?  
What did Mississip, boys,  
What did Mississip?  
I ask you now as a personal friend,  
What did Mississip?

She sipped a Minnisota, boys,  
She sipped a Minnisota  
She sipped a Minnisota, boys,  
She sipped a Minnisota  
She sipped a Minnisota, boys,  
She sipped a Minnisota  
I tell you now as a personal friend,  
That's what Mississipped.



## 50 States II

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Rocky Mountain States
- Continue index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Rocky Mountain States region.
- Students choose six blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.
- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should continue to fill in the map with the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.
- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Rocky Mountain States.

- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**

Teacher Supplement: BLANK US MAP

**United States of America**  
Name the State!

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 13 \_\_\_\_\_ 25 \_\_\_\_\_ 37 \_\_\_\_\_  
2 \_\_\_\_\_ 14 \_\_\_\_\_ 26 \_\_\_\_\_ 38 \_\_\_\_\_  
3 \_\_\_\_\_ 15 \_\_\_\_\_ 27 \_\_\_\_\_ 39 \_\_\_\_\_  
4 \_\_\_\_\_ 16 \_\_\_\_\_ 28 \_\_\_\_\_ 40 \_\_\_\_\_  
5 \_\_\_\_\_ 17 \_\_\_\_\_ 29 \_\_\_\_\_ 41 \_\_\_\_\_  
6 \_\_\_\_\_ 18 \_\_\_\_\_ 30 \_\_\_\_\_ 42 \_\_\_\_\_  
7 \_\_\_\_\_ 19 \_\_\_\_\_ 31 \_\_\_\_\_ 43 \_\_\_\_\_  
8 \_\_\_\_\_ 20 \_\_\_\_\_ 32 \_\_\_\_\_ 44 \_\_\_\_\_  
9 \_\_\_\_\_ 21 \_\_\_\_\_ 33 \_\_\_\_\_ 45 \_\_\_\_\_  
10 \_\_\_\_\_ 22 \_\_\_\_\_ 34 \_\_\_\_\_ 46 \_\_\_\_\_  
11 \_\_\_\_\_ 23 \_\_\_\_\_ 35 \_\_\_\_\_ 47 \_\_\_\_\_  
12 \_\_\_\_\_ 24 \_\_\_\_\_ 36 \_\_\_\_\_ 48 \_\_\_\_\_  
49 \_\_\_\_\_ 50 \_\_\_\_\_


www.graphicmaps.com

## Teacher Supplement: GEOGRAPHY OF THE U.S.

From Wikipedia,

### Geography of the United States



<b>Continent</b>	North America
<b>Coordinates</b>	 38.000°N 97.000°W
	Ranked 4th
<b>Area</b>	9,629,091 km <sup>2</sup> (3,717,813 sq mi) 97.77% land 2.23% water
<b>Coastline</b>	19,920 km (12,380 mi)
<b>Borders</b>	Canada: 8,893 km (5,526 mi) Mexico: 3,327 km (2,067 mi)
<b>Highest point</b>	Mount McKinley, 6,194 m (20,322 ft)
<b>Lowest point</b>	Badwater Basin, −86 m (−282 ft)
<b>Longest river</b>	Missouri River, 3,767 km (2,341 mi)
<b>Largest lake</b>	Lake Superior 31,153 km <sup>2</sup> (12,028 sq mi)
<b>Climate</b>	West: mostly semi-arid to desert, Mountains: alpine, Northeast: humid continental, Southeast: humid subtropical, Coast of California: Mediterranean, Pacific Northwest: cool temperate oceanic, Alaska: mostly subarctic, Hawaii: tropical.
<b>Terrain</b>	Vast central plain, mountains in west, hills and low mountains in east; rugged mountains and broad river valleys in Alaska; rugged, volcanic topography in Hawaii

**Natural Resources**

Coal, copper, lead, molybdenum, phosphates, rare earth elements, uranium, bauxite, gold, iron, mercury, nickel, potash, silver, tungsten, zinc, petroleum, natural gas, timber

**Natural Hazards**

Tsunamis; volcanoes; earthquake activity around Pacific Basin; hurricanes along the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts; tornadoes in the Midwest and Southeast; mud slides in California; forest fires in the west; flooding; permafrost in northern Alaska

**Environmental Issues**

Air pollution resulting in acid rain in both the US and Canada

The United States is a country in the Northern Hemisphere, Western Hemisphere, and the Eastern Hemisphere. It consists of forty-eight contiguous states in North America, Alaska, a peninsula which forms the northwestern most part of North America, and Hawaii, an archipelago in the Pacific Ocean. There are several United States territories in the Pacific and Caribbean. The term "United States", when used in the geographical sense, means the continental United States, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands of the United States.<sup>[1]</sup> The country shares land borders with Canada and Mexico and maritime (water) borders with Russia, Cuba, and the Bahamas in addition to Canada and Mexico.



