CHAPTER 8

United States History and Geography: Making a New Nation

- Why did different groups of people decide to settle in the territory that would become the United States?
- How did the different regions of the area that would become the United States affect the economy, politics, and social organization of the nation?
- What did it mean to become an independent United States? And what did it mean to be an American?
- Why did the nation expand?
The fifth-grade course introduces students to important historical questions throughout the year-long study. The course for grade five presents the story of the development of the nation, with emphasis on the period up to 1800. This course focuses on the creation of a new nation that would be peopled by immigrants from all parts of the globe and governed by institutions influenced by a number of religions, the ideals of the Enlightenment, and concepts of self-government.

Students in the fifth grade continue to develop the civic and economic skills they will need as citizens, especially as they learn about the nation’s foundational documents. Students examine the human and physical geography of the United States by studying past and present-day maps of the United States and identifying connections with geography and the ethnic, linguistic, and religious settlement patterns that shaped the new nation.

The content covered in grade five is expansive, and the discipline-specific skills that are to be taught are equally demanding. To both organize the curriculum and allow students to explore the past in depth, teachers may frame instruction around questions of historical significance. This discipline-specific form of inquiry promotes student engagement, deepens content understanding, and develops critical thinking.

Whenever possible, the past should be examined through the eyes of women, men, and children from a variety of historical groups. Viewing the past from the perspectives of those that lived it is best done through a variety of primary sources. Throughout the year, students should be introduced to sources presented in different formats. They should begin to understand that people in the past had different perspectives; one goal of learning history is to understand why people in the past lived the way they lived. It is also intended for students to begin to understand why the current world is structured the way it is.

**The Land and People before Columbus**

- How did geography, climate, and proximity to water affect the lives of North American Indians?

- How were different groups of North American Indians organized into systems of governments and confederacies?
How were family and community structures of North American Indians similar to and different from one another?

In this unit, students examine major pre-Columbian settlements. Teachers can frame students’ exploration of pre-contact native people by introducing the following question: **How did geography, climate, and proximity to water affect the lives of North American Indians?**

North American Indians were diverse in language, culture, social and political organization, and religious traditions. They adapted to and actively managed and modified their diverse natural environments and local resources. Depending on where they lived, pre-Columbian people subsisted through farming, hunting and gathering, and fishing. Their diets included grain crops, local vegetation (roots, plants, seeds), fish and other seafood, and small and large game.

They built distinct structures that adapted to the need for shelter in the distinct geography and climate of their environments and that suited their lifestyle, whether stationary or nomadic. For example, the Pueblo people of the Southwest desert were and remain an agricultural and a sedentary society; they built cities of stone and adobe and developed irrigation systems. By comparison, many indigenous communities of the Pacific Northwest consisted of skilled fishermen who had settled along the coast. Some tribes of the Great Plains were nomads, while others established permanent villages where they grew a variety of crops. Nearly all Plains tribes hunted bison, and most relied upon the animal as their primary source of food; Woodlands people east of the Mississippi engaged in limited farming and lived in waterside villages seasonally.

**How were different groups of North American Indians organized into systems of governments and confederacies?** The inhabitants of North America organized varied economies and systems of government. Groups such as the Iroquois, Huron, Cherokee, Navajo, Creek, Hopi, Algonquin, and Lakota (Sioux) established pueblo-city states, tribelets, native bands, confederacies, and nations. Communal councils led by chiefs or elders formed the basis of local governance in many villages or settlements; some included female advisers. Traditional commerce involved exchanging and bartering commodities of regional significance and abundance, including salt, shells, beads, timber, agricultural products, abalone, fish, flint, and fur.
Teachers may have students consider the importance of trading networks as a means of disseminating goods and the value of information such as technology, agricultural practices, and religious beliefs (for example, animism and shamanism). This exercise will also help students grasp the environmental geography of North America by exploring which resources and trade goods originate from which regions and why.

Students may explore the social and cultural diversity of American Indians by addressing this question: **How were family and community structures of North American Indians similar to and different from one another?** Students learn how American Indians expressed their culture in art, music, dance, religion, and storytelling. They also gain a fuller understanding of how gender roles and family life varied between different tribes by examining the multiple roles and influence of women in American Indian communities. Students are introduced to the rich legends and literature of American Indian cultures and spiritual traditions about people’s relationship to the earth. Finally, students should appreciate the diversity of Native American communities and connect this national story of diverse natives to their fourth-grade studies of California Indians.

**Age of Exploration**

- Why did Europeans explore?
- What exchanges were established as a result of the age of exploration?
- How did European explorers and natives view each other?

