

## HISTORY: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

*World Book on Saint Augustine*<sup>1</sup>

**Saint Augustine**, Fla. pronounced AW guh steen, is the oldest permanent settlement established in the United States by Europeans. It was founded in 1565 by a Spanish explorer, Pedro Menendez de Aviles. St. Augustine lies in northeastern Florida, near the Atlantic Ocean.

Spain ruled St. Augustine for more than 200 years. Historians believe the Spanish explorer **Juan Ponce de Leon** visited what is now the St. Augustine area in 1513. During the late 1500's, St. Augustine served as Spain's military headquarters in North America. The English naval commander **Sir Francis Drake** looted and burned the settlement in 1586. Spain ruled St. Augustine until 1763, when the British gained control of it. Spain again ruled the settlement from 1783 until 1821, when Florida became a territory of the United States.

The narrow streets and Spanish-style architecture of the oldest district of St. Augustine reflect the city's rich history. Many of the old buildings have been restored to preserve the historical atmosphere of the district. The Castillo de San Marcos (Fort of Saint Mark), a large, gray stone fortress built by the Spanish in the 1600's, dominates the city. This structure, like many others in St. Augustine, is made of coquina, a limestone found nearby.

*World Book on the Lost Colony of Roanoke*<sup>2</sup>

**The Lost Colony** is the name given to a settlement established in 1587 on Roanoke Island, off the coast of modern North Carolina. The colony is called lost because no one knows what happened to its people or where they went.

The Lost Colony was England's second colony in America. The first had been established on Roanoke Island by a group of 108 men sent to the island in 1585 by the English soldier and explorer **Sir Walter Raleigh** [whom we studied in Week 19]. The first colony was meant to serve chiefly as a base for repairing and resupplying English warships. But the colonists found that the seas around the island were too shallow for ships to seek shelter there. In addition, the land was not productive enough to support both the colony and the Indians already living there. As a result, the colonists returned to England in 1586.

A few days after the colonists left, a group of ships sent by Raleigh from England arrived at the island with supplies and more colonists. When the new colonists found that the others had left, most of them sailed back to England with the ships. However, 15 adventurers remained on the island.

In May 1587, Raleigh sent another group of colonists to America, to settle on the shores of Chesapeake Bay. These colonists became the lost colonists. They were led by John White, an Englishman who had been a member of the first colony.

In July 1587, the commander of the ships carrying the new colony refused to sail beyond Roanoke Island and forced the colonists to land there. When the colony landed, it consisted of 117 people—91 men, 17 women, and 9 children. Twenty-seven days later, on August 18, White's daughter, Eleanor, gave birth on the island to a baby girl. Named **Virginia Dare**, the baby was the first English child born in America. Her father, Ananias Dare, was also one of the colonists. Later in August, White returned to England for supplies. His daughter, granddaughter, and son-in-law remained on the island. War between England and Spain [the famous battle with the Spanish Armada] prevented White from returning to Roanoke Island until August 1590. By the time he arrived, the colony had been abandoned. The only traces of the colonists were the letters CRO carved on one tree and the word Croatoan carved on another. The Croatoan, or Hatteras, Indians were friendly Indians who lived on an island south of Roanoke Island. Although the colonists had intended to go north by land to Chesapeake Bay, White decided to see if they had gone to live with the Croatoans. However, a storm and the lateness of the season forced White and his expedition to abandon their search and return to England. The lost colonists were never seen again by any European.

Some modern historians think that most of the lost colonists may have moved to Chesapeake Bay and perished there in conflicts with Indians. Stories collected by Virginians indicate that other members of the Lost Colony may have mingled with several Indian tribes. The Lumbee Indians, who live in southeastern North Carolina, believe themselves to be descendants of the lost colonists and of Indians who lived nearby.

During the Age of Exploration, the opportunity for acquiring great wealth was open to both private individuals and nations. The goal of capitalism, unlike mercantilism, was to invest wealth, not just acquire it. As with Jesus' parable of

<sup>1</sup> Excerpted from a *World Book* article entitled *St. Augustine*. Contributor: Fred H. Whitley, Associate Editor, Saint Augustine Record.

<sup>2</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Lost Colony*. Contributor: Karen Ordahl Kupperman, Ph.D., Prof. of History, Univ. of Connecticut.

the talents, the mercantilist would be the man who buried his talent in the ground and could offer back to his master only what he was given. The capitalist puts his talent to work. The talent therefore grows in value, making him more wealthy while it nourishes the greater economic system on which the capitalist depends. Enterprising individuals during the Age of Exploration used what money they had to make more money. Instead of hoarding gold or silver like mythological dragons, they invested their wealth, often at high risk, in order to make a profit.

We have already learned about moneychangers, the earliest capitalists. Since they held money and goods for safe keeping and exchanged monies for world travelers, to some degree it was natural that they would take the next step and begin to invest their own money in sea journeys or overland trading ventures.

But such voyages were perilous. Storms, pirates, or angry natives might claim the ships and the investments. One such disaster could spell financial ruin for a single investor. For this reason, men organized companies in which they shared gains and losses among themselves. Since they could afford to finance more expeditions, the loss of one ship would not mean complete ruin for any one of them.

From this beginning arose joint-stock companies. Even moderately wealthy people could invest some money in a joint venture. Such investors would be issued stock certificates to validate their share in future profits. The invested money became part of the company's capital, or supply of money. If a profit was made, it was given to the stock-holders, or investors, in the form of monetary payments called dividends. If the ships were lost, the stock-holders lost their investment and made no profit on that journey.

The English East India Company, the Dutch East India Company, and the French Company of New France were three such companies that became very large, profitable, and influential during the 1600's. These companies did more than trade; they also set up bases of operation or settlements in newly discovered lands to make their work more permanent.

Yet another familiar form of capitalism that developed during this period was the prospectus. Then, as now, details of a proposed venture would be posted in a public place, and those interested in helping with the finances of the venture would sign their names under it. They would agree to receive profits or sustain losses according to the outcome of the journey. From this practice we get our modern word "underwriter," which today is used to describe an insurance company.

*World Book on Jamestown*<sup>1</sup>

**Jamestown**, Va., was the first permanent English settlement in North America. **On May 6, 1607**, three ships stopped at Cape Henry, at the southern entrance to Chesapeake Bay, after more than four months at sea. The day was April 26, according to the calendar then in use. Captain Christopher Newport commanded the ships, the *Susan Constant*, *Godspeed*, and *Discovery*.