This video shows portions of the United States, Canada, and the Aurora Borealis. It was taken by the crew of Expedition 29 on board the International Space Station.

This pass begins just south of the Gulf of Alaska in the eastern Pacific Ocean and ends in Central America near the border of Honduras and Nicaragua.

**Area**

By total area (water as well as land), the United States is either slightly larger or smaller than the People's Republic of China, making it the world's third or fourth largest country.<sup>[2]</sup> China and the United States are smaller than Russia and Canada in total area, but are larger than Brazil. By land area only (exclusive of waters), the United States is the world's third largest country, after Russia and Canada, with Canada second and China

fourth.<sup>[3]</sup> Whether the US or China is the third largest country depends on two factors: (1) The validity of China's claim on Aksai Chin and Trans-Karakoram Tract. Both these territories are also claimed by India, so are not counted; and (2) How US calculates its own



surface area. Since the initial publishing of the World Factbook, the CIA has updated the total area of United States a number of times.<sup>[4]</sup> From 1989 through 1996, the total area of the US was listed as 9,372,610 km<sup>2</sup> (3,618,780 sq mi) (land + inland water only). The listed total area changed to 9,629,091 km<sup>2</sup> (3,717,813 sq mi) in 1997 (Great Lakes area and coastal waters added), to 9,631,418 km<sup>2</sup> (3,718,711 sq mi) in 2004, to 9,631,420 km<sup>2</sup> (3,718,710 sq mi) in 2006, and to 9,826,630 km<sup>2</sup> (3,794,080 sq mi) in 2007 (territorial waters added). Currently, the CIA World Factbook gives 9,826,675 km<sup>2</sup> (3,794,100 sq mi),<sup>[5]</sup> the United Nations Statistics Division gives 9,629,091 km<sup>2</sup> (3,717,813 sq mi),<sup>[6]</sup> and the Encyclopædia Britannica gives 9,522,055 km<sup>2</sup> (3,676,486 sq mi).<sup>[7]</sup>

### **General Characteristics**

A satellite composite image of the contiguous United States. Deciduous vegetation and grasslands prevail in the east, transitioning to prairies, boreal forests, and the Rockies in the west, and deserts in the southwest. In the northeast, the coasts of the Great Lakes and Atlantic seaboard host much of the country's population.



The United States shares land borders with Canada (to the north) and Mexico (to the south), and a territorial water border with Russia in the

northwest, and two territorial water borders in the southeast between Florida and Cuba, and Florida and the Bahamas. The contiguous forty-eight states are otherwise bounded by the Pacific Ocean on the west, the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and the Gulf of Mexico to the southeast. Alaska borders the Pacific Ocean to the south, the Bering Strait to the west, and the Arctic Ocean to the north, while Hawaii lies far to the southwest of the mainland in the Pacific Ocean.

Forty-eight of the states are in the single region between Canada and Mexico; this group is referred to, with varying precision and formality, as the continental or contiguous United States, and as the Lower 48<sup>2</sup>. Alaska, which is not included in the term contiguous United States, is at the northwestern end of North America, separated from the Lower 48 by Canada. The State of Hawaii is an archipelago in the Pacific Ocean. The capital city, Washington, District of Columbia, is a federal district located on land donated by the state of Maryland. (Virginia had also donated land, but it was returned in 1847.) The United States also has overseas territories with varying levels of independence and organization.