Students begin their study of the period by investigating this question: **Why did Europeans explore?** In this unit, students concentrate on the expeditions of the early explorers and learn about the explorers’ European origins, motives, journeys, and the enduring historical significance of their voyages to the Americas. Several important factors contributed to the age of exploration: religious and political
conflict in Western Europe, advances in nautical technology and weaponry, and European competition over access and control of economic resources overseas. The global spread of plants, animals, people, and diseases (Columbian Exchange) beginning in the fifteenth century transformed the world’s ecosystems. The exchanges spread new food crops and livestock across the world and initiated the period of European global expansion. The exchanges also had a devastating impact on indigenous populations in the Western Hemisphere, due to the spread of illnesses such as measles and smallpox, for which the native populations had no natural immunity.

Students learn about early exchanges by examining this question: **What exchanges were established as a result of the age of exploration?** European explorers sought trade routes, economic gain, adventure, national recognition, strategic advantages, and people to convert to Christianity. *Pedro’s Journal* by Pam Conrad enlivens these journeys for students. The early explorers traveled the globe through innovative use of technological developments acquired from other civilizations: the compass, the astrolabe, and seaworthy ships. Explorers and crews embarked on precarious ventures with unknown outcomes.

Teachers encourage students to imagine the aspirations, concerns, and fears of the explorers and their crews; excerpts from letters that European explorers such as Christopher Columbus wrote to the sponsors of their voyages can help students understand that all historical actors have agendas and perspectives. Studying explorers is an opportunity to deepen students’ understanding of contingency in history: the acknowledgment that historical figures frequently acted without knowing the consequences of their actions. For example, **What happened when Europeans encountered indigenous people? How were Europeans received when they returned home with native people, animals, plants, and even gold?** Students may consider how these encounters might have changed if conditions had been different—if, for example, the Europeans had returned home from their voyages with exotic spices and silk.

In the study of the early explorers, students trace and learn the routes of the major land explorers of the United States, the distances traveled, and the Atlantic trade routes that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe. Through mapping exercises, students record and analyze the land claims by European explorers from Spain, France, England, Portugal, the Netherlands,
Sweden, and Russia in North and South America on behalf of their monarchs or sponsors. Students can also compare each country’s purpose in exploration and colonization, while noting similarities and differences in religious and economic motives.

**Cooperation and Conflict in North America**

- How did European explorers and settlers interact with American Indians?
- How did American Indians change as a result of the arrival and settlement of European colonists?
- Why did American Indians fight with each other? Why did they fight with European settlers?
- What role did trade play in both cooperation and conflict between and among European settlers?

Students investigate the relationships between natives and Europeans by exploring this question: **How did European explorers and settlers interact with American Indians?** The arrival of Europeans in North America in the late fifteenth century set into motion cross-cultural cooperation and conflict among the American Indians and between the Indian nations and the new settlers. In what the Europeans termed as the New World, they competed with one another and the Indian nations for territorial, economic, and political control. By the seventeenth century, the French had established Nova Scotia and Quebec; the English, Jamestown and Massachusetts Bay Colony; the Spanish, New Spain; and the Netherlands, New Amsterdam.

**How did American Indians change as a result of the new settlers?** In the territory that would become the United States, individual Indian nations responded differently to European settlement. Some American Indians declared war in defense of their sovereignty. Others remained neutral. Whether in conjunction with each other or through independent compacts and treaties, many of the American Indians negotiated terms for coexistence.

Indian nations cooperated with Europeans and one another in the areas of agriculture, fur trading, military alliances, and cultural interchanges, especially in the Great Lakes region where French traders depended on such relationships for
the success of their mission. Europeans introduced new food crops and domestic livestock that diversified the diets of the American Indians. This exchange dramatically altered the natural environment and introduced diseases that decimated many American Indian tribes.

European explorers and colonists were fascinated by American Indian culture, but condemned most of their traditions and practices as savage because they differed from their own way of life and as devilish because they were not Christian. Historical fiction such as *Encounter* by Jane Yolen or *The Birchbark House* by Louise Erdrich encourages students to consider the two worlds’ cultural perceptions and experiences during their first encounters.

For a time, Indian nations and European settlers coexisted. Native peoples served as independent traders and mediators. European settlement brought the American Indian population a more diverse selection of food and introduced new tools for hunting and warfare. This coexistence was short-lived, however. Broken treaties, skirmishes, and massacres increasingly came to characterize the relationship between the groups. Students may consider these questions: **Why did American Indians fight with each other? Why did they fight with European settlers?** American Indian resistance included armed conflict, rejection of European culture and political authority, reappraisal of native spiritual traditions, and the creation of military, political, and economic alliances among American Indian nations and tribes.

Of particular concern to American Indians in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were permanent European settlements and the expansion of commercial farming on native land. The American Indians resisted encroachments to their territories for more than two centuries. Major armed conflicts included the Powhatan Wars in Virginia (1622–1644); the Pequot War (1637) and King Philip’s War (1675) in New England; and in Ohio country, Lord Dunmore’s War (1774), brought on by Chief Logan’s retaliation for the killing of his family.

