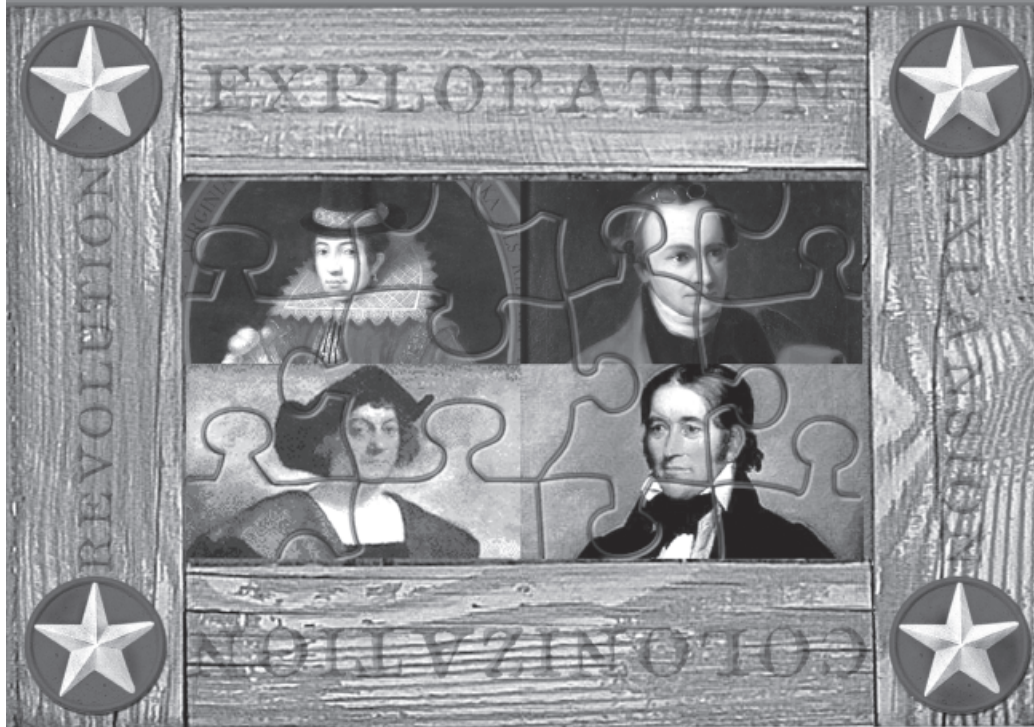


VOL. 1 — The Explorers to the Jacksonians

# All American History

Uniting America's Story, Piece by Piece



A full year's curriculum in 32 weekly lessons

CELESTE W. RAKES

## Student Reader

Bright  
Ideas  
PRESS  
Dover, DE

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

Published by Bright Ideas Press  
P.O. Box 333, Cheswold, DE 19936  
[www.BrightIdeasPress.com](http://www.BrightIdeasPress.com)

© 2006 by Bright Ideas Press. Printed and bound in the United States of America. All rights reserved. This book may not be duplicated in any way without the express written permission of the publisher, except in the form of brief excerpts or quotations for the purpose of review. Making copies of this book, for any purpose other than stipulated, is a violation of the United States copyright laws.

*Cover and interior design by Pneuma Books, LLC*  
Visit [www.pneumabooks.com](http://www.pneumabooks.com) for more information.

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

### Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

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

E178.1.R27 2006  
973 —dc22

2005021128

11 10 09 08 07 06

6 5 4

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

---

Preface ..... xi

Acknowledgments ..... xiii

Introduction..... xv

**UNIT 1: THE AGE OF EUROPEAN EXPLORATION ..... 1**

    Lesson 1: The First Americans and Leif Eriksson ..... 5

    Lesson 2: Marco Polo and Prince Henry the Navigator.....13

    Lesson 3: Christopher Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci .....25

    Lesson 4: John Cabot (Giovanni Caboto), Vasco Nuñez de Balboa,  
        and Other Spanish Conquistadors .....37

    Lesson 5: Juan Ponce de Leon, Ferdinand Magellan, and Giovanni da Verrazano .....51

    Lesson 6: Jacques Cartier, Hernando de Soto, and Francisco Vasquez de Coronado.....65

    Lesson 7: Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter (Raleigh) Raleigh .....77

    Lesson 8: Henry Hudson and Samuel de Champlain .....89

**UNIT 2: THE PERIOD OF COLONIZATION.....97**

    Lesson 9: The Virginia Colony .....101

    Lesson 10: The Massachusetts Colony ..... 113

    Lesson 11: The New Hampshire Colony, the Rhode Island Colony,  
        and the Connecticut Colony .....127

    Lesson 12: The New York Colony and the New Jersey Colony .....139

    Lesson 13: The Delaware Colony, the Pennsylvania Colony, and the Maryland Colony .....149

Lesson 14: The North Carolina Colony, the South Carolina Colony, and the Georgia Colony .....	163
Lesson 15: Colonial Family Life .....	175
Lesson 16: Colonial Culture .....	189
<b>UNIT 3: THE PERIOD OF REVOLUTION .....</b>	<b>203</b>
Lesson 17: The French and Indian War .....	207
Lesson 18: A Time of Crisis in Colonial Relations .....	217
Lesson 19: Colonial Tensions Mount .....	225
Lesson 20: The War for Independence Begins .....	237
Lesson 21: War in the Northeast and a Declaration of Independence .....	249
Lesson 22: More War in the Northeast and the Articles of the Confederation .....	261
Lesson 23: War in the South, in the West, and on the High Seas .....	275
Lesson 24: Decisive Southern Victories, Cornwallis's Surrender, and a Treaty .....	287
<b>UNIT 4: THE PERIOD OF ESTABLISHMENT AND EXPANSION .....</b>	<b>297</b>
Lesson 25: A New Nation Is Born .....	301
Lesson 26: The Federalists, and the Jeffersonians .....	311
Lesson 27: The War of 1812, and the Native American Battles in the Northwest Territory .....	325
Lesson 28: The Jacksonians and the Whigs .....	337
Lesson 29: Manifest Destiny, the Native Americans, and the Mexican War .....	351
Lesson 30: The Industrial Revolution .....	363
Lesson 31: Early Nineteenth Century Family Life .....	373
Lesson 32: Early Nineteenth Century Culture .....	385
Afterword .....	397
Appendix: Charter Documents of the United States .....	403
Endnotes .....	429
Index .....	431

# PREFACE

---

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

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

# INTRODUCTION

---

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

# UNIT ONE

# THE AGE OF EUROPEAN EXPLORATION

---

## *Lessons 1 – 8*

By the end of the fifteenth century, several European nations had become swept up in to a great burst of westward exploration. Spain, Portugal, England, France, and the Netherlands were the principal countries that competed in this quest. Because of the large number of European explorers during the sixteen th century, this period in history has become known as the Age of European Exploration or the Great Age of Discovery.