The continental United States contains two harbor indented coasts of several thousand miles from which well watered coastal plains rise to two mountain ranges between which is an arable plain overlaid by thousands of miles of interconnected and navigable rivers. The Texas continental crossroads, the southerly deserts, and the basin and range country of Utah and Nevada complete the picture. The combination of rivers navigable thousands of miles inland, running throughout virtually all of the largest contiguous area of farm land in the world, has helped to make the United States the world's breadbasket and wealthiest



nation by far. Considering both the natural features and the political unity of the states of the region of the Great Plains, contrasted with the river systems and political disunity of Europe as an example, nothing quite like it exists anywhere else in the world. New Orleans—purchased along with the French territory of Louisiana in 1803—is the key to the Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Red river system of North America. In turn, Texas, with its own, unnavigable rivers, but productive land, acts as a buffer to protect New Orleans from the south and west.

### **Physiographic Divisions**

Main article: United States physiographic region



Mount McKinley, Alaska, the highest point in North America at 20,320 ft (6,194 m)

The eastern United States has a varied topography. A broad, flat coastal plain lines the Atlantic and Gulf shores from the Texas-Mexico border to New York City, and includes the Florida peninsula. Areas further inland feature rolling hills and temperate forests. The Appalachian Mountains form a line of low mountains separating the eastern seaboard from the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Basin. The five Great Lakes are located in the north-central portion of the country, four of them forming part of the border with Canada. The southeast United States contain subtropical forests and, near the gulf coast, mangrove wetlands, especially in Florida. West of the Appalachians lies the Mississippi River basin and two large eastern tributaries, the Ohio River and the Tennessee River. The Ohio and Tennessee Valleys and the Midwest consist largely of rolling hills and productive farmland, stretching south to the Gulf Coast.

The Great Plains lie west of the Mississippi River and east of the Rocky Mountains. A large portion of the country's agricultural products are grown in the Great Plains. Before their general conversion to farmland, the Great Plains were noted for their extensive grasslands, from tallgrass prairie in the eastern plains to shortgrass steppe in the western High Plains. Elevation rises gradually from less than a few hundred feet near the Mississippi River to more than a mile high in the High Plains. The generally low relief of the plains is broken in several places, most notably in the Ozark and Ouachita Mountains, which form the U.S. Interior Highlands, the only major mountainous region between the Rocky Mountains and the Appalachian Mountains.<sup>[8][9]</sup> The Great Plains come to an abrupt end at the Rocky Mountains. The Rocky Mountains form a large portion of the Western U.S., entering from Canada and stretching nearly to Mexico. The Rocky Mountain region is the highest region of

the United States by average elevation. The Rocky Mountains generally contain fairly mild slopes and wider peaks compared to some of the other great mountain ranges, with a few exceptions (such as the Teton Mountains in Wyoming and the Sawatch Range in Colorado). The highest peaks of the Rockies are found in Colorado, the tallest peak being Mount Elbert at 14,440 ft (4,400 m). The Rocky Mountains contain some of the most spectacular, and well known scenery in the world. In addition, instead of being one generally continuous and solid mountain range, it is broken up into a number of smaller, intermittent mountain ranges, forming a large series of basins and valleys.

West of the Rocky Mountains lies the Intermontane Plateaus (also known as the Intermountain West), a large, arid desert lying between the Rockies and the Cascades and Sierra Nevada ranges. The large southern portion, known as the Great Basin, consists of salt flats, drainage basins, and many small north-south mountain ranges. The Southwest is predominantly a low-lying desert region. A portion known as the Colorado Plateau, centered around the Four Corners region, is considered to have some of the most spectacular scenery in the world. It is accentuated in such national parks as Grand Canyon, Arches, Mesa Verde National Park and Bryce Canyon, among others.



The Grand Canyon from Moran Point. The Grand Canyon is among the most famous locations in the country.

The Intermontane Plateaus come to an end at the Cascade Range and the Sierra Nevada. The Cascades consist of largely intermittent, volcanic mountains, many rising prominently from the surrounding landscape. The Sierra Nevada, further south, is a high, rugged, and dense mountain range. It contains the highest point in the contiguous 48 states, Mount Whitney (14,505 ft or 4,421 m)[1] It is located at the boundary between California's Inyo and Tulare counties, just 84.6 mi or 136.2 km west-northwest of the lowest point in North America at Badwater in Death Valley National Park, at 282 ft or 86 m below sea level. These areas contain some spectacular scenery as well, as evidenced by such national parks as Yosemite and Mount Rainier. West of the Cascades and Sierra Nevada is a series of valleys, such as the Central Valley in California and the Willamette Valley in Oregon. Along the coast is a series of low mountain ranges known as the Pacific Coast Ranges. Much of the Pacific Northwest coast is inhabited by some of the densest vegetation outside of the Tropics, and also the tallest trees in the world (the Redwoods).