Students may collect information about how and why Indian wars developed. They can organize this information by noting who was involved in the conflict (for example, British leaders or particular tribes); when the conflict(s) developed; the circumstance of the conflict (whether it related to depleted resources or lack of power, for example); the kind of conflict it became; and the outcome. Once
students have collected and organized this information, they can put it in a
comparative context by creating a timeline or map. With this information side by
side, students can begin to extract larger meaning and identify parallels in how or
why conflicts developed and the consequences of such conflicts.

The presence of the Europeans exacerbated historical tensions among nations.
Lucrative trade with Europeans altered traditional inter-Indian trading networks
that existed prior to European arrival. Additionally, land disputes among
American Indians such as the Iroquois, Huron, and Sioux led to armed warfare
(made more violent with the introduction of gunpowder and horses), involved new
military alliances with European settlers, and redefined boundaries of political and
economic influence. Certain military alliances proved critical. The Iroquois, for
example, played a decisive role in the outcome of the French and Indian War
(1754–1763), also known as the Seven Years’ War. The conflict pitted British forces
against French soldiers over control of the upper Ohio River Valley. The Iroquois
provided invaluable support and knowledge of native terrain to inform the British
military strategy.

Settling the Colonies

- Who moved to and settled in North America? Why did they choose to live
  where they did?

- Why did English settlers choose to live on the North Atlantic seaboard?
  What was daily life like for those who settled in the southern colonies?
  Those who settled in New England?

- Why did Jamestown settlers have a high mortality rate? Why did so many
  settlers die, and how did they eventually reverse this trend?

- How did people work in the colonies? Why did indentured servitude start,
  and how did it transition to slavery?

- How did the Middle Colonies differ from New England and the southern
  colonies in terms of geography, economic activity, religion, social structure/
  family life, and government?

Students can begin their studies of North America by examining these
questions: **Who moved to and settled in North America? Why did they choose**
to live where they did? 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. Unlike British colonies populated by colonists who made money primarily through agriculture, Spanish and French colonies were, in general, more transient, less focused on profiting from agricultural commodities, and more focused on extracting mineral wealth and hides. These different purposes for the colonies affected the administration and settlement of the British, French, and Spanish colonies. This unit emphasizes 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 market-oriented economic system.

Students can survey the evolution of the 13 colonies by addressing these questions: Why did English settlers choose to live on the North Atlantic seaboard? What was daily life like for those who settled in the southern colonies rather than in New England? The original 13 colonies differed regionally in their economic, political, religious, and social development. As students compare and contrast colonies, teachers guide students in considering how geography and climate affected the establishment and organization of each colony. 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 settlement, economic development, and the political organization of the colonies. Religious orientation also contributed to the variation in the colonies’ social and political structure.

Southern Colonies

While initial ventures to the mid-Atlantic coast were not intended to establish permanent agricultural communities, over the course of the early 1600s southern colonies developed a highly profitable agricultural-based economy. The 1607 settlement of Jamestown in the Chesapeake Bay region was a risky venture in light of the failure of its predecessors. Students may explore the following questions as they investigate the first colony: Why did Jamestown settlers have a high
mortality rate? Why did so many settlers die, and how did they eventually reverse this trend? 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. At first Virginia was an all-male colony. Even after women began to arrive, the gender ratio remained skewed throughout most of the seventeenth century. This social structure posed significant challenges for a society that saw family as a principal agent of order, economic production, and basic sustenance. For the first several years of Virginia's existence, the mortality rate remained quite high.

Captain John Smith worked to stabilize the colony by directing the digging of wells, the planting of crops, and the construction of shelter. He also introduced a system of incentives, proclaiming that people who did not work did not eat. John Rolfe’s suggestion of growing and selling tobacco ensured Jamestown's economic livelihood and led to the formation of the plantation economy. Students can explore the implications of this event. Why was tobacco grown on large plantations? What type of workforce was required? What was the social life of the plantation? To develop a deeper understanding of the deprivations endured by settlers, teachers can help their students analyze John Smith’s account in “The Starving Time,” 1609. Teachers may also want to supplement their students' historical inquiries of Jamestown with Elisa Carbon's work of historical fiction Blood on the River: Jamestown 1607. Archaeological work at the Jamestown site can also aid teachers in instructing students about ongoing historical research.

Students may explore the evolution of the labor system in the colony by framing their studies around these questions: How did people work in the colonies? Why did indentured servitude start, and how did it transition to slavery? 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 and racial presumptions of 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 may study maps, ships’ logs, and other primary sources to
clarify the eighteenth-century trans-Atlantic slave trade that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe.

Literature such as *To Be a Slave* edited by Julius Lester and Tom Feelings and *Many Thousands Gone* by Virginia Hamilton offers opportunities for teachers to engage students in many different aspects of the institution of slavery. Students can use their growing sense of historical empathy to imagine, discuss, and write about how these young men and women from Africa may have felt: having been stolen from their families; transported across the ocean in a brutal voyage, known as the “Middle Passage,” to a strange land; and then sold into bondage.