Most people living in Europe in 1480 stayed in or near their own villages for most of their lives. They thought of the world as one enormous land mass (they only knew of Europe, Asia, and Africa), broken up by a number of seas and surrounded by one large body of water (which they called the Ocean Sea). Although many educated Europeans believed the world to be round, church maps drawn during this period still depicted a flat earth with Jerusalem at the center. Occasionally, mapmakers also placed monsters on their maps in areas about which they knew nothing; and many believed that the seas were filled with enormous creatures that would swallow them alive.

There were a number of developments in the decades preceding the end of the fifteenth century that helped to spark the great wave of exploration that followed. One important factor was a revival of Greek scientific learning, especially the study of Ptolemy's *Geography* (which held that the world was

round). Development of new navigation instruments, seaworthy vessels capable of transoceanic voyages, and improved mapmaking skills also played significant roles in making the Age of European Exploration possible.

Three primary reasons why these European explorers desired to sail westward in the sixteenth century can easily be remembered as the three *g*'s:

- Gold — desire to find a western trade route to the Far East and its treasures
- Glory — desire to conquer land for one's country and gain favor in the eyes of the monarchy
- God — desire to spread one's religion to other areas of the world

European explorations and discoveries during the sixteenth century led to a revolutionary redrawing of the map of the world. They also brought about a dramatic expansion of the world's economy by creating new trade routes and markets. Ready to take huge risks and to go where no European had gone before, these sixteenth-century explorers would ultimately be responsible for bringing about the downfall of old civilizations and paving the way for the rise of new ones in what they came to believe was a New World.

# LESSON I

---

*The First Americans* . . . . . ? A.D.  
*Leif Eriksson* . . . . . 980? or 970? — 1020? A.D.

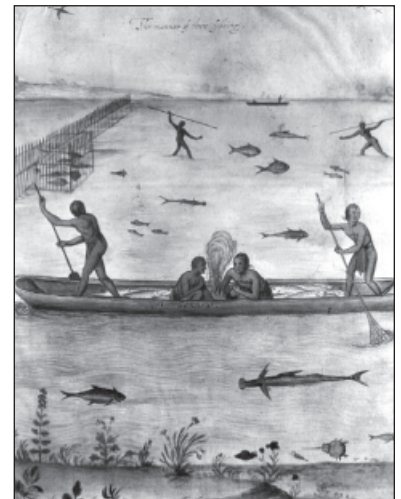
## ATMOSPHERE

### THE FIRST AMERICANS

Who were the first people to explore what we call America today? Not Europeans! Historians believe that the first explorers of America were people who migrated from central Asia. These “first Americans” probably crossed the Bering Sea from Siberia to Alaska, either using a raft or walking over a bridge of land that no longer exists. By the time of the Age of European Exploration, there were millions of descendants of these Asian immigrants scattered from Alaska to as far south as Chile.

No one knows exactly when the first Americans arrived. However, we do know that the migrations of these Native Americans continued until they had spread throughout present-day Canada, the United States, Mexico, Central America, and South America. Over time they became organized into hundreds of tribes and family groups. Each group developed its own way of life, depending on the location and type of land where they settled.

Through the centuries, a number of great Native American civilizations grew up in the Americas. These civilizations, such as the Aztec and Inca empires, built large cities, established their own religions



**Native Americans fishing**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZC4-4805]*



**Leif Eriksson**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZ62-3028]*



**Erik the Red**

*Public Domain*

beliefs, and developed skills in such disciplines as math, astronomy, and art. However, most Europeans arriving in America during the sixteenth century considered Native Americans to be an inferior, uncivilized race and lusted for their land and its resources with little compassion or guilt.

## LEIF (THE LUCKY) ERIKSSON

The first *recorded* European explorer of America was the Viking adventurer Leif Eriksson (spelled various ways — Ericson, Ericsson, Erikson, or Erickson). Son of Erik the Red, Leif was probably born in Iceland, an island that had been colonized by a group of Norwegians sometime between 890 and 930 A.D. Around 982, Leif's father Erik was banished from Iceland for several years because of his violent behavior.

Sailing westward from Iceland, Erik discovered another island, which he named Greenland. This name did not fit the topography of the land, since four-fifths of the island was covered in ice. However, Erik the Red did find good farmland on its south and west coasts. When his period of exile was over, Erik returned to Iceland to recruit others to join with him and his family in colonizing Greenland.

Sometime in 985 – 986, Erik the Red succeeded in persuading a small group of Icelanders to sail with him to Greenland to plant a colony there. In Greenland, Erik established his family on a farm, where his children, including his son Leif, grew to adulthood. Described in Viking sagas as tall and handsome, Leif, like most Norsemen, had long flaxen hair and piercing blue eyes. A skilled seaman and a ruthless warrior, Leif Eriksson was also known as a faithful and generous friend.

As he grew to manhood, Leif heard many stories about King Olav of Norway and his glorious deeds. By 999, Leif had grown eager to meet this celebrated king and made plans to lead an expedition to Norway. While visiting in Olav's court, Leif and his men were introduced to the foundations of the Christian faith. According to some sources, Leif and his companions accepted the Gospel and agreed to be baptized.

When Leif returned to Greenland, he shared the Gospel with his mother. She became a believer; and after her conversion, she asked her husband Erik to build a church for worship. Although Erik agreed to have this church constructed, there is no record that he visited it when it was completed or accepted the Christian faith as his own.

## EVENT

### THE FATE OF THE FIRST AMERICANS

At first, many Native American tribes received European explorers and colonists with curiosity and friendliness. In fact, some tribes even helped to save a number of European settlements from starvation. Most Native Americans were fascinated with European materials and skills, which were unfamiliar to them. However, when Europeans seized Native American lands and enslaved them, they became violent. Terrible conflicts and many deaths resulted, and the Europeans usually prevailed. Furthermore, those Native Americans not killed in battle faced the very real possibility of dying from diseases for which they had no immunity. In fact, historians believe that the germs carried by Europeans to the New World had killed 50 to 80 percent of the Native American population within the first hundred years of contact.