The Big Sur coastline in Central California provides some of the most spectacular scenery along the Pacific Coast Range.

Alaska contains some of the most dramatic and untapped scenery in the country. Tall, prominent mountain ranges rise up sharply from broad, flat tundra plains. On the islands off the south and southwest coast are many volcanoes. Hawaii, far to the south of Alaska in the Pacific Ocean, is a chain of tropical, volcanic islands, popular as a tourist destination for many from East Asia and the mainland United States.

The geography of the United States varies across their immense area. Within the continental U.S., eight distinct physiographic divisions exist, though each is composed of several smaller physiographic subdivisions.<sup>[10]</sup> These major divisions are:

- Laurentian Upland - part of the Canadian Shield that extends into the northern United States Great Lakes area.
- Atlantic Plain - the coastal regions of the eastern and southern parts includes the continental shelf, the Atlantic Coast and the Gulf Coast.
- Appalachian Highlands - lying on the eastern side of the United States, it includes the Appalachian Mountains, the Watchung Mountains, the Adirondacks and New England province originally containing the Great Eastern Forest.
- Interior Plains - part of the interior continental United States, it includes much of what is called the Great Plains.
- Interior Highlands - also part of the interior continental United States, this division includes the Ozark Plateau.
- Rocky Mountain System - one branch of the Cordilleran system lying far inland in the western states.
- Intermontane Plateaus - also divided into the Columbia Plateau, the Colorado Plateau and the Basin and Range Province, it is a system of plateaus, basins, ranges and gorges between the Rocky and Pacific Mountain Systems. It is the setting for the Grand Canyon, the Great Basin and Death Valley.
- Pacific Mountain System - the coastal mountain ranges and features in the west coast of the United States.



Much of the central United States is covered by relatively flat, arable land. This aerial photo was taken over northern Ohio.

The Atlantic coast of the United States is, with minor exceptions, low. The Appalachian Highland owes its oblique northeast-southwest trend to crustal deformations which in very early geological time gave a beginning to what later came to be the Appalachian mountain system. This system had its climax of deformation so long ago (probably in Permian time) that it has since then been very generally reduced to moderate or low relief. It owes its present day altitude either to renewed elevations along the earlier lines or to the survival of the most resistant rocks as

residual mountains. The oblique trend of this coast would be even more pronounced but for a comparatively modern crustal movement, causing a depression in the northeast resulting in an encroachment of the sea upon the land. Additionally, the southeastern section has undergone an elevation resulting in the advance of the land upon the sea.



A physiographical map, of the contiguous 48 states of the U.S. The map indicates the age of the exposed surface as well as the type of terrain.

While the Atlantic coast is relatively low, the Pacific coast is, with few exceptions, hilly or mountainous. This coast has been defined chiefly by geologically recent crustal deformations, and hence still preserves a greater relief than that of the Atlantic. The low Atlantic coast and the hilly or mountainous Pacific coast foreshadow the leading features in the distribution of mountains within the United States. The east coast Appalachian system, originally forest covered, is relatively low and narrow and is bordered on the southeast and south by an important coastal plain. The Cordilleran system on the western side of the continent is lofty, broad and complicated having two branches, the Rocky Mountain System and the Pacific Mountain System. In between these mountain systems lie the Intermontaine Plateaus. Both the Columbia River and Colorado River rise far inland near the easternmost members of the Cordilleran system, and flow through plateaus and intermontaine basins to the ocean. Heavy forests cover the northwest coast, but elsewhere trees are found only on the higher ranges below the Alpine region. The intermontane valleys, plateaus and basins range from treeless to desert with the most arid region being in the southwest.

The Laurentian Highlands, the Interior Plains and the Interior Highlands lie between the two coasts, stretching from the Gulf of Mexico northward, far beyond the national boundary, to the Arctic Ocean. The central plains are divided by a hardly perceptible height of land into a Canadian and a United States portion. It is from the United States side, that the great Mississippi system discharges southward to the Gulf of Mexico. The upper Mississippi and some of the Ohio basin is the semi-arid prairie region, with trees originally only along the watercourses. The uplands towards the Appalachians were included in the great eastern forested area, while the western part of the plains has so dry a climate that its native plant life is scanty, and in the south it is practically barren.