This is an appropriate time to reflect on the meaning of slavery both as a legal and economic institution and as an extreme violation of human rights. Students will also learn the different forms of slave resistance—arson, feigning illness, poison, breaking equipment, forming communities, maintaining African traditions and culture, and rebelling or running away. Primary-source documents such as excerpts from slave narratives like Olaudah Equiano’s, historical newspaper ads, handbills, and southern laws concerning the treatment of slaves provide students with direct insights into the condition of slavery.

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. This period is rich in opportunities to deepen students’ understanding of American democracy through role plays and simulations. For example, students may list the basic “rights of Englishmen” claimed by colonists and create brief dramatizations of the ways colonists sought to preserve these rights. Students may also participate in a mock town hall meeting in which they take and defend positions on an issue in eighteenth-century colonial America.

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, the 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 according to their religious beliefs: the separatist Pilgrims, who broke with the Church of England, and the reformist Puritans, who sought to purify the church from within. The following questions can frame students’ initial explorations of New England: **Why was New England settled as a religious refuge?** **How did New England compare to Virginia in terms of economy, political organization, and social groups?**

The story of the Pilgrims begins with their flight from England and religious dissent from 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 politic.” Led by William Bradford, the Pilgrims settled Plymouth in 1620. In keeping with the times, they did not ask women to sign.

This is a powerful opportunity to discuss the meaning of self-government, gender norms in society and religion, and the importance of political rights. Teachers may also lead their students in a discussion of the Pilgrims’ religious beliefs, oppression in England, and how they differed from the Puritans’. Nathaniel Phillbrick’s historical fiction, *The Mayflower and the Pilgrims’ New World*, could supplement students’ examination of the Pilgrims.

Upon the settlers’ arrival in North America, American Indians initially aided them. Over time, relations between the colonists and American Indians grew violent over 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 analyze the work of men, women, and children to get a sense of each family member’s function in the colonial home. In a pre-industrial environment, most married men worked on the
family farm and spent more time with the children, especially sons, than in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, when more men spent time working away from home. Women were also actively involved in economic production: not only did they learn, practice, and pass on skills relating to the production of food, clothing, and medicine to the next generation, but they often did farm work and were expected to step into their husbands’ roles if they were ill or away from home. Women were also active and influential in their communities and church congregations.

The Puritans 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 ten 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. Puritans believed that God created women as subordinate companions to men. Women who challenged male authority or who were free from male control (through widowhood, for example), were liable to end up identified with Satan’s rebellion against God’s authority; four-fifths of those accused of witchcraft in colonial New England were women.

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 strictly conform to their gender expectations. At the same time, the stories of Hutchinson and Williams are milestones in the development of religious freedom in Connecticut and Rhode Island. Avi’s Finding Providence: The Story of Roger Williams offers students the perspective of Williams’ daughter, Mary.

Teachers may wish to teach a lesson that highlights Puritan society and its lack of tolerance for dissent by focusing on the trials of Williams and Hutchinson. Teachers can ask students to investigate the question Why did Puritans banish Hutchinson and Williams? By introducing excerpted trial testimony that highlights how different members of the community viewed the offenders, students
can begin to understand what dissent meant to colonial governments and churches. Students may re-enact one trial or both by having students read testimony, serving as attorneys, and having others serve as jurors. Collectively, the class may develop an answer to the investigation question.

The Middle Colonies

How did the Middle Colonies differ from New England and the southern colonies? 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, national, 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. Quakers believed that divine truth was revealed not only through the Bible but also through an “inner light” in each human being, regardless of social status, education, or gender. Quakers believed that women could take a leading role as preachers of religious truth, a perspective viewed as ridiculous and dangerous by many contemporaries.

Industrious farmers, fur traders, skilled craftpersons, indentured servants, slaves, merchants, bankers, shipbuilders, and overseas traders made Pennsylvania 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. In contrast to the generally homogenous colonies to the south and north, the Middle Colonies developed as more diverse and urban trading centers. It was here—especially in the aftermath of the Seven Years’ War (1754–1763)—that the ideas of the American Revolution were seeded; colonists began to discuss similarities that they shared with one another while noting differences between themselves and the British. Excerpts from Benjamin Franklin’s Autobiography, his annual Poor Richard’s Almanac, and his story “The Whistle,” as well as Margaret Cousins’ Ben Franklin of Old Philadelphia, give students a sense of these times.
The Road to War

- Why did colonists start to rebel against Great Britain?
- Who were the Patriots? What were their grievances?
- What were the goals of the Declaration of Independence?

The events leading to the Revolutionary War may be presented as a dramatic story, but contingency should be continually emphasized. It was not until 1776 that colonists united in their declaration of independence. In the years leading up to the American Revolution, most colonists considered themselves to be British citizens and sought to resolve disputes with the British Empire peacefully. With this in mind, students can investigate the following question: Why did colonists start to rebel against Great Britain?