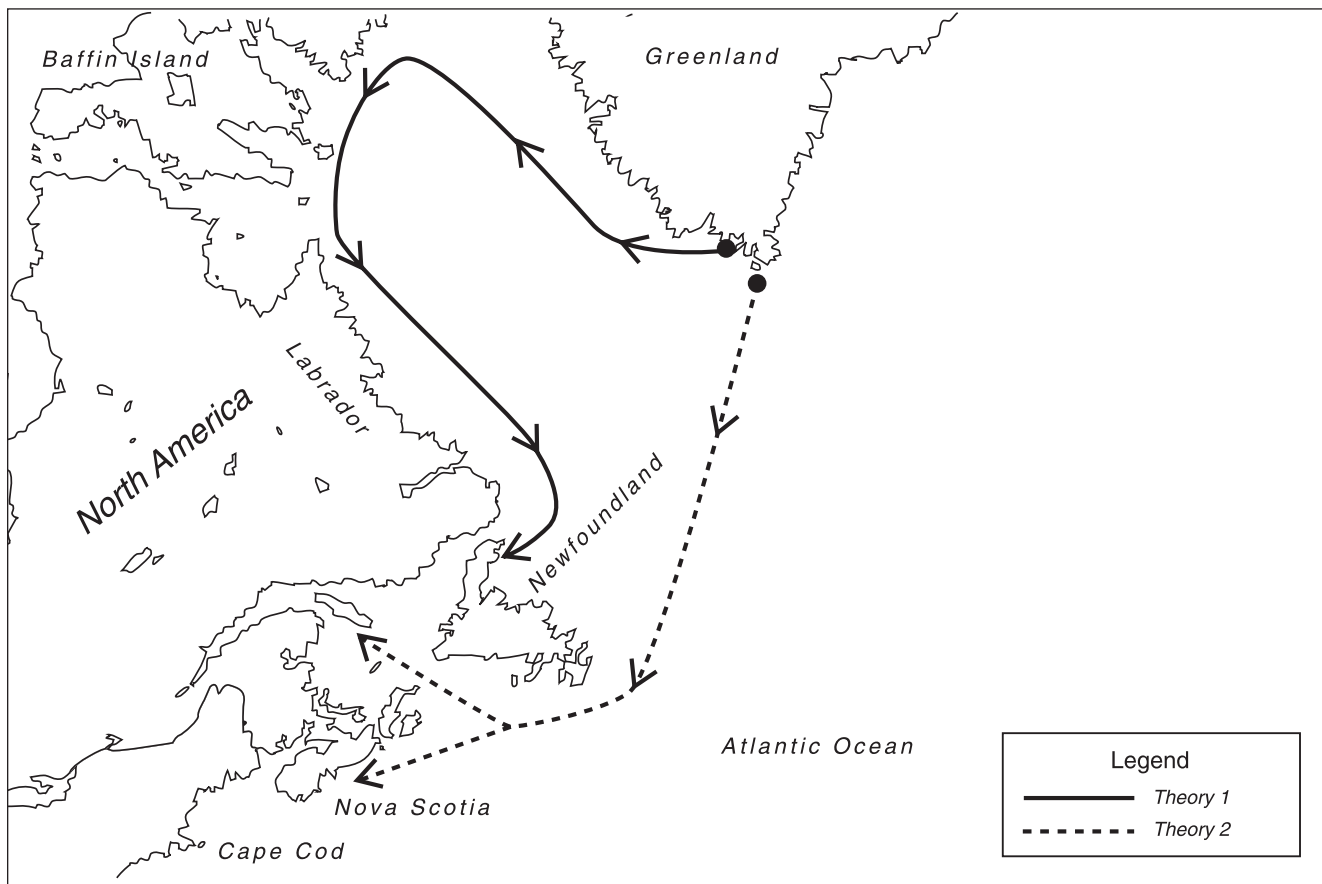
As Europeans continued to come to America in the sixteenth century and to plant colonies there in the seventeenth century, they did everything that they could to establish their supremacy over Native Americans. In particular, they sought to increase the natives' dependence upon European manufactured goods, for which they eagerly traded. By taking advantage of this dependency, Europeans were able to secure vast tracts of land in exchange for materials worth very little. As the years passed, more and more Native Americans lost their lives or their freedom at the hands of European explorers and colonists.

## ERIKSSON'S EXPLORATIONS

After returning from Norway, Leif began making plans to follow up on the story of a voyage made by Bjarni Herjolfsson in about 985 – 986. Herjolfsson had apparently sailed past his intended destination, Greenland, and discovered new lands, which were covered in trees and without glaciers. For several days, Herjolfsson had traveled north along this land; he then turned east and made his way to Greenland.

Sometime in 1000 or 1001, Leif decided to buy Herjolfsson's boat. He assembled a crew and set out to retrace Herjolfsson's route. When Leif asked his father to command this expedition, Erik agreed to do so. However, on his way to the ship, Erik fell from his horse and suffered an injury that prevented him from sailing with Leif and his men.

**Eriksson's explorations**



Because Leif and his men left behind no maps, scholars are not certain where they landed during their voyage of exploration. There are several historical theories concerning the location of their three landing sites:

- The first landing site, which they named *Helluland* (Country of Flat Stones), is likely to be present-day Baffin Island or possibly Newfoundland.
- The second landing site, which they named *Markland* (Land of Forests or Woods), is likely to be present-day Labrador or possibly Nova Scotia.
- The third landing site, which they named *Vinland* (Wineland), is likely to be present-day Newfoundland or possibly Cape Cod.

When they landed on Vinland, Leif and his men decided to remain for the winter. There they chopped down trees, built huts, hunted for game, and fished for salmon. They were amazed at the land's abundant resources. They also noticed that the winter days in Vinland were longer than the winter days in Greenland. As they prepared to leave, Leif and his men loaded their ship with lumber and grapes to carry home. On the return voyage to Greenland, Leif succeeded in rescuing fifteen sailors whom he found shipwrecked on a small reef. This daring rescue earned him the nickname Leif the Lucky.