Elevation extremes:

- Lowest point: Death Valley, Inyo County, California -282 ft (-86 m) below sea level
- Highest point: Mount McKinley, Denali Borough, Alaska +20,320 ft (6,194 m) above sea level



## Climate

Main article: Climate of the United States



Climate zones of the lower 48 United States.



## Average precipitation

Due to its large size and wide range of geographic features, the United States contains examples of nearly every global climate. The climate is temperate in most areas, subtropical in the Deep South, tropical in Hawaii and southern Florida, polar in Alaska, semiarid in the Great Plains west of the 100th meridian, Mediterranean in coastal California and arid in the Great Basin. Its comparatively favorable agricultural climate contributed (in part) to the country's rise as a world power, with infrequent severe drought in the major agricultural regions, a general lack of widespread flooding, and a mainly temperate climate that receives adequate precipitation.





Deep snow during the Blizzard of 2006Nor'easter in Brooklyn, New York City.

The main influence on U.S. weather is the polar jet stream, which brings in large low pressure systems from the northern Pacific Ocean. The Cascade Range, Sierra Nevada, and Rocky Mountains pick up most of the moisture from these systems as they move eastward. Greatly diminished by the time they reach the High Plains, much of the moisture has been sapped by the orographic effect as it is forced over several mountain ranges. However, once it moves over the Great Plains, uninterrupted flat land allows it to reorganize and can lead to major clashes of air masses. In addition, moisture from the Gulf of Mexico is often drawn northward. When combined with a powerful jet stream, this can lead to violent thunderstorms, especially during spring and summer. Sometimes during late winter and spring these storms can combine with another low pressure system as they move up the East Coast and into the Atlantic Ocean, where they intensify rapidly. These storms are known as Nor'easters and often bring widespread, heavy snowfall to the Mid-Atlantic and New England. The uninterrupted flat grasslands of the Great Plains also leads to some of the most extreme climate swings in the world. Temperatures can rise or drop rapidly and winds can be extreme, and the flow of heat waves or Arctic air masses often advance uninterrupted through the plains.



The U.S. State of Hawaii has a year-round tropical climate, and is known for its many beaches, such as Waikiki Beach on O'ahu.

The Great Basin and Columbia Plateau (the Intermontane Plateaus) are arid or semiarid regions that lie in the rain shadow of the Cascades and Sierra Nevada. Precipitation averages less than 15 inches (38 cm). The Southwest is a hot desert, with temperatures exceeding 100 °F (37.8 °C) for several weeks at a time in summer. The Southwest and the Great Basin are also affected by the monsoon from the Gulf of California from July–September, which brings localized but often severe thunderstorms to the region.

Much of California consists of a Mediterranean climate, with sometimes excessive rainfall from October–April and nearly no rain the rest of the year. In the Pacific Northwest rain falls year-round, but is much heavier during winter and spring. The mountains of the west receive abundant precipitation and very heavy snowfall. The Cascades are one of the snowiest places in the world, with some places averaging over 600 inches (1,524 cm) of snow annually, but the lower elevations closer to the coast receive very little snow. Another

significant (but localized) weather effect is lake-effect snow that falls south and east of the Great Lakes, especially in the hilly portions of the Upper Peninsula of Michigan and on the Tug Hill Plateau in New York. The lake effect dumped well over 5 feet (1.52 m) of snow in the area of Buffalo, New York throughout the 2006-2007 winter. The Wasatch Front and Wasatch Range in Utah can also receive significant lake effect accumulations from the Great Salt Lake.