The British efforts to exert more power over the colonies were met with spirited resistance from the American colonists. King George and British legislators felt that the French and Indian War had been fought to protect the colonists. They also believed that the conflict had drained the British treasury and that the colonists should be taxed to cover the costs of the war. 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 colonists’ growing dissatisfaction with Parliament. Those who firmly believed that only the colonial assemblies were empowered to raise taxes were especially incensed.

Students should become familiar with the Stamp Act of 1765 and the colonists’ outrage over it; the Townshend Acts that again stirred protest and led to the Boston Massacre; the formation of the Sons of Liberty; 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.

Despite these struggles, many colonists still perceived themselves as fully British, but resistance against British rule grew, culminating in the convening of the first Continental Congress of 1774 and the Committees of Correspondence, which established communication between the colonies and forged a new national identity based on opposing British policies. Students can connect the events together by addressing these questions: Who were the Patriots? What were their grievances?
In discussing the conflict, students may 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, while 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 without British protection, France and Spain would prey upon the colonies.

Students study 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. He also argued for unification of the colonies and for a historically unstable system of representative government. Over 120,000 copies of *Common Sense* sold in the first few months of publication.

Paine’s arguments became the foundation of the Declaration of Independence, drafted by Thomas Jefferson. Students should consider the following question:

**What were the goals of the Declaration of Independence?** 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.

To focus student attention on these important concepts, teachers may engage students in structured group projects to consider the implications of selected phrases from the document, including, “created equal,” “inalienable rights,” and “consent of the governed.” In an essay or oral presentation, students may explain one or two of the major ideas expressed in the Declaration of Independence to illustrate the connections to the Enlightenment, or conversely, to investigate how the document condemned Great Britain.
Grade Five Classroom Example: Road to Revolution Unit

Students in Ms. Cheek’s fifth-grade class have just analyzed several paintings that depict events from the American Revolution. Students worked in pairs to note their observations of details in the paintings, make inferences, and list their questions. The students infer from the battle scene that some type of war was going on and from the type of clothing and weapons depicted that it was in the past. Students might ask these questions: What is going on? Who is fighting? What does it look like they are fighting for? When did this happen? Ms. Cheek asks the students to discuss what causes wars and people to fight, and she charts their answers.

Ms. Cheek says the titles of the paintings and dramatically asks, “How did this Revolutionary War happen? What could have possibly occurred that made the colonists want to revolt against their king and country?” She then lets the students know they will initiate an investigation to answer the questions: What led up to the Revolutionary War? What events, people, or ideas were the most important in convincing people to revolt and go to war?

To develop the big picture, students are assigned in pairs to research events, people, and ideas (for example, the Stamp Act, Boston Massacre, the Townshend Acts, the Sons of Liberty, Thomas Paine and the ideas expressed in Common Sense) that led up to the war and create a timeline card that summarizes the event and tells why it is important. The students start by utilizing the index in their textbook to locate information about their assigned topic. Then they read the textbook and take notes on a graphic organizer.

Ms. Cheek has created a research center with informational books at a variety of reading levels and several computers with quality, child-friendly Web sites bookmarked. The students are instructed to use a minimum of two informational sources and to synthesize these sources to create a summary. The students revise and edit their summaries before creating a large timeline card with the date and an illustration.

Once the timeline cards are completed, they are placed on a large timeline in the front of the classroom. Students present their card, describing their event
Example (continued)

and why it was important, while the other students take notes to create a smaller, foldable timeline for their research notebook. Students are encouraged to complete their individual timelines when they have time over the next few days. After Ms. Cheek and the students discuss their preliminary ideas in relation to their unit questions, she tells the students that they are to continue their investigation by digging a bit deeper into some of the events, ideas, and people on their timeline.

Over the next few weeks, Ms. Cheek guides the students as they study these events, ideas, and people in more detail by analyzing primary and secondary sources and reading children's books, including informational books and historical fiction. The students participate in a simulation, taking on the character and perspective of different social classes: a loyalist and patriot, gentry, middling sort, and slaves. After researching their point of view, the students then participate in a debate about whether to revolt. During these activities and smaller investigations, Ms. Cheek and students regularly return to the class timeline and the big investigative question and discuss their ideas with new evidence recorded in their research notebooks.

The students culminate the unit with a performance task that requires students to write a claim-based essay. The students are asked to evaluate all of the information in their notebook and on their timeline and to choose five to six events, people, or ideas that they think were the most important in convincing people to revolt and go to war. After individually choosing their events and preparing for a discussion, students meet in small groups and discuss their ideas and evidence. Students are then given a chance to revise their ideas before using a graphic organizer or a thinking map to write a draft of their essay. Teachers allow students some time to revise and edit their essays before creating a final draft.