The year after Leif's return from Vinland, Erik the Red died. Leif's time then became consumed with caring for Erik's lands, and he never personally returned to Vinland. However, other Vikings sought to colonize the area with his assistance. For a period of about twelve years, Vikings apparently traveled back and forth from Greenland to Vinland. Leif's brother Thorvald, his sister Freydis, and his brother-in-law Thorfinn Karlsefni were all involved in exploring and seeking to colonize this new land. (Note: In 1962, the remains of a Viking settlement were found near the northern tip of Newfoundland. Carbon-14 testing



**Thorfinn's landing on the shore of Vinland**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-23517]*



**A Viking Boat**

Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZC4-7646]

of the organic material there dates the settlement at approximately 1000 A.D.)

None of these Viking settlements lasted very long. In fact, there is no recorded evidence of Vikings in Vinland past 1014 A.D. The native people of Vinland, whom the Vikings called Skraelings (which means savage wretches), greatly outnumbered the Norsemen and frequently attacked them. Feeling homesick and frightened, the Vikings loaded their ships with timber and fur and sailed back to Greenland.

Stories about Erik the Red and Leif the Lucky were frequently recounted among the Vikings. Approximately 150 years after Leif's expedition, these stories were written down in the form of heroic poems called *The Saga of the Greenlanders* and *The Saga of Erik the Red*. However, few other Europeans seem to have ever known about the Viking discoveries in America. Consumed with wars, religious crusades, and disease, Europeans had time for little else. For nearly five hundred years after Leif Eriksson, no new European explorers seem to have come to America.

After the sixteen winters had lapsed, from the time when Eric the Red went to colonize Greenland, Leif, Eric's son, sailed out from Greenland to Norway. He arrived in Dröonheim in the autumn, when King Olaf Tryggvason was come down from the North, out of Halagoland. Leif put in to Nidaros with his ship, and set out at once to visit the king. King Olaf expounded the faith to him, as he did to other heathen men who came to visit him. It proved easy for the king to persuade Leif, and he was accordingly baptized, together with all of his shipmates. Leif remained throughout the winter with the king, by whom he was well entertained.

— from *The Saga of Erik the Red*

## IMPACT

- Historians believe that the first explorers of America migrated from central Asia and eventually scattered from Alaska to Chile.

- A number of great Native American civilizations developed. However, most Europeans arriving in America during the sixteenth century considered these Native Americans to be primitive and inferior and sought to take over their land and other resources.
- Leif Eriksson is the first European known to have discovered land in North America and to have attempted to colonize there. (Five hundred years before Columbus!)
- The Viking colony of Vinland, established by Leif and his men (most likely on Newfoundland or the Cape Cod region), lasted for as long as twelve years. Stories about Leif's expedition were eventually written down by the Greenlanders, but few other Europeans seem to have known about these Viking discoveries in America.





# LESSON 9

---

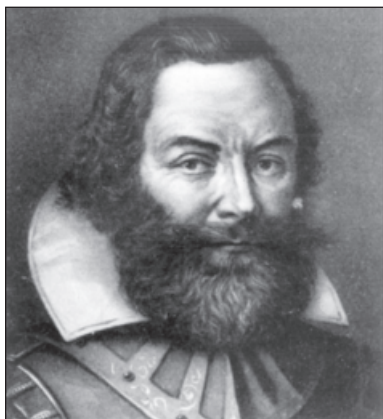
*The Virginia Colony* . . . . . EST. 1607 A.D.

## ATMOSPHERE

### VIRGINIA CHARTERS

Until the early seventeenth century, England had not been in a strong position to establish colonies in America. Because they were frequently at war with other European nations, the English had not been able to spare the ships or money needed to start settlements in the New World. However, in 1604 England finally signed a peace treaty with Spain, freeing it to begin thinking seriously about colonizing in America. At that time the only European colony on the continent of North America was the Spanish colony at St. Augustine, founded in 1565.

In the early 1600s, the English king, James I, issued a joint charter to two stock companies — the Plymouth Company and the London Company. This official royal document authorized these two companies to settle the area in America that the English called Virginia. The Virginia Company of London was given permission to settle southern Virginia, the land south of the Chesapeake Bay. The Virginia Company of Plymouth received the right to colonize northern Virginia, the land north of the Chesapeake Bay.



**Captain John Smith**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZ62-55182]*

During December of 1606, an expedition planned by the London Company set sail from England to Virginia. Commanded by Captain Christopher Newport, the expedition consisted of three small wooden ships: the *Godspeed*, the *Discovery*, and the *Susan Constant*. More than one hundred English men and boys were on board, along with food, tools, and supplies.

The last English attempt at colonization in America had been the settlement sponsored by Sir Walter Raleigh at Roanoke (1587 – 1590). Even fifteen years later, the English still came to America with the hope of finding some of those missing from Roanoke's Lost Colony. There was also a continuing desire to look for a Northwest Passage to Asia as well to search for gold and other valuables (like the Spanish had found in some of their American colonies).

On the voyage across the Atlantic, the three English ships were battered by winter storms. There was also much unrest among the colonists on board, who were crammed together and often hungry. A feisty soldier-adventurer named Captain John Smith was accused of mutiny and arrested. His enemies wanted to hang Smith, but Captain Newport refused to allow them to do so. By the time the three ships reached Virginia, at least thirty-four people had died at sea.

Finally, after a four-month voyage, the expedition sighted land in April 1607. Sailing into the Chesapeake Bay, the three ships anchored near an elbow of beach. The English named this site Cape Henry, in honor of Prince Henry (the oldest son of King James I). The colonists planted a cross at Cape Henry and thanked God for their safe arrival. Then Captain Newport opened a sealed metal box, which had been placed into his care by the London Company. This box contained the names of seven colonists chosen by the company to serve on the colony's local governing council. One of the names on the list was John Smith, who was still under arrest.

The box from the London Company also contained instructions for the council to choose a site for settlement many miles inland in order to provide for the colony's protection against possible Spanish attacks. To follow these instructions, the English explored the Chesapeake Bay area for several weeks. Unable to find a suitable

location, they left the mouth of the bay and sailed up a nearby river, which they named the James River in honor of King James. Looking for a naturally defensible location, the English finally discovered a peninsula sixty miles from the mouth of the bay. They decided to plant their colony there, and they named it James Towne (again to recognize their king).