The ships carried 105 adventurers, who saw "faire meddowes and goodly tall trees" along the Virginia coast. They had been sent out by a group of London merchants and other interested people known as the Virginia Company of London (later shortened to Virginia Company.) They came to America mostly to search for treasure and also to spread Christianity among the Indians. Few of the men were able or willing to do manual labor or to raise farm products that could not be grown in England.

The three ships sailed up the James River from Cape Henry for about 60 miles. The adventurers landed on a little peninsula on the river on May 24 (then May 14) and established their settlement there. They named both the river and their settlement in honor of King James I of England. The site turned out to be a bad choice. The ground was swampy, and the drinking water impure. A meager and unwholesome diet weakened the men, and about two-thirds of them soon died of malnutrition, malaria, pneumonia, and dysentery. Sharp contrasts of climate added to their problems.

The Jamestown settlement suffered one dreadful disaster after another. **Captain John Smith** held the group together when he took control from mid-1608 to mid-1609. He forced the adventurers to stop searching for gold and

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Jamestown*. Contributor: James Kirby Martin, Ph.D., Prof. of History, Univ. of Houston.

**The London Company**<sup>1</sup> was an association of "noblemen, gentlemen, and merchants" during the early days of the American Colonies. It was part of the Virginia Company. In 1606, King James I of England chartered the London Company to form a colony in North America. It founded the Jamestown colony in 1607.

The founders of the London Company believed that precious metals existed in the Americas. They spent about \$10,000 to send settlers to Jamestown. Those who went to America and risked their lives were called planters. Those who stayed in England and invested their money in the company were called adventurers. Each planter and adventurer was to share in the company's profits. But the company failed to profit. The company reorganized under new charters in 1609, and again in 1612. But still there were no profits.

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *London Company*. Contributor: Marshall Smelser, Ph.D., Former Professor of History, University of Notre Dame.

silver and to start working for their survival, and he bought corn from the Indians. But an accident in 1609 forced Smith to return to England for treatment.

Fire, drought, Indian attacks, disease, starvation, and lack of another strong leader brought the settlement to its lowest ebb in the winter of 1609-1610. Later colonists called that winter “the starving time.” The arrival of Governor Thomas West, **Lord De La Warr** [Delaware], in 1610 with settlers and supplies saved Jamestown from abandonment.

About 18,000 Indians lived in Virginia during the early 1600’s. More than 30 of the tribes in the area united to form a confederacy under the mighty chief **Powhatan** (Wahunsonacock). His daughter, the Indian princess **Pocahontas**, was reported to have saved the life of John Smith. In 1614, Pocahontas married John Rolfe, one of the settlers. This marriage was treated as a diplomatic alliance. It brought about a few years of uneasy peace between the settlers and the Indians.

Jamestown’s agricultural and industrial activities began slowly. The early settlers failed in attempts to produce silk, grapes, and other items unsuited for the Virginia climate. Early industries included glass blowing, iron smelting, the making of potash, and shipbuilding.

The first farm products to be raised successfully were hogs and Indian corn. In 1612, John Rolfe introduced a new type of tobacco to the colony by bringing seed from Trinidad. Rolfe also improved the method of curing the leaves. This new kind of tobacco was sweeter than the native Virginia plant, and the settlers found a ready market for it in Europe. Tobacco, corn, and hogs provided a solid basis for Jamestown’s economy.

In 1619, the first representative legislative assembly in the Western Hemisphere met in Jamestown. This assembly, called the **House of Burgesses**, served as a model for many of the lawmaking bodies in the United States. In 1619, when the population was about a thousand, the Virginia Company tried to encourage young men to make permanent homes in the colony by sending a number of “young, handsome and honestly educated maids” to become the bachelors’ wives. Before 1619, only a few married women and female servants lived in Jamestown. Another important event of 1619 was the arrival of a Dutch ship at Jamestown with 20 blacks for sale. These Africans [were indentured servants, but] the thousands who followed them would in time become slaves. Their labor helped make the colony prosperous.

In 1622, the Indians, afraid of losing their lands forever, unexpectedly attacked the settlements around Jamestown, and killed about 350 people—one-third of the colonists. The town itself was warned of the uprising and was able to resist the attack. The Indians rose again in 1644 and killed about 500 people, mostly in outlying settlements. Both times, the colonists struck back, killing many Indians and destroying their food supplies and villages.

Two of the main reasons for the survival of the Jamestown settlement were that (1) the colonists learned to produce their own food, and (2) **tobacco** proved to be a highly marketable cash crop. But tragedy struck Jamestown in the late 1600’s. The town was burned to the ground in 1676 during **Bacon’s Rebellion**, a revolt against royal governor William Berkeley led by planter Nathaniel Bacon. [For more information, see the article on Bacon’s Rebellion in Week 23.] Fire again destroyed the settlement in 1698. These disasters caused the people in Virginia to transfer their capital to Williamsburg in 1699. Jamestown fell into decay.

The site of the Jamestown settlement no longer stands on a peninsula. It now lies on an island, having been cut off from the mainland by water. Much of the original land has been washed away by

**Lord De La Warr**<sup>1</sup> (1577-1618) became the first governor of the Virginia colony. He was also known as Lord Delaware. The Delaware River, Delaware Bay, the colony of Delaware, and the state of Delaware were named for him. De La Warr arrived with supplies at Jamestown, Virginia, in June 1610, in time to prevent the discouraged settlers from deserting the colony. He returned to England in 1611. As governor he was harsh and strict, but he succeeded in bringing order to the colony. He became a member of the Privy Council of Queen Elizabeth I.

De La Warr was probably born at Wherwell, England, near Winchester. His given and family name was Thomas West.

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Lord De La Warr*. Contributor: Fred W. Anderson, Ph.D., Associate Prof. of History, Univ. of Colorado, Boulder.

American Indians smoked **tobacco**<sup>1</sup> in pipes long before Christopher Columbus sailed to the New World in 1492. Columbus brought some tobacco seeds back to Europe, where farmers began to grow the plant for use as a medicine that helped people relax. In 1560, a French diplomat named Jean Nicot—from whom tobacco receives its botanical name, *Nicotiana*—introduced the use of tobacco in France.

Commercial production of tobacco began in North America in 1612, after an English colonist named John Rolfe brought some tobacco seeds from South America to Virginia. The Virginia soil and climate were excellent for tobacco, and it became an important crop there and in other parts of the South.