### **Extremes**

In northern Alaska, tundra and arctic conditions predominate, and the temperature has fallen as low as  $-80^{\circ}\text{F}$  ( $-62.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).<sup>[11]</sup> On the other end of the spectrum, Death Valley, California once reached  $134^{\circ}\text{F}$  ( $56.7^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), the second-highest temperature ever recorded on Earth.<sup>[12]</sup>

On average, the mountains of the western states receive the highest levels of snowfall on Earth. The greatest annual snowfall level is at Mount Rainier in Washington, at 692 inches (1,758 cm); the record there was 1,122 inches (2,850 cm) in the winter of 1971–72. This record was broken by the Mt. Baker Ski Area in northwestern Washington which reported 1,140 inches (2,896 cm) of snowfall for the 1998-99 snowfall season. Other places with significant snowfall outside the Cascade Range are the Wasatch Mountains, near the Great Salt Lake, the San Juan Mountains in Colorado, and the Sierra Nevada, near Lake Tahoe. In the east, while snowfall does not approach western levels, the region near the Great Lakes and the mountains of the Northeast receive the most. Along the northwestern Pacific coast, rainfall is greater than anywhere else in the continental U.S., with Quinault Rainforest in Washington having an average of 137 inches (348 cm).<sup>[13]</sup> Hawaii receives even more, with 460 inches (1,168 cm) measured annually on Mount Waialeale, in Kauai. The Mojave Desert, in the southwest, is home to the driest locale in the U.S. Yuma, Arizona, has an average of 2.63 inches (6.7 cm) of precipitation each year.<sup>[14]</sup>

In central portions of the U.S., tornadoes are more common than anywhere else on Earth<sup>[15]</sup> and touch down most commonly in the spring and summer. Deadly and destructive hurricanes occur almost every year along the Atlantic seaboard and the Gulf of Mexico. The Appalachian region and the Midwest experience the worst floods, though virtually no area in the U.S. is immune to flooding. The Southwest has the worst droughts; one is thought to have lasted over 500 years and to have decimated the Anasazi people.<sup>[16]</sup> The West is affected by large wildfires each year.

### **Natural Disasters**

The United States is affected by a variety of natural disasters yearly. Although drought is rare, it has occasionally caused major disruption, such as during the Dust Bowl (1931–1942). Farmland failed throughout the Plains, entire regions were virtually depopulated, and dust storms ravaged the land.





A powerful tornado near Dimmitt, Texas on June 2, 1995

### **Tornadoes And Hurricanes**

The Great Plains and Midwest, due to the contrasting air masses, sees frequent severe thunderstorms and tornado outbreaks during spring and summer with around 1,000 tornadoes occurring each year.<sup>[17]</sup> The strip of land from north Texas north to Kansas and east into Tennessee is known as Tornado Alley, where many houses have tornado shelters and many towns have tornado sirens. Another natural disaster that frequents the country are hurricanes, which can hit anywhere along the Gulf Coast or the Atlantic Coast as well as Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. Particularly at risk are the central and southern Texas coasts, the area from southeastern Louisiana east to the Florida Panhandle, the east coast of Florida, and the Outer Banks of North Carolina, although any portion of the coast could be struck. Hurricane season runs from June 1 to November 30, with a peak from mid-August through early October. Some of the more devastating hurricanes have included the Galveston Hurricane of 1900, Hurricane Andrew in 1992, and Hurricane Katrina in 2005. The remnants of tropical cyclones from the Eastern Pacific also occasionally impact the western United States, bringing moderate to heavy rainfall.



Total devastation in Gulfport, Mississippi following Hurricane Katrina in 2005.

### **Flooding**

Occasional severe flooding is experienced. There was the Great Mississippi Flood of 1927, the Great Flood of 1993, and widespread flooding and mudslides caused by the 1982-1983 El Niño event in the western United States. Localized flooding can, however, occur anywhere, and mudslides from heavy rain can cause problems in any mountainous area, particularly the Southwest. Large stretches of desert shrub in the west can fuel the spread of wildfires. The narrow canyons of many mountain areas in the west and severe thunderstorm activity during the summer leads to sometimes devastating flash floods as

well, while Nor'Easter snowstorms can bring activity to a halt throughout the Northeast (although heavy snowstorms can occur almost anywhere).

### **Geologic**

The West Coast of the continental United States and areas of Alaska (including the Aleutian Islands, the Alaskan Peninsula and southern Alaskan coast) make up part of the Pacific Ring of Fire, an area of heavy tectonic and volcanic activity that is the source of 90% of the world's earthquakes.<sup>[citation needed]</sup> The American Northwest sees the highest concentration of active volcanoes in the United States, in Washington, Oregon and northern California along the Cascade Mountains. There are several active volcanoes located in the islands of Hawaii, including Kilauea in ongoing eruption since 1983, but they do not typically adversely affect the inhabitants of the islands. There has not been a major life-threatening eruption on the Hawaiian islands since the 17th century. Volcanic eruptions can occasionally be devastating, such as in the 1980 eruption of Mount St. Helens in Washington.