## EVENT

### ESTABLISHMENT OF JAMESTOWN

The colonists immediately set to work building rough huts for shelter. By June of 1607, they had also constructed a tiny triangular fort, surrounded by a fence of wooden stakes (for protection against the Native Americans in the area). A group of about thirty colonists had already been attacked by a small band of natives back at Cape Henry. Inspired by the success of the Spanish colonists in finding gold in the New World, many of the first settlers at Jamestown were eager to begin searching for gold. Their hope was to find gold quickly and easily and then return to England. The colonists didn't even bother to plant crops because they were so preoccupied with hunting for gold.

Many of the first colonists at Jamestown were ill equipped to survive the physical and emotional hardships of settling in the wilderness. At least a third of the colonists were gentlemen, with no experience in farming, hunting, fishing, or trapping. The English also continued to fight among themselves and received little incentive from the London Company to work hard. Each settler was given the same pay, no matter how much he worked, and no one was allowed to own property.

Unfortunately, the location chosen for Jamestown was not a favorable one for colonization. During the summer, the peninsula turned into a swamp and became a breeding ground for mosquitoes. The mosquitoes caused malaria, which along with dysentery killed many of the first colonists. The peninsula also did not have a good supply of fresh water or fertile soil, and it had served as a hunting

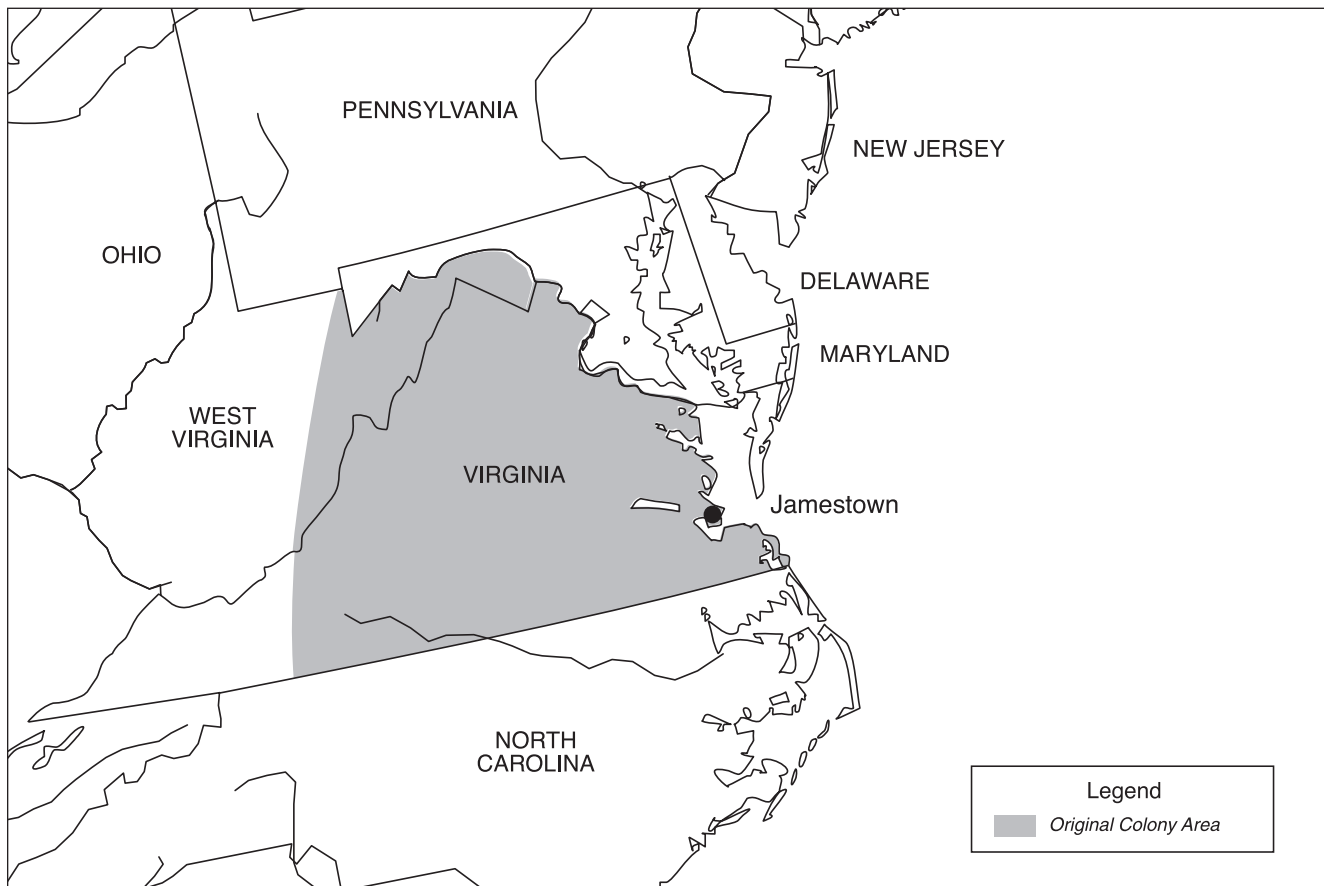


**John Smith's map of Virginia**  
*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZ62-116706]*

ground for a nearby tribe. By winter, the colonists' supplies had run out, and many of them began to starve. When a supply ship with more colonists arrived in January of 1608, fewer than forty colonists were still alive. And no gold had been found!

By the fall of 1608, the Jamestown colonists had elected Captain Smith president of their council. He had demonstrated his courage and resourcefulness by leaving the settlement to go on scouting expeditions for food and badly needed supplies. Smith made friends with the native Algonquian and learned to plant corn the Indian way, to hunt, to fish, and to dig a well to get pure water. A natural trader, Smith was also able to obtain food for the Jamestown settlers by taking blankets, shovels, and axes to the Algonquian villages. As

### **The Virginia Colony**



the leader of the Jamestown colony, Smith insisted that every person contribute to the work necessary for the settlement to survive. Smith's rule was "he that will not work shall not eat." As a result of John Smith's organizational and motivational leadership, only twelve out of two hundred of the colonists died during the second winter (1608 – 1609).

Unfortunately, in the fall of 1609, Smith left Jamestown and returned to England. Most sources maintain that the reason he returned was because he had been badly burned. Smith's departure brought an end to the colony's harmonious relationships with the Algonquian. The Algonquian chief, Powhatan, and his people began to look at Jamestown with increasing fear and anger, resenting the loss of their hunting grounds. They began attacking the fort at Jamestown periodically, and they refused to trade with the settlers. After Smith returned to England, the London Company replaced the colony's council with a governor.