Most of the tobacco grown in the American Colonies was exported to England until the Revolutionary War began in 1775. Manufacturers in the United States then began to produce smoking tobacco, chewing tobacco, and snuff for domestic use. Cigars were first manufactured in the United States in the early 1800’s.

Spaniards and some other Europeans began to smoke hand-rolled cigarettes in the 1600’s, but few people in the United States used them until the 1850’s. Cigarette smoking became increasingly popular after the first practical cigarette-making machine was invented in the early 1880’s.

<sup>1</sup> Excerpted from a *World Book* article entitled *Tobacco*. Contributor: J. H. Smiley, Ph.D., Extension Prof. of Agronomy, Univ. of Kentucky.

tidal currents of the James River. For many years, only a few foundation stones and the ruined tower of a brick church stood as reminders of the settlement. But archaeologists have now found many relics of the original town. The Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities controls the land around the ruined church. The National Park Service manages the rest of the area. It operates its area as part of the Colonial National Historical Park.

#### **World Book on John Smith**<sup>1</sup>

**John Smith** (1580?-1631) was an English soldier and adventurer. He helped establish the first permanent English colony in America, at Jamestown, Virginia.

According to a book that Smith wrote, he was once captured by unfriendly Indians while on an expedition in the wilderness. The Indian chief, **Powhatan**, intended to kill Smith, but **Pocahontas**, the chief’s daughter, stopped the execution. Smith was released, and he returned to Jamestown. Pocahontas remained Smith’s friend and warned him of at least one Indian plan to attack the settlement.

**Early years.** Smith was born in Willoughby, England, near Louth. He worked on his father’s farm and went to school until about age 15. Smith sought adventure, and so he left home and became a soldier. He fought in the Netherlands with the Dutch army against the **Spaniards**. In 1601, he joined the fight of several east European nations against invasion by the **Turks**. Smith was quickly promoted to captain. Shortly after his promotion, the Turks captured Smith and sold him as a slave. He later escaped to **Russia** and then returned to England.

**Life in the colonies.** In 1606, Smith joined a group that sailed from England to establish a colony in Virginia. The expedition was financed by the Virginia Company of London, an organization formed partly by London business people. These people believed gold and silver could be found in America, and the colonists were instructed to transport the precious metals back to England.

The colonists landed in Virginia in 1607 and founded a settlement, which they named Jamestown in honor of King James I. From the beginning, Jamestown suffered heavily from disease, starvation, and Indian attacks. Most of the colonists were unable or unwilling to work to feed and protect themselves. Smith served as president of the colony in 1608 and 1609. He enforced order, required all the colonists to work, and traded with the Indians for food.

Under Smith’s leadership, Jamestown was almost free of hunger and disease. Smith treated the Indians harshly. They feared him, and so fewer conflicts occurred between the Indians and the colonists. But Smith’s rough manner toward the Indians increased their hatred of the settlers. After Smith left Jamestown, the Indians increased their attacks against the colony.

Some of the settlers criticized Smith’s leadership. Many of his opponents were aristocrats who resented being governed by a farmer’s son. Smith sailed back to England in 1609 after being wounded in a gunpowder accident. That winter, the colony was almost wiped out by starvation and Indian raids.

Smith returned to America in 1614 and spent several months exploring the coast in the Massachusetts Bay area. He later named this region “New England.”

In his later years, Smith lived in London and wrote several books that promoted American colonization. His most influential book was *The Generall Historie of Virginia, New England and the Summer Isles* (1624). Smith stressed the value of such products as fish, furs, and timber. He criticized the useless searches for gold and silver by earlier colonists. Smith also urged that future expeditions be carefully planned and that people chosen as colonists be willing to work and undergo hardship.

#### **World Book on Pocahontas**<sup>2</sup>

**Pocahontas**, pronounced poh kuh HAHN tuhs (1595?-1617), was the daughter of the American Indian chief, **Powhatan**. She worked to maintain friendly relations between the Indians and early English colonists in America. Captain John Smith, the leader of the settlers in Jamestown, Va., claimed that she saved his life. He wrote in his book *The Generall Historie of Virginia, New England, and the Summer Isles* (1624) that Powhatan was about to kill him with a stone war club. But Pocahontas, Smith claimed, placed her head upon his and begged her father to spare him. It is not certain that this is a true story, because Smith, in an earlier book, failed to include an account of this incident. [An author in our rhetoric-level readings insists that Smith misunderstood a mock execution for a real one, and missed the intended **symbolic nature** of Pocahontas’s scripted intervention.]

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *John Smith*. Contributor: Alden T. Vaughan, Ph.D., Prof. of History, Columbia Univ.

<sup>2</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Pocahontas*. Contributor: James Kirby Martin, Ph.D., Distinguished University Professor of History, University of Houston.

The name “Pocahontas” meant “playful one.” She was a child of about 12 at the time of the incident. She is mentioned in William Strachey’s *The Histories of Travell into Virginia Britania* (1612). Strachey, the first secretary of the Virginia Colony, said Pocahontas married a chief from her tribe when she was about 14 years old. She was not seen in the Jamestown area for about three years after that.

By 1608, fighting had broken out between the white settlers and Powhatan’s Indians. Pocahontas was lured on board an English ship in 1613 and temporarily held captive. During this time, she and the settler John Rolfe fell in love. Pocahontas was converted to Christianity and baptized Rebecca. She married Rolfe in 1614.

Pocahontas went with her husband to London in 1616 to help raise funds for the struggling colonists in Virginia. The English thought of her as an Indian “princess.” While waiting to sail back to America, she died of smallpox. Her son, Thomas, was educated in England. He later went to America and became an important settler in Virginia. A number of noted Virginia families claim to be his descendants.

### Parallel Events in Europe

#### World Book on James I<sup>1</sup>

**James I** (1566-1625) was the first Stuart king of England. He became James VI of Scotland in 1567 when his mother, Mary, Queen of Scots, gave up that throne. When James’s cousin Elizabeth I died, he became King James I of England in 1603, and ruled both England and Scotland until his death. James’s son Charles I succeeded him.

James believed in the divine right of kings, the belief that kings get the right to rule from God, rather than from the people. He set up a strong royal government in Scotland, but the English Parliament opposed his attempt to rule as absolute monarch in England. This dispute over who should have power continued under Charles I, and led to the English Civil War in 1642 [which we will study in detail in Week 25].

James supported the Anglican Church and sponsored a translation of the Bible, published in 1611, that is now known as the King James Version. But he persecuted certain Protestant groups such as the Puritans. Some Puritans migrated to America in 1620 and founded Plymouth Colony. They were better known as Pilgrims.