CA HSS Content Standard: 5.6
CA HSS Analysis Skills (K-5): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 1, Historical Interpretation 1, 3
CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.5.2, RI.5.3, RI.5.6, RI.5.9, W.5.2, W.5.5, W.5.7, W.5.9b, SL.5.1, SL.5.4
CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.5.1, 3, 6a, 10b, 11a; ELD.PII.5.2b
The American Revolution

- How did the American Revolution start?
- How was the war fought differently, depending on where the battles took place and who was fighting?
- How were Natives, free blacks, slaves, and women important in the conduct of the war?

Students can begin investigating the roots of war by exploring this question: **How did the American Revolution start?** 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 in 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. In their study of the war, students consider the rebels’ alliance with France, the “...single most important diplomatic success of the colonists...” (U.S. Department of State). Although the French shared a common enemy with the colonists (having lost to Britain in the Seven Years’ War and their own North American territory through the Treaty of Paris of 1763), they were initially reluctant to support the American colonists’ fight against the British. In an appeal led by Benjamin Franklin, the rebels ultimately secured significant support from France in the form of loans, arms and ammunition, uniforms and other supplies, as well as military troops and naval support. This support was integral to the colonists’ defeat of the British at Yorktown in 1781.

Students can expand their understanding of the development of the American Revolution by considering the following question: **How was the war fought differently, depending on where the battles took place and who was fighting?** 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 from American Indians who knew the terrain. Most American Indians ultimately sided with the British; during the Revolution, approximately 1,500 Iroquois fought with 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. To better understand what was at stake for various members of colonial society, students might consider the following investigative questions: **Who fought at Yorktown, and why were they there?** This enables students to understand the interests that other nations and foreign individuals had in the outcome of the war.

To understand the diversity of experiences during the war, students should address the following question: **How were Natives, free blacks, slaves, and women important in the conduct of the war?** 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 bondage and free, the Revolutionary War allowed a vision of liberty that was not fully attained. Several years after 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 understand the role of women 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 discussing the effects of the revolutionary struggle on women by comparing women’s pre- and postwar status.

Students can learn about cause and effect by exploring how the Revolutionary War established important roles for mothers, often called Republican Motherhood,
which imparted to women an important civic duty: educating and raising children to inherit the republican form of government and demonstrating their proper roles in civic life.

Even if people did not actively engage in battle, the Revolution forced all individuals living in the colonies to endure extreme economic and personal hardships. Wartime inflation and laws that prohibited the hoarding of goods deprived most families of materials they had been accustomed to purchasing or consuming. To gain a fuller understanding of the era and how the war was experienced on the ground, students can examine the contributions of Abigail Adams, Deborah Sampson, Mercy Otis Warren, Nathan Hale, Haym Salomon, Phillis Wheatley, Mary Ludlow, and Benedict Arnold. By focusing their studies on an individual affected by the Revolution, students can more fully explore one perspective, view primary sources related to him/her, investigate change over time, and make claims of historical significance about how people changed because of the war.

Through the principles set forth in Common Sense and the Declaration of Independence, many Americans realized for the first time the contradiction between the ideals of natural rights and representative government on the one hand and slavery on the other hand. To deepen their understanding of this period, students can read biographies of leaders such as George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and Benjamin Franklin; they might also read Ralph Waldo Emerson’s “Concord Hymn,” Henry Wadsworth Longfellow’s 1863 poem “Paul Revere’s Ride,” and historical fiction such as Esther Forbes’ Johnny Tremain, Patricia Clapp’s I’m Deborah Sampson: A Soldier in the War of the Revolution, James L. Collier’s My Brother Sam Is Dead, Russell Freedman’s Washington at Valley Forge, Rosalyn Schanzer’s George vs. George: The American Revolution as Seen from Both Sides, Trinka Hakes Noble’s The Scarlett Stockings Spy, and Kay Winter’s Colonial Voices: Hear Them Speak.
The Development and Significance of the U.S. Constitution

- What were the Articles of Confederation? Why did they ultimately fail?

- How did the Constitutional Convention attempt to balance the interests of all of the states?

- What was the purpose of the preamble to the Constitution?

- What was the Great Compromise? How did the Constitution get ratified with the inclusion of the Bill of Rights?

Students can start their exploration of the new government by examining the following questions: What were the Articles of Confederation? Why did they ultimately fail? 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 quickly proved to be inadequate for the needs of the new nation. The Articles, which were finally ratified by all 13 states in 1781, enabled the new country to fight the Revolutionary War, negotiate with foreign powers, and expand to the west. However, the Articles established a weak central government, one that lacked an executive branch and a national judiciary.

Under the Articles, Congress also could not regulate commerce; therefore, states were able to impose barriers to trade with other states. Congress could not even force individual states to contribute to the national treasury. Because a strong central government was lacking and consequently unable to respond to domestic crises, such as Shays’ Rebellion in Massachusetts, and enforce a coherent and united foreign policy, national leaders began to call for a new governmental structure.

By the spring of 1787, plans were underway to revise the Articles of Confederation. Although there was general agreement about the failure of the Articles, the debate over the size and scope of the federal government remained. 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 that were ultimately embedded in the new Constitution.