The Ring of Fire makes California and southern Alaska particularly vulnerable to earthquakes. Earthquakes can cause extensive damage, such as the 1906 San Francisco Earthquake or the 1964 Good Friday Earthquake near Anchorage, Alaska. California is well known for seismic activity, and requires large structures to be earthquake resistant to minimize loss of life and property.<sup>[citation needed]</sup> Outside of devastating earthquakes, California experiences minor earthquakes on a regular basis.

There have been about 100 significant earthquakes annually from 2010 to 2012. Past averages were 21 a year. This is believed to be due to the deep disposal of wastewater from fracking. None has exceeded a magnitude of 5.6, and no one has been killed.<sup>[18]</sup>

### **Other Natural Disasters**

Other natural disasters include: tsunamis around Pacific Basin, mud slides in California, and forest fires in the western half of the contiguous U.S. Although drought is relatively rare, it has occasionally caused major economic and social disruption, such as during the Dust Bowl (1931–1942), which resulted in widespread crop failures and duststorms, beginning in the southern Great Plains and reaching to the Atlantic Ocean.

### **The Western or Pacific Coast States—California, Oregon, Washington, Hawaii, Alaska**

The Western Pacific Coast States include California, Oregon, Washington, Hawaii and Alaska. These states vary greatly in climate. The Pacific Northwest is abundant in rainfall while the eastern portion has semi-arid conditions. Alaska has very cold winters and hot summers. Hawaii has a mile climate but also has typhoons and tsunamis.

### **The Rocky Mountain States—Colorado, Utah, Nevada, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho**

Colorado, Utah, Nevada, Wyoming, Montana, and Idaho are Rocky Mountain States. This region is known for the Great Rocky Mountains. These are some of the highest mountains in the world and have a very cold and snowy winter. The Great Salt Lake is in Utah.

**The Great Plains States—North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas**

The Great Plains States include North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas. These states are flat with no mountains. The climate is similar to the Midwest. It is cold and snowy in the winter and hot in the summer. These states are major producers of wheat and beef cattle.

**The Southwest States—Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Oklahoma**

The Southwest States include Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Oklahoma. Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas are bordered on the south by Mexico. The climate in most of the region is hot and dry in the summer. Some areas have cold winters. The Southwest States are major producers of oil, natural gas, minerals, cotton and cattle.

**The Midwest States—Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Missouri, Minnesota, Iowa**

The Midwest States include Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Missouri, Minnesota, and Iowa. Six of these states are bordered by four of the Great Lakes. These are Lakes Superior, Erie, Michigan and Huron. The Midwest has industries in auto manufacturing, steel mills, and farms that produce corn, soybeans and other crops. The winter weather is cold and snowy and the summer is hot.

**The Southern States—Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana**

The Southern States include Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansas, and Louisiana. The warm, humid climate of the South creates ideal conditions for growing cotton, sugarcane and rice. The South is also an important manufacturing region. Tourism, particularly in Florida, brings visitors to the area.

**The Mid-Atlantic States—New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, and Washington, DC**

The Mid-Atlantic States include New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, and the District of Columbia. The Mid-Atlantic region is small in size but heavily populated. Oil, steel and coal from this region fueled America's industry and power for many decades.

**The North East States—New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine**

The Northeast States include New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire and Maine. This area is also called New England. The Northeastern United States were settled by people from Western Europe who met many Native American tribes on our shores. This area includes five of the original thirteen colonies. The climate in this area is cold with snow and rain in the winter and has a short summer. Much of the land is mountainous and rocky and not suited for farming. Manufacturing has always been important in this region.