**Jamestown**, the first permanent English settlement in America, was named in his honor. But James showed an interest in colonies only in Northern Ireland, where he seized land from Irish Catholics and gave it to English and Scottish Protestants.

#### World Book on the Thirty Years’ War<sup>2</sup>

The **Thirty Years’ War** (1618-1648) was a series of religious and political wars that eventually involved most European nations. The conflict began as a civil war between Protestants and Roman Catholics in the Holy Roman Empire and other territories under the administration of the **Habsburgs**, the royal family of Austria. But before the war ended, it had become a general struggle for territory and political power.

**Causes of the war.** The underlying cause of the war was the old deep-seated hostility between Protestants and Catholics in central Europe and in the Holy Roman Empire, a German-based empire that included what are now Germany, Austria, and parts of Italy and the Czech Republic. The Protestants and Catholics disagreed in their interpretation of the **Peace of Augsburg** (1555), which had been intended as a settlement of the religious question in the Holy Roman Empire. Both groups had violated the peace. In addition, the Peace of Augsburg had recognized only Catholics and Lutherans. There were many Calvinists and other Protestants in southern and central Germany, and they also demanded recognition.

**The Bohemian period (1618-1624).** A conflict over constitutional liberties between Protestants in Bohemia (now the western part of the Czech Republic) and their Roman Catholic rulers led to the war. But the spark that ignited the fighting came when the archbishop of Prague, the capital of Bohemia, ordered a Protestant church destroyed. In anger, the people appealed to Holy Roman Emperor Matthias, who ignored their protests. The Protestants revolted in May 1618 to defend their constitutional privileges. The rebels threw two of the emperor’s officials out a window in what became known as the **Defenestration of Prague**. Protestants in central Europe sided with the Bohemian rebels.

The Bohemian Protestants removed the Catholic king of Bohemia, Ferdinand, from the throne, and chose the **Protestant Frederick**, elector (prince) of the Palatinate, an area in Germany, in Ferdinand’s place. But in 1619, Ferdi-

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *James I*. Contributor: Lacey Baldwin Smith, D.Litt., Prof. Emeritus of English History, Northwestern.

<sup>2</sup> Excerpted from *World Book* articles entitled *Germany* and *Thirty Years’ War*. Contributors: James J. Sheehan, Ph.D., Dickason Professor of Humanities, Stanford University; Phillip N. Bebb, Ph.D., Professor of History, Ohio University.

nand was chosen Holy Roman emperor. Ferdinand—who took the title Ferdinand II—had great power in this position. In 1620, his general, Johan Tserclaes, Count of Tilly, decisively defeated the Bohemians in the Battle of the White Mountain. This defeat cost the Bohemians their independence, and Catholicism again became the state religion.

**The Danish period (1625-1629).** After Bohemia was defeated, the other Protestant countries began to realize their danger. The Protestant king of Denmark, Christian IV [brother of James I’s wife, Anne, Queen of England], aided by several other countries, opposed Ferdinand’s forces in Saxony (now northern Germany). But the emperor had received unexpected help from the famous general Albrecht von Wallenstein, who had a large army of hired soldiers and adventurers.

Wallenstein’s army, aided by forces of the Holy League, a military alliance of German Catholic states under the leadership of General Tilly, defeated the Danish king again and again. Christian IV signed the Treaty of Lubeck (1629) and withdrew from Saxony. Meanwhile, the emperor had issued the Edict of Restitution. It provided that all church possessions which the Protestants had acquired be returned to the Catholics. The edict marked the height of the emperor’s power. But it forced other leaders in the empire to oppose him because he had issued the edict without consulting them.

**The Swedish period (1630-1634).** The Swedish king, **Gustavus Adolphus**, was devoted to the cause of Protestantism. He was also ambitious for Sweden, which would be in danger if Ferdinand became too powerful. So, for the first time, a major political issue entered the war. In 1630, Gustavus Adolphus set sail from Sweden with 13,000 men to relieve the city of Magdeburg, Germany, which Tilly was besieging. The Swedish king had the best-trained and best-disciplined army in Europe, but he arrived too late to prevent the destruction of the city. In 1631, the Swedish army defeated Tilly in the Battle of Breitenfeld. Afterward, the Swedish forces won another important battle, and Tilly was killed in the fighting.

Emperor Ferdinand now called back Wallenstein, whom he had dismissed. Another army of recruits was gathered from many parts of Europe and placed under Wallenstein’s leadership. Ferdinand also made an alliance with Philip IV of Spain. Wallenstein’s army met the Swedish forces in the Battle of Lutzen (1632). The Swedes won, but Gustavus Adolphus was killed in the battle.

The Swedes continued the struggle until 1634, when their army was destroyed in the Battle of Nordlingen. The emperor suspected that Wallenstein was negotiating with the Protestants and ordered his arrest. Wallenstein tried to escape but was assassinated.

**The Swedish-French period (1635-1648).** The war now lost most of its religious character and became largely political. Cardinal Richelieu, who ruled France through King Louis XIII, determined to block the growth of Habsburg power by interfering on the side of the Protestants. The war became a struggle between the royal Bourbon family of France and the Austrian Habsburgs. In 1635, Richelieu sent a French army into Germany, where it joined a Swedish army. The combined armies won a long series of battles, giving new hope to the Protestants in Germany. [We will study Richelieu and Louis XIII in depth during Week 22.]

**The Peace of Westphalia (1648).** For years the people of the Holy Roman Empire had suffered misery and hardship because of the Thirty Years’ War. In 1644, the European countries sent representatives to a peace conference. The Catholic and Protestant delegates met separately in two different cities of Westphalia (now western Germany). The negotiations dragged on for four years, until the Peace of Westphalia was signed in 1648. By this treaty, France acquired Alsace and Lorraine; and Sweden got control of the mouths of the Oder, Elbe, and Weser rivers. Also as a result of the treaty, Calvinism was put on an equal footing with Catholicism and Lutheranism.

**Results of the war.** The empire was in a pitiable condition by the time the war ended. Many people had been killed. Whole cities, villages, and farms had disappeared, and much property had been destroyed. Art, science, trade, and industry declined. It took almost 200 years for the German territories to recover from the effects of the war.