By the end of 1609, over four hundred new English settlers had arrived in Jamestown. To attract new colonists, the London Company had advertised free passages to America for those willing to put in seven years of unpaid labor. English immigrants who took advantage of this offer were known as indentured servants. Some of these indentured servants were individuals who had held high social positions in England but had fallen in to hard times. Others were prisoners released from jail on condition that they go to the colonies.

The winter of 1609 – 1610 became known as the starving time in the history of Jamestown. During these months there was rampant death in the colony, due to starvation, dysentery, and malaria. In order to survive, colonists ate cats, dogs, horses, rats, and snakes and chewed on shoe leather. In late spring of 1610, two English ships arrived in Jamestown to find the colony in a state of disaster. Many of its buildings had been burned to the ground to keep the settlers warm, and only sixty of its people (10 percent) had survived.

Since many of the passengers on the two English ships had also died (from yellow fever), both groups decided to return to England rather than stay in Jamestown. In June, the group of Jamestown survivors



**Chief Powhatan**

*Line drawing courtesy of Amy Pak*

boarded the English ships and floated down the James River with the passengers who had decided to sail back to the homeland. They had traveled less than fifteen miles when they encountered a new expedition of English ships arriving with supplies and three hundred new colonists. Also on board was the new governor of the settlement, Lord De La Warr.

Under De La Warr's leadership, Jamestown was rebuilt. The new governor also established military rule in Jamestown. Men were ranked from private to captain and marched to work and to church two times a day. Anyone who disobeyed De La Warr's orders was punished. Eventually, some of the Jamestown settlers became so unhappy that they ran away to live with the Algonquian, and others escaped on passing ships. Finally, in 1616, the London Company ended the harsh military rule in Jamestown because the company was having trouble finding people willing to immigrate to the colony.

## POCAHONTAS

In 1616, John Smith wrote that the Algonquian princess Pocahontas helped the colony avoid famine and death. This daughter of Powhatan, chief of the Algonquian nation, was named Matoaka at birth but nicknamed Pocahontas, which meant Little Wanton (playful and hard to control). The first meeting of Pocahontas and John Smith became a legendary story, the subject of controversy among scholars. Soon after the establishment of Jamestown in 1607, Smith was taken captive and brought to the official residence of Powhatan. There, according to the legend, Pocahontas (ten or eleven at the time) saved Smith from being clubbed to death by her father. Some scholars believe that this incident was actually part of a traditional Algonquian mock execution and salvation ceremony and that Pocahontas's actions were part of the ritual. Other Native American scholars maintain that this entire incident likely never happened, especially because it was used by the English to justify waging war on Powhatan's people.

Apparently, Pocahontas frequently visited Jamestown in the early years of the settlement. She brought messages from her father and



**Pocahontas (Rebecca)**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-D416-18753]*

accompanied natives who wanted to trade food and furs for the colonists' trinkets and hatchets. When relations between the colonists and the Algonquian deteriorated, Pocahontas's visits became less frequent. Then, in 1612, Pocahontas (seventeen at the time) was apparently kidnapped by Captain Samuel Argall and held for ransom. After receiving the English demands, Powhatan sent some of the ransom and asked that his daughter be treated well. Pocahontas was taken to Jamestown and then moved to a new settlement at Henrico, where she enjoyed relative freedom. She was educated in Christianity and fell in love with an English colonist, John Rolfe.

In 1613, Pocahontas was released. When she returned to her father, she asked Powhatan for permission to marry Rolfe, and he gave his consent. Pocahontas was baptized, given the Christian name Rebecca,

**Marriage of Pocahontas  
to John Rolfe**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZ62-5242]*



and married Rolfe on April 5, 1614. Their union resulted in a spirit of peace and goodwill between the colonists and the Native Americans for a time. In 1616, Pocahontas, her husband, and their son Thomas traveled with a group of English and Algonquian to London to secure further financial support for the Virginia settlement. The arrival of Pocahontas in London was well publicized, and she was presented to King James I and the rest of London society. She also saw John Smith again, whom she had believed to be dead. In March of 1617, Pocahontas became ill from pneumonia, or possibly tuberculosis, and died as she and her family were beginning their journey back to America.

### **A PROFITABLE AND PRODUCTIVE JAMESTOWN**

The London Company had become quite unhappy that Jamestown was not making money. Because the company was suffering financial troubles, it needed its colony to produce a profitable export. Finally, in 1612, Jamestown discovered a cash crop that would guarantee its economic survival. That year, John Rolfe developed a way to grow a mild, high-quality tobacco in Jamestown that would sell well in England.

The year 1619 was a significant year in Jamestown's early history because approximately ninety English women were brought over from the homeland as potential brides for men in the colony. These women had been carefully screened and determined to be of good moral character. Because a successful suitor was required to pay 120 pounds of tobacco for his bride, these women were called tobacco brides. Now family units could be formed in Jamestown, providing even more motivation for the men to build permanent homes and develop a stable community.

A second major development in 1619 was the establishment of a general assembly for Jamestown, known as the House of Burgesses. The governor was instructed to divide the colony into eleven districts; each district would elect two burgesses, or representatives. This group of twenty-two burgesses would then meet to make laws for the colony. Although these laws could be ignored by the governor, this

first representative assembly in the English colonies marked the beginning of self-government in colonial America.

The final significant event in 1619 was the sale of African slaves (by a Dutch trader) to the London Company for the first time. In the beginning, Virginia farmers treated the Africans shipped to their colony in the same way that they treated white indentured servants. After a period of bondage, the Africans were given their freedom. However, by the second half of the seventeenth century, the Virginia Colony had passed laws that eliminated this custom. Planters had found that crops were grown most efficiently on plantations that employed large labor forces, and black slavery became established as a lifelong condition.

**The first meeting of the  
Assembly of Virginia**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZ62-890]*



By 1622, Powhatan, the Algonquian chief, had died. The new chief, Opechancanough, pretended to be friendly with the Jamestown settlers but secretly planned to drive them out in a well-organized attack. In March, the native tribesmen attacked the colony and within a few hours slaughtered over three hundred colonists. Jamestown was nearly destroyed, and the London Company never recovered from the massacre. By 1624, King Charles I had revoked the London Company's charter. Jamestown became a royal colony with the English king responsible for managing the colony's daily affairs.