## 50 States III

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Great Plains States and the Southwest region
- Continue index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

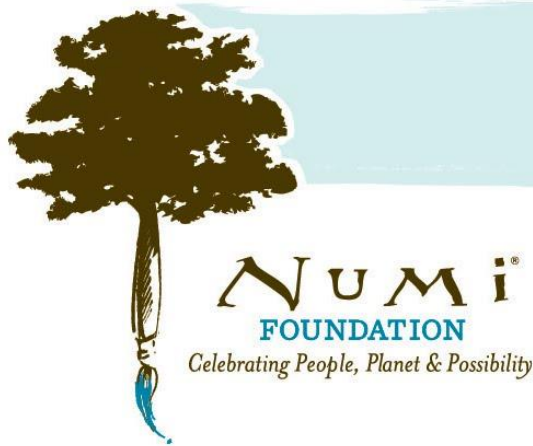
- A large classroom map of the United States

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Great Plains States and the Southwest region.
- Students choose eight blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.
- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should continue to fill in the map with the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.

- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Great Plains States and the Southwest region.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## 50 States IV

### Week 25.2

### STANDARDS

### CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Midwest States
- Continue index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Midwest States.
- Students choose eight blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.

- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should continue to fill in the map with the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.
- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Midwest States.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## 50 States V

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Southern States
- Continue index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States

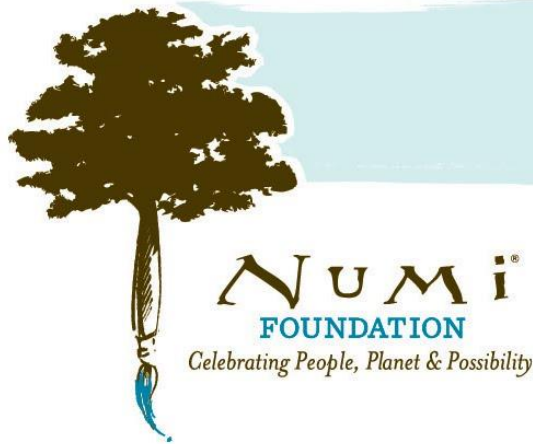
### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Southern States.
- Students choose twelve blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.
- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should continue to fill in the map with the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.



- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Midwest States.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## 50 States VI

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Mid-Atlantic States
- Continue index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Mid-Atlantic States.
- Students choose twelve blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.
- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should continue to fill in the map with the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.

- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Mid-Atlantic States.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## 50 States VII

### STANDARDS

CC5.9

### OBJECTIVES

- Teacher led discussion about the Northeastern States
- Continue index card collection of states
- Fill in part of blank map
- Journal writing

### MATERIALS

- A large classroom map of the United States

### Preparation:

- Opening Activity—Sing, “What did Dela ware, boys?” (See Teacher Supplement)
- Teacher led discussion about the Northeastern States.
- Students choose twelve blank index cards. On one side they print the name of the state and on the other side the name of the Capital city. They may draw the shape of the state or something else that may help them to remember the name of the state and the Capital city.
- On a blank map of the 50 states, the students should continue to fill in the map with the names of the states discussed today. The class map of the states should be visible for the students to fill in the map correctly.

- In journals, the students should summarize what the teacher has told them about the Northeastern States.
- Class finishes.

**Notes/Feedback:**



## Culminating Report

### OBJECTIVES

- Report Writing

### MATERIALS

- Research Books
- Writing Paper
- Pencils

### Preparation:

- The teacher will assign a writing project to finish the semester. Each student will choose from a state of the United States and write a 2 -3 page report on that state and draw a cover picture. Class time will be used for this purpose.
- The children will have information from the teacher or books from school or the library.
- Class time will be used to learn to take information from the printed material and re-phrase in the children's words into their written pages.
- Oral reports will be given in class.
- HOMEWORK OPTION: Work on Research Report.

### GEOGRAPHY OF THE UNITED STATES

#### STATE REPORT

#### DUE DATE

(No more than two students may research the same state)

This project involves the writing of a research report about one American state. Research your chosen state using books, magazines, or classroom material. We will devote some classroom time to prepare your report. You will deliver an oral report on your subject to the class.

Prepare your written report in the following way:

- Cover page drawing illustrating something important about your state.
- Minimum three pages including:
  - A. Geography of your state
    - 1. Include a hand drawn map with bordering states, bodies of water, or countries
  - B. History of your state
  - C. Important crops, products, natural resources, animals or services of your state
  - D. Famous people from your state
- State Facts Page to include:
  - A. State Flag, Capital, State Bird, State Flower, State Motto, Population, and other important facts
- Bibliography

**Notes/Feedback:**