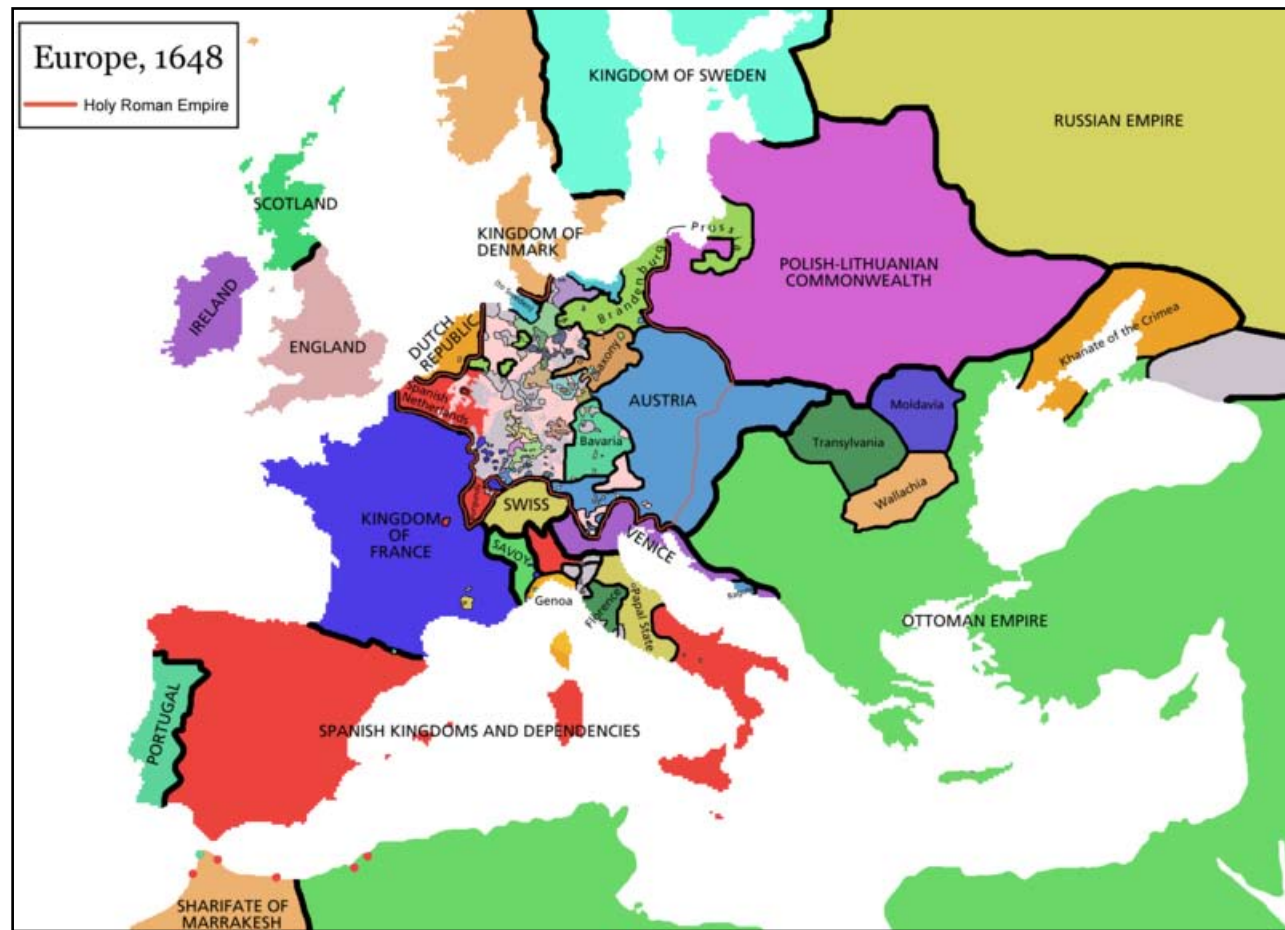
#### World Book on the Development of Prussia<sup>1</sup>

During the 1600’s, the Hohenzollern family began to expand its power in eastern Germany. The **Hohenzollerns** ruled the state of Brandenburg. Berlin was their capital. In 1618, the ruler of Brandenburg inherited the duchy of Prussia. The Peace of Westphalia added part of Pomerania and some territories on the lower Rhine River to the Hohenzollern holdings.

<sup>1</sup> Excerpted from *World Book* articles entitled *Germany*, *Thirty Years’ War*, and *Frederick William*. Contributors: James J. Sheehan, Ph.D., Dickason Professor of Humanities, Stanford University; Phillip N. Bebb, Ph.D., Professor of History, Ohio University; Charles W. Ingrao, Ph.D., Professor of History, Purdue University.

The Hohenzollerns' rise to power began with **Frederick William** (the Great Elector), who became ruler of Brandenburg in 1640. Frederick William was born on Feb. 16, 1620. During his rule, Frederick William laid the foundations for the future military greatness of Prussia. He was only 20 years old when he succeeded his father as elector (ruler). He ruled Brandenburg during the last eight years of the Thirty Years' War, which brought great ruin to Brandenburg. After the war ended in 1648, Frederick William began to send people to towns that had been deserted. He also won the power to raise and collect taxes and used money to build a standing army. Frederick William fought against both King Louis XIV of France and King Charles XI of Sweden. He defeated Swedish troops in an important battle at Fehrbellin, Germany, in 1675.

Throughout his reign, he devoted much of his time to improving his territory. He encouraged industries, opened canals, and established a postal system. He reorganized the universities of Frankfurt and Konigsberg and founded the Royal Library in Berlin. At his death on May 9, 1688, Frederick William left to his son Frederick III of Brandenburg (later **King Frederick I** of Prussia) a prosperous state and an enlarged army. In 1701, Frederick I, was given the title king of Prussia. [We will continue the story of Prussia and Frederick I's two successors, Frederick William I and Frederick II (the Great) in Week 25.]



Background map for the Thirty Years' War

**New Views of the Universe**

**World Book on Galileo<sup>1</sup>**

**Galileo**, pronounced gal uh LAY oh or gal uh LEE oh (1564-1642), an Italian astronomer and physicist, has been called the founder of modern experimental science. Galileo made the first effective use of the refracting telescope to discover important new facts about astronomy. He also discovered the law of falling bodies as well as the law of the pendulum. Galileo designed a variety of scientific instruments. He also developed and improved the refracting telescope, though he did not invent it.

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Galileo*. Contributor: A. Mark Smith, Ph.D., Professor of History, University of Missouri, Columbia.

**Early life.** Galileo Galilei was born in Pisa on Feb. 15, 1564. In the early 1570's, his family moved to Florence, and Galileo began his formal education at a school in a nearby monastery. Galileo's father, determined that his son should be a doctor, sent him to the University of Pisa in 1581. Galileo studied medicine and the philosophy of Aristotle for the next four years.