Although these delegates were geographically dispersed and held different ideas about government, they shared personal traits and common characteristics that set them apart from other white men with the franchise. The majority, mainly born in the colonies, had fought in the war; 41 had served in the Continental Congress. Although some, such as Benjamin Franklin, were self-taught, most were relatively well educated. Most were wealthy and owned slaves. As a brief activity to survey the framers of the Constitution, students can collect biographical information about each man (including education, geographic area, personal wealth, slave ownership status, and economic wealth).

Students can connect their studies of the Constitutional Convention by investigating the following question: **How did the Constitutional Convention attempt to balance the interests of all of the states?** With an understanding of the framers’ perspectives, students can participate in mock Constitutional Conventions to consider the document’s major compromises. 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: 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.
In Ms. Brouhard’s fifth-grade class, students have been studying the founding of the Republic. Students will now focus closely on the Preamble to the Constitution. Through a close reading of two drafts of the Preamble, students can further develop their ability to compare and contrast arguments and make their own and historical interpretations. In answering the guiding question **What was the purpose of the Preamble?**, students prepare to learn about the rights and responsibilities detailed in the Constitution and the purpose for its structure of government.

After introducing the guiding question, Ms. Brouhard distributes two different copies of the Preamble: one written in August of 1787, and the other (the final) approved by the framers the following month. Students first read both versions independently, annotating any differences between the two drafts. In pairs, students next discuss any changes they noticed between the first draft and the final version and then speculate about the reasons for those changes.

The students then complete a guided sentence deconstruction activity, which is designed to help students see how words and phrases are combined to make meaning and convey information. Students sort the text of the draft Preamble into four categories of grammar: (1) prepositional phrases that illustrate time and relationship; (2) nouns and adjectives that show the students the subject of a sentence; (3) action words, such as verbs and adverbs, to highlight the action taking place; and (4) nouns and adjectives that show who or what is receiving the action.
Example (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prepositional Phrase/Time Marker</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Object of Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We the People of the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia</td>
<td>do ordain, declare, and establish</td>
<td>the following Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for the government of ourselves and our posterity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Next they do the same breakdown of the final Preamble.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prepositional Phrase/Time Marker</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Object of Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We, the people of the United States of America</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>
Example (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in order</th>
<th>to form</th>
<th>a more Perfect Union</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>establish</td>
<td>justice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insure</td>
<td>domestic tranquility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote</td>
<td>the general welfare</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and secure</td>
<td>the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do ordain and establish</td>
<td>this Constitution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

for the United States of America.

Through this close analysis and follow-up structured discussion activity, Ms. Brouhard helps students understand the idea that the people of the United States created a government to protect the personal and national interests of the people for themselves and future generations.

Next, Ms. Brouhard prepares her students for writing and reinforces new learning. She provides them with structured paraphrase practice using the two Preamble drafts and their sentence deconstruction notes.

After substantial analysis of the two Preambles and practice in paraphrasing the meaning, students then return to the guiding question: What was the purpose of the Preamble? Ms. Brouhard first guides her students through a deconstruction of the question to make sure they all understand the task at hand. Then, using sentence frames, she will show them how to use evidence gleaned from the primary sources in order to make their own interpretations.
The U.S. Constitution vested the federal government with power divided among three branches, while it also preserved states’ and individual rights. Teachers may use the metaphor of a three-legged stool to describe the three branches of government. Students learn about the significance of the Constitution by investigating the following questions: **What was the Great Compromise? How did the Constitution get ratified with the inclusion of the Bill of Rights?** Students also study how state constitutions written after the Revolution influenced the writing of the U.S. Constitution. Students identify the division of power among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches and study powers enumerated to states and citizens. Students may study Article I, Sections 8, 9, and 10 to investigate the economic aspects of the Constitution (for example, the regulation of interstate commerce, congressional power to tax, and enforcement of copyright).
Students also address the debate over ratification and the addition of the Bill of Rights by conducting a simulated congressional hearing in which students take and defend positions that framers of the Constitution debated. The Bill of Rights was originally proposed during the Constitutional Convention, but this proposal was defeated. Federalists who supported the Constitution argued that the Bill of Rights was unnecessary because federal power was already limited and most states already had their own bill of rights. Anti-Federalists ultimately demanded the federal bill of rights be included for ratification of the new Constitution. They considered it the ultimate protection against a much more powerful central government. Students can study the Bill of Rights by working in small groups to create posters focusing on each right. The posters may then be displayed around the school campus. This study lays the foundation for the continued examination of the Constitution in later grade levels. 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.

Life in the Young Republic

- Who came to the United States in the first half of the nineteenth century? Where did they settle? How did they change the country?

- How did westward migration change the country and the experience of being an American?