### THE BACON REBELLION

As Virginia became established as a colony, wealthy tobacco planters controlled the coastal tobacco lands called the Tidewater. When indentured servants were freed, they were given land to settle in the interior of Virginia. There they faced increasing attacks from Native Americans. The governor of the colony repeatedly refused to help defend the frontiersmen against these attacks. When the governor failed to offer them protection, the frontiersmen accused him and the wealthy tobacco planters of being more interested in protecting their fur trade with the natives than in helping to protect their fellow colonists.

After a particularly destructive Native American attack in 1676, a young frontier planter named Nathaniel Bacon asked Governor Berkeley for a commission that would allow him to go to war against the Indians. When the governor refused, Bacon went ahead anyway and led a frontier army against the natives. Although Governor Berkeley denounced Bacon as a traitor, he did not stay to confront the frontiersman as Bacon and his followers moved toward Jamestown. The governor fled, and Bacon and his men burned the city to the ground. Soon afterward, Bacon died from a fever and the rebellion ended. Although Bacon had become a legendary hero, twenty of his followers were hanged by Berkeley without a trial. The Virginia House of Burgesses responded to Bacon's Rebellion by passing legislation to curb the political power of the wealthy landowners and to increase popular participation in government. Although most



**Nathaniel Bacon**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs  
Division [LC-USZ62-91133]*

of these measures were soon repealed, the principle of representative government had begun to take root in the Virginia Colony.

## IMPACT

- Jamestown, established by the Virginia Company of London in 1607, was the first permanent English colony in North America. It was located on a peninsula sixty miles from the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay.
- The first Virginia colonists, eager to find gold quickly and return to England, were ill equipped to survive life in the wilderness. The organizational and motivational leadership of Captain John Smith was instrumental to their survival.
- After enduring several periods of starvation and many other hardships, the Virginia colonists were finally able to discover a cash crop that guaranteed their economic success — a high-quality tobacco developed by John Rolfe.
- The pivotal year of 1619 brought tobacco brides, African slaves, and the House of Burgesses (a representative assembly) to the Virginia Colony.
- Bacon's Rebellion in 1676 led to increased popular participation in the government of the Virginia Colony.





# LESSON 15

---

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

## ATMOSPHERE

### A TYPICAL AMERICAN COLONIAL FAMILY

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

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

## EVENT

### COLONIAL MARRIAGE AND CHILDREN

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

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

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

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

## EDUCATION FOR COLONIAL CHILDREN

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

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



**Harvard**

*Line drawing courtesy of Amy Pak*

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

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

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

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

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

A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.

Better is a little with the fear of the Lord, than great treasure and trouble therewith.

Come unto Christ all ye that labor and are heavy laden and he will give you rest.

Do not the abominable thing which I hate saith the Lord.

Except a man be born again, he cannot see the kingdom of God.

Foolishness is bound up in the heart of a child, but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him.

Godliness is profitable unto all things, having the promise of the life that now is, and that which is to come.

Holiness becomes God's house for ever.

It is good for me to draw near unto God.

— from the *New England Primer*



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

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

Many colonial children only attended school when their parents did not need them to wor k at the family farm or sh op. The school year was usually short — just a few mo nths a year. The school day often started at eight in the morning, with a l unch break fr om eleven to one, and dismissal at four in the afternoon. Students sat on hard benches, and many did not have desks. Most classrooms had no pencils, paper, or blackboards, and they had few boo ks. Most often,

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

## COLONIAL CLOTHING

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

### Clothing Styles for Colonial Men

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

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

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



**Upper-class man**

*National Archives print [RG30NBox263]*



**Working-class men**

*Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-57493]*



**Upper-class woman**

*National Archives print [RG30NBox263]*

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

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

### **Clothing Styles for Colonial Women**

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

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

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

### **Clothing Styles for Colonial Children**

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

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

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

### Clothing Styles for Puritans and Quakers

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

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

### COLONIAL HEALTH AND HYGIENE

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

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



**Working-class women**

*National Archives print [208-LU-25J-5]*



**Puritan dress**

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

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

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

## COLONIAL NUTRITION, EATING, AND COOKING HABITS

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

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

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

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

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

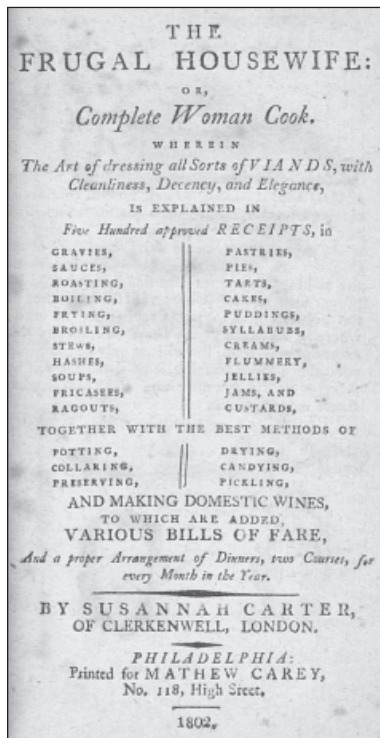
By the mid-eighteenth century, the English had realized that there was a market for their cookbooks in the colonies and began issuing American editions of their original publications. Susannah Carter's cookbook, *The Frugal Housewife*, was first printed in England in 1742. In 1772, she reissued the book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

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



**Colonial children**

National Archives print [RG30NBox263]