**Early scientific interests.** Galileo's years as a student at Pisa marked a turning point for him. Never really interested in medicine, he discovered he had a talent for mathematics. In 1585, he persuaded his father to let him leave the university. Back in Florence with his family, Galileo spent the next four years as a tutor in mathematics. During this time, he began to question Aristotelian philosophy and scientific thought. At the same time, he gained his first public notice with his new hydrostatic balance, an instrument used to find the specific gravity of objects by weighing them in water.

In 1589, Galileo was appointed professor of mathematics at the University of Pisa. This position required him to teach courses in astronomy on the basis of the Greek astronomer Ptolemy's theory that the sun and all the planets revolve around the earth. Preparing for these courses deepened Galileo's understanding of astronomical theory. In 1592, he took up duties as professor of mathematics at the University of Padua, where he spent the next 18 years. During this time, he became convinced of the truth of the theory, proposed by the Polish astronomer **Nicolaus Copernicus**, that all planets, including the earth, revolve around the sun.

**Mature scientific career.** In 1609, while still at Padua, Galileo built his first telescope. Turning it to the sky, he saw clear evidence that many of Aristotle's and Ptolemy's claims about the heavens were false. Galileo's first discovery was that, far from being perfectly smooth, as Aristotle and Ptolemy had thought, the moon was mountainous and pitted, much like the earth. He made his most sensational discovery in 1610, when he discovered four moons circling Jupiter. He named these moons the "Medicean Planets," in the hope of winning the favor of the Medicis, the ruling family of Florence.

In 1610, Cosimo de' Medici, Grand Duke of Tuscany, named Galileo his personal mathematician. This position brought Galileo back to Florence, where he continued his studies of the heavens. He made observations of sunspots and of Venus, noting that the planet progresses through phases similar to those of the moon. This fact confirmed his doubts about Ptolemaic astronomy and deepened his conviction of the truth of Copernicus's theory that the earth and planets revolve around the sun. Publication of these findings, starting in 1610, brought him wide renown.

Galileo also pursued research on motion—especially the motion of freely falling bodies. The problem, as he saw it, was that the Aristotelian theory of motion, which referred all mo-

Galileo's observations of sunspots were important because they proved that the sun had "blemishes" on its face. Aristotle taught that there were four terrestrial elements (earth, air, fire, and water), plus quintessence (literally "fifth element") called ether. Ether was supposed to be an incorruptible element that had the unusual property of moving in perfect circles around the center of the Earth. The discovery of sunspots cast doubt on whether the sun was really made of ether, which, in turn, cast doubt on whether it really moved in perfect circles around the Earth.

Galileo's observations of the pendulum showed him that the time of a pendulum's swing depends on the length of the pendulum, not on the weight of the pendulum or the distance it swings. (This fact makes it possible to build accurate clocks using a pendulum, like the familiar grandfather clock.) Aristotle's theory of falling bodies could not explain this fact. Aristotle had taught that heavier bodies fall faster than light bodies, but a heavy pendulum takes just as long to swing as a lighter pendulum of the same length.

**History of Science: Scriptures and Commentary**

**Psalm 19:1-4**

*The heavens declare the glory of God; the skies proclaim the work of his hands. Day after day they pour forth speech; night after night they display knowledge. There is no speech or language where their voice is not heard. Their voice goes out into all the earth, their words to the ends of the world.*

**Romans 1:20-21**

*For since the creation of the world God's invisible qualities—his eternal power and divine nature—have been clearly seen, being understood from what has been made, so that men are without excuse. For although they knew God, they neither glorified him as God nor gave thanks to him, but their thinking became futile and their foolish hearts were darkened.*

**Ancients had no foundation without God.**

- They couldn't have understood the origin of the universe.
- They chose not to glorify the Creator, and their minds were darkened.
- As a result, they became prey to idolatry, polytheism, and superstition, which is false belief based on ignorance and fear. Without the belief in an orderly universe created by an orderly God who is distinct from and ruling over His creation, they had no basis for the development of modern science.

**Why weren't ancient and modern sciences the same in content and development?**

- From time to time, scattered cultures accomplished some amazing feats of engineering and invention. The Chinese were particularly noteworthy in this regard.
- However, most of these cultures embraced astrology, choosing to believe that the stars directed the destinies of men, rather than calling on the Creator of the stars for wisdom and guidance. Superstition and polytheism similarly taught them to fear conflicting petty deities in all the powers of nature.
- Thus, they never understood that natural forces controlled the world, and that there were rational laws of nature that were established by God and could be understood and harnessed for the good of mankind.

*Continued in sidebar, next page...*

tion to a stationary earth at the center of the universe, made it impossible to believe the earth actually moves. Galileo went to work to develop a theory of motion consistent with a moving earth.

Among the most important results of this search were the law of the pendulum and the law of freely falling bodies. Galileo observed that pendulums of equal length swing at the same rate whether their arcs are large or small. Modern measuring instruments show that the rate is actually somewhat greater if the arc is large. Galileo's law of falling bodies states that all objects fall at the same speed, regardless of their mass; and that, as they fall, the speed of their descent increases uniformly.

**Galileo and the Roman Catholic Church.** Galileo's quick wit, which he often used to ridicule his opponents, earned him a number of enemies. In 1613, Galileo wrote a letter in which he tried to show that the Copernican theory was consistent with both Catholic doctrine and proper Biblical interpretation. Some of his enemies sent a copy of this letter to the inquisitors in Rome, who sought out and punished heretics—people who opposed church teachings. In early 1616, Galileo was summoned to Rome for a determination on the orthodoxy of his views. Although he was cleared of charges of heresy, he was ordered not “to hold or defend” the Copernican theory. That is, he could treat the theory hypothetically but not treat it as if it were true.

In 1632, Galileo published his first scientific masterpiece, the *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems*. In this work, he compared the Ptolemaic-Aristotelian theory to the Copernican theory to show that the Copernican system was logically superior. Once again Galileo was summoned to Rome, this time to answer to the charge of willfully disobeying the order not “to hold or defend” Copernicus's theory. In 1633, the Inquisition found Galileo guilty of the charge, forced him to recant (publicly withdraw his statement), and sentenced him to life imprisonment.