In this unit, students examine the daily lives of those who built the young republic under the new Constitution. The following questions should frame students’ studies of the era: **Who came to the United States in the first half of the nineteenth century? Where did they settle? How did they change the country?**

Between 1789 and 1850, new waves of immigrants arrived from Europe, especially English, Scots–Irish, Irish, and Germans. The Great Irish Famine (1840s) 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 may want to listen to or sing the songs of the boatmen and pioneers and read the tall tales of figures such as Mike Fink and Paul Bunyan, read Enid Meadowcroft’s *By Wagon* or historical fiction such as *Dandelions* by Eve Bunting.
Students also learn about the Louisiana Purchase and the expeditions of Lewis and Clark, guided by Sacagawea, and of John C. Fremont. The themes of exploration, emigration, and immigration help students examine the significance of mobility and geography during this period in American history. Stressing the roles played by transportation technologies in this historical drama can make the processes and people under study far more accessible to students learning about a variety of cultures, communities, and environments.

The introduction of the horse on the Great Plains and in the Rocky Mountains may be compared with the inventions of the steamboat and the railroads and how they influenced the development and settlement of the American interior. **How did these new methods of transportation transform people’s lives? How did they reshape their relationships with distance, time, and other communities? How did they change the possibilities for production and consumption?**

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, the doors of education began to open more widely to women. For example, Benjamin Rush, who signed the Declaration of Independence, co-founded the Young Ladies’ Academy of Philadelphia in 1787, said to be the first all-female academy in the United States.

**The New Nation’s Westward Expansion**

- What did the West mean for the nation’s politics, economy, social organization, and identity?

- How did westward movement transform indigenous environments and communities?

The American West should be presented as a borderlands region inhabited by diverse and competing populations. Students should investigate the following question as they proceed with their studies of the American West: **What did the West mean for the nation’s politics, economy, social organization, and identity?** A teacher-guided analysis of John Gast’s painting “American Progress” (1872) may introduce students to allegory in art and the concept of Manifest Destiny, despite the fact that the painting was rendered more than 20 years after
the initial concept and application of Manifest Destiny. In this unit, students examine the movement of Natives on the Plains; some moved west, while others moved south and east. The flow of white migration westward began with fur traders and mountain men who made the first westward forays. 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 on their way to the new Zion in Utah, Midwestern farmers moving to western Oregon’s fertile valleys, and forty-niners bound for 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.

Folklore, photographs (daguerreotypes) of pioneer families, and the journals and diaries of historical actors can help bring this period to life. By studying primary sources and maps to locate overland trails, mountains, and rivers, students gain insight into how natural systems (terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate) affected the travelers’ experiences as they migrated across the country. By identifying the natural regions in the overland trails and analyzing the effects of weather, seasons, and climate, students understand the decisions settlers had to make when choosing which trail to follow and when to depart on their journey. They learn about how life at the end of the overland trails differed from conditions in the eastern states. Students focus on the factors that led people to establish settlements in particular locations, primary among them the availability of natural resources (EEI curriculum unit “Nature and Newcomers,” 5.8.4; see appendix G for California Environmental Principle V).

Students might dramatize the experience of emigrants moving west to Oregon by wagon train. Excerpts from children’s literature help students understand the organization of expeditions, the scouting of a trail, and the dangers faced by pioneers, which included raging rivers, parched deserts, sandstorms and
snowstorms, and lack of water or medicine. Students may write a journal or create a scrapbook as though they were traveling on the Oregon Trail. Conversely, teachers may divide the students into distinct groups.

Several groups may represent emigrant wagon trains headed for Oregon and/or California, while other groups of students are given the task of imagining the experiences of American Indian communities who live in the regions through which these migrants pass. Students may consider where the trail ran; the influence of geographic terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate; and life in the territories at the end of these trails. This exercise should introduce new perspectives on westward migration and reframe how students understand these unfolding relationships.

Students can address the following questions: How does the increased traffic of tens of thousands of emigrants transform indigenous environments and resources? What are the advantages and disadvantages of these migrations for indigenous communities whose territories intersect with these trails and transportation corridors? Students study the resistance of American Indians to encroachments as well as internecine Indian conflicts, including the competing claims for control of lands and the government’s policy of Indian removal. High-quality informational books for children, such as Trail of Tears by Joseph Bruchac, may be compared to other texts and primary sources.

Settlement touched diverse groups of people across lines of ethnicity, nationality, race, and gender. Pioneer women played many 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 the right to vote in 1869, followed by Utah, Colorado, and Idaho. Mexican settlers also migrated into New Mexico, Texas, and California.

A study of 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 (1846–1848) led to annexation of western lands by the United States. These events provide opportunities to focus on the Hispanic people of California and the Southwest, their distinctive contributions to American culture, and the effects of the events on their lives. Students should come away from their fifth-grade study of U.S. history with an understanding of how the United States emerged, expanded, and transformed into a nation that touched both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. They must also be able to explain the diverse groups of people whose lives were transformed due to the nation's growth.