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

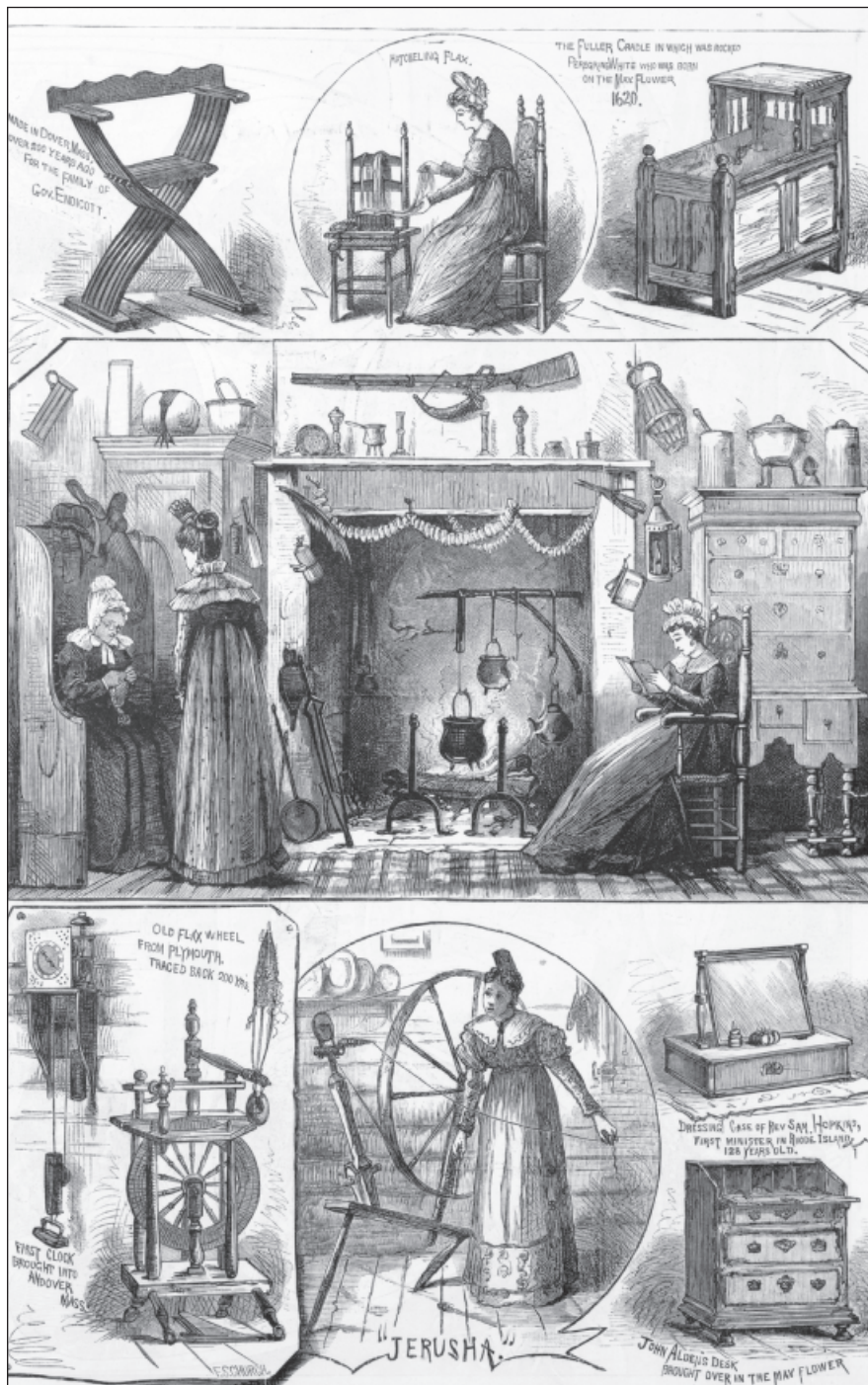
be the standing rules, that no pretenders to cookery ought to deviate from. These receipts are all suitable to English constitutions, and English palates, wholesome, toothsome, all practicable and easy to be performed.

— from *The Compleat Housewife*

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

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

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



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

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

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

## IMPACT

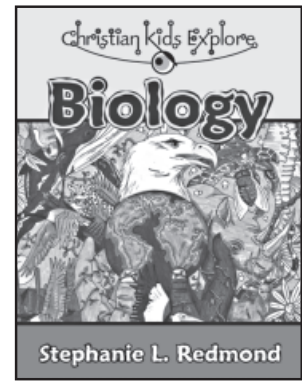
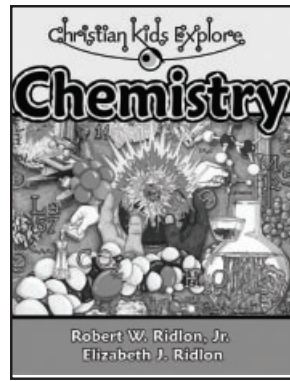
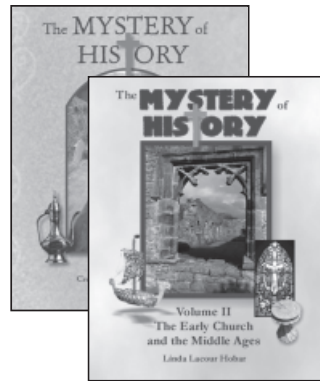
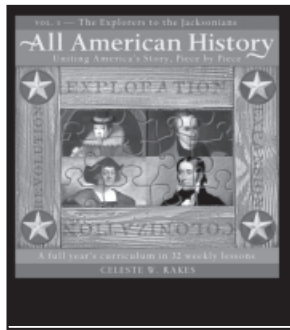
- Colonial men were recognized as head of their households, with both children and women subject to the authority of their fathers, husbands, or older brothers. There were few differences in the way colonial adults and children lived; everyone worked hard. Colonial families spent almost all of their time together.
- Schools varied from region to region in the colonies. In New England, Puritans were very concerned about education and quickly established public schools and colleges. In the mid-Atlantic colonies, such as Pennsylvania, there were numerous private schools with no religious affiliation. Children in the Southern colonies were usually taught at home by their parents or private tutors.
- Clothing styles varied for upper-class and lower-class colonial men and women. In the eighteenth century, many men wore wigs, and women usually kept their hair covered with caps or hats. Very young colonial children of both sexes wore dresses

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

- The average life expectancy for colonial Americans was less than twenty-five years. There were only a few American doctors trained in medical schools, and they had little knowledge of the real causes and cures of most disease.
- American colonists wanted to eat the same foods that they had eaten in Europe. However, many of those foods did not grow well in America. So the colonists learned to grow and eat new foods like corn, beans, squash, and pumpkin and to hunt and fish like the Native Americans.



# ALSO AVAILABLE FROM BRIGHT IDEAS PRESS...



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## **CHRISTIAN KIDS EXPLORE... SERIES**

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

## **Christian Kids Explore Earth & Space by Stephanie Redmond**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



# Illuminations

*Psalm 119:105*

***Lighting Your Path Toward Excellence***

**Practical**

*We can do this!*

**Fun**

*We can enjoy this!*

**Affordable**

*We can get this!*

**Encouraging**

*We're not alone!*

---

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Bright  
Ideas  
PRESS**

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



## HEY PARENTS!

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

Secure, online ordering available

WWW.BRIGHTIDEASPRESS.COM