Because of Galileo's advanced age and poor health, the church allowed him to serve his imprisonment under house arrest in a villa outside Florence. There, he passed the remainder of his years in relative isolation, eventually becoming blind. But he managed to complete his second scientific masterpiece, the *Discourse on Two New Sciences*, published in 1638. In this work, Galileo provided both a mathematical proof of his new theory of motion and an original study of the tensile strength of materials. He died on Jan. 8, 1642. In 1979, Pope John Paul II declared that the Roman Catholic Church may have been mistaken in condemning Galileo. He instructed a church commission to study Galileo's case. In 1983, the commission concluded that Galileo should not have been condemned. In 1984, at the commission's recommendation, the church published all documents related to Galileo's trial. In 1992, Pope John Paul II publicly endorsed the commission's finding that the church had made a mistake in condemning Galileo.

- Similarly, the cultures of the Far East stressed the oneness of man and nature and, while advancing in isolated technologies, never developed modern scientific techniques.

#### Greek Contributions

During the Golden Age of Classical Greece, many important and impressive advances were made in both mathematics and science. However, these were not the foundations of modern science.

Aristotle was the chief authority in almost all academic areas. The basic problem with Aristotle's scientific ideas stemmed from his confusion of the Creator with His creation. As long as Aristotle stuck to observation of the physical world, he was reasonably accurate and a predecessor of modern scientists. But, living before the time of Christ, and not choosing to acknowledge the one true God as Creator, he gave to the creation the attributes of God.

- He believed that matter was eternal and had always existed.
- He taught that material things had their own conscious purposes, goals, and ends, rather than they were directed by the purposes and pleasure of God.
- He so emphasized the purposes of matter that he failed to investigate what matter was or how it worked.

Because his presuppositions provided a faulty starting point, they yielded a faulty explanation of the universe. Yet, for centuries, Aristotle's theories and writings were accepted and incorporated into medieval theology.

Saint Thomas Aquinas synthesized Aristotle's philosophy with Scripture and Catholic doctrine. By creating this synthesis, he made it in the church's interest to defend the philosopher. When experimental scientists such as Galileo proved Aristotle wrong, the Roman Catholic Church leaders considered the findings to be attacks on the church and sought to deny and repress them. Thus, faithful Roman Catholics were hampered in any pursuits of the modern scientific method.

The Reformation taught people to search for truth themselves rather than rely on pagan authorities or church officials. Protestants did not face the same crisis of conscience that Roman Catholics felt. Protestant countries provided a haven from Roman Catholic suppression of scientific advancements. Most of the early scientists were either Protestants or Roman Catholics who dared to question official church dogma on scientific issues.

Many early scientists were also devout Christians seeking to glorify their Creator by understanding His creation better. Scripture teaches that God created the universe, from which He is separate. God established reasonable, orderly, and discernible laws to govern nature. Reformation scientists had confidence to search for these laws in order to understand and subdue nature, as commanded in Genesis 1:28. Because they believed the Bible, they understood both their role as explorers of a preconceived order and the principles they were exploring.

Finally, many people who studied the Bible, especially those who followed Zwingli and Calvin, felt a responsibility to use their gifts, talents, and interests to serve God. Science gave them a very important avenue for benefiting mankind and glorifying God.

**Galileo's scientific contribution.** Historians disagree about Galileo's role as the “founder of modern experimental science.” In fact, some of them doubt that experiment, in the modern sense, played an important part at all in Galileo's scientific development. These historians maintain that Galileo's real originality lay in the way he approached scientific problems. First, Galileo reduced those problems to very simple terms on the basis of everyday experience and common-sense logic. Then he analyzed and resolved the problems according to simple mathematical descriptions. The success with which Galileo applied this technique to the analysis of physics, especially the physics of motion, opened the way for the development of modern mathematical physics.

One of the major threads for the rest of our study of world history is the development of secular theories in the realms of government and philosophy. Many date the Age of Reason (also called the Enlightenment) from Galileo's unveiling of his telescope in front of Venetian lawmakers in 1609. As the scientific method of experimentation emerged, and as advanced mathematical proofs gave far more satisfying explanations for natural phenomena than traditional views based on Aristotle and Ptolemy, the intellectual world was rocked. New ideas about the nature of creation, mankind, and God Himself emerged all through the 1600's and 1700's. Below is an article that surveys these developments.

NOTE: Rhetoric history students will follow the thread of the Age of Reason in leapfrog fashion (in Weeks 20, 24, and 26 only, and then in Unit 4 as well). For those who wish to study the theories of government or the philosophical ideas of the Age of Reason in more detail, please see each week's Government track and our *Pageant of Philosophy* background information, scripts, and discussions.

#### World Book on Continued Developments in Science <sup>1</sup>

The Age of Reason, also called the Enlightenment, was a philosophical movement that greatly affected the development of science during the late 1600's and the 1700's.

Great efforts were made during the Age of Reason to circulate the results of the scientific research of the times. Many scholars gathered, organized, and published this knowledge. The most famous reference work was the 28-volume *Encyclopedie* (1751-1772) edited by two French authors, **Denis Diderot** and **Jean d'Alembert**. The *Encyclopedie* contained reports on much of the science and technology of the day.

One of the major scientific achievements of the 1700's was the creation of modern chemistry. Scientists developed the techniques necessary for isolating and studying gases in their pure forms. They discovered many chemical substances, including chlorine, hydrogen, and carbon dioxide. Oxygen was discovered by the Swedish chemist Carl Scheele in the early 1770's and independently by the English chemist Joseph Priestley in 1774. By 1777, Antoine Lavoisier of France had discovered the nature of combustion (burning). He showed that combustion results from the rapid union of the burning material with oxygen. Lavoisier also developed **the law of the conservation of matter**. This law stated that matter cannot be created or destroyed but only chemically changed in form. Lavoisier also helped work out the present-day system of chemical names.

Major advances occurred in biology during the 1700's. A Swedish naturalist and botanist named Carolus Linnaeus devised a systematic method for naming and classifying plants and animals in the mid-1700's. His method, with many alterations, is still used. Two French naturalists, Comte de Buffon and Georges Cuvier, made great advances in the study of fossils and of comparative anatomy and did much to prepare the way for the scientific investigation of evolution.

In 1776, the Scottish economist **Adam Smith** published *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, the earliest formulation of classical economics [which older students will study in detail in Unit 4]. The first systematic studies of electricity were conducted during the 1700's. In the American Colonies, **Benjamin Franklin** proved in 1752 that lightning is electricity when he performed his famous experiment with a flying kite during a thunderstorm. In the late 1700's, two Italian scientists, Luigi Galvani and **Count Alessandro Volta**, made some of the first experiments with electric current.

<sup>1</sup> Excerpted from a *World Book* article entitled *Science*. Contributor: Joseph W. Dauben, Ph.D., Professor of History and the History of Science, City University of New York.

Before beginning your discussion, please read the following:



- History Background Information
- Geography Background Information

NOTE: These discussion outlines assume that you have been studying with *Tapestry* for previous units of Year 2. However, we recognize that many parents who discover this program after having studied the Middle Ages with other curricula naturally take up *Tapestry* studies with this unit as the beginning of the colonization of America. Please be advised that we have covered significant topics in the first two units of Year 2. Knowledge of these topics is assumed in the discussion outlines in this unit. You may want to review or lecture on such topics (some of which are listed in the Unit Introduction) using alternate resources.

### HISTORY: DIALECTIC DISCUSSION OUTLINE

1. Who was the first champion of the English colonies in Virginia?  
*Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been a favorite of Queen Elizabeth, but who disappointed James I's great expectations and was subsequently executed.*
2. Which two companies were founded by the authority of King James? Who founded them, and for what purposes? What were some of the results of these two charters in the history of English colonies in America?
  - The London and Plymouth Companies were formed by merchants for the purpose of making money, even though no men had made money off of efforts to colonize (or explore) American lands before. Indeed, some had lost fortunes or lives in the attempt.*
  - Note with students the novelty of private citizens banding together in a new invention called a “joint stock company.” This shows the rise and increasing importance of the middle class, as well as clearly signaling the move from a land-based to a money-based economy, as we discussed in Unit 1. Rhetoric students’ readings in Week 21 will give them a wealth of detail about the European psychology of limited wealth, but for students at this level, it is enough to explain that a *joint stock company* was made up of a group of individuals who could, collectively, finance risky ventures that individuals (or monarchs) would not be able to make. When a venture was successful, all realized significant (if not fabulous) profits on their relatively small investment. If the venture failed, no one investor was devastated, for each could diversify when only a small amount was given to each venture. This was how early colonization was financed.
3. List some of the problems and difficulties that Jamestown colonists faced in their early years.  
*Answers will vary, but here are some representative ones:*
  - Colonists needed to build or establish all kinds of basic amenities: houses, protection from Native Americans, food, and farmland.*
  - Colonists quarrelled among themselves from the onset of their voyage.*
  - Over half of the colonists were “gentlemen adventurers” who did not know how to labor and had no basic skills in farming, carpentry, or food preservation. Their motives for joining the colonizing venture were the pursuit of quick wealth or the thrill of adventure, not the more serious aims of planting a lasting colony via hard work.*
  - When men arrived, they were often useless as laborers and ate the precious food that the ships also brought, meaning that the overall benefit of such ship loads was effectively canceled out.*
  - Sickness, Indian attacks, and malnutrition plagued the colony for years, as did internal divisions.*
4. List key people and events that saved the Jamestown colony from utter failure.
  - John Smith provided leadership and courage for the colony as it teetered on the brink of decimation in the first few years, due to the gentlemen adventurers’ lack of skills and humility. Smith had plenty of character issues himself, however, and unfortunately, he introduced many dissensions and quarrels.*
  - Pocahontas’s intervention, saving the life of John Smith, was a gift from God that allowed the colony to survive. This act restored to the colony their only strong leader and, because of the Smith’s favor with the Indians, the colony was given the gift of food when they most needed it.*
  - Lord De La Warr (Delaware) arrived in the nick of time. Because the Starving Time had reduced the colony from five hundred men to sixty in the eight months following John Smith’s injury and voyage back to England, the colonists were relieved to have Lord De La Warr installed as the first royal governor of Virginia. He restored health to the colony with his stores and discipline.*

- Sir Thomas Dale also exerted good leadership as the succeeding governor. He brought both women and ownership of private property to the colony, strengthening the colonists’ motivation to succeed and to remain in the New World.*
5. What three significant events occurred in Virginia in 1619?
    - In 1619, Virginia’s House of Burgesses held the first English parliament meeting on American soil.*
    - 1619 was also the year that the first slaves were shipped to the colony.*
    - The first significant population of women was introduced to the colony in this year as well. A few wives and daughters were already in residence, but the colony was overwhelmingly male. In 1619, a ship with ninety marriageable women arrived.*
  6. What kind of men colonized Jamestown during its first years, and what connection did their social status and vocational skills have to the success or failure of the colony?  
*As previously mentioned, most of the colonists were merely looking for quick wealth or stories to tell when they returned home—they came for adventure, not to colonize. They were not workers, nor men of sterling character or practical use. Many early colonial leaders left records that bemoan the difficulty of getting such men to work, to save food against future privations, and to submit to authority for the greater good of the colony.*
  7. Given John Smith’s character, do you think he was qualified to lead Jamestown? If not, why do you think God allowed him to do so?  
*Answers will vary. Your goal is not to arrive at a definitive answer, but to draw your students out about how they formed their opinion. Ask them to tell you about:*
    - Smith’s character: Brash, bold, contentious, quarrelsome, brave, and (in many ways) noble*
    - Smith’s life: He travelled a lot and had much practical knowledge for helping the colony survive.*
    - Smith’s leadership style: He seemed to have been a charismatic leader whom men either loved or hated for his strong personality. Certainly, he had the ability to lead men, whether they would follow him by choice or not.*
    - Smith’s courage: This is unquestionable, given the situations that he found himself in among the Native Americans.*
    - What happened when Smith left? The discipline in the colony dissolved; in eight months, their number was reduced from five hundred to sixty.*
    - Summarize these points with students. Then ask, “Given these realities, was Smith qualified to lead? Why or why not?”*
  8. Prepare to discuss the character of King James I, based on what you read.
    - H.E. Marshall, the author of both This Country of Ours and Our Island Story, does not have a high opinion of James I. Below are important details from her books.*
      - James did not deal well or wisely with Sir Walter Raleigh. His fear of the King of Spain and his lack of insight led him to execute this “first great colonizer” (This Country of Ours 100).*
      - James commanded that gifts be given in his name and a coronation be held to crown Powhatan as the “emperor” of the Powhatan Indians.*
      - James attempted to dictate the election of the President of the London Company, against the clear parameters of its legal charter.*
      - James was Scottish born, the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and he became king when he was a young boy. “James had been carefully taught, but unfortunately his teachers thought more of making him clever, than of teaching him things which would have made him a great ruler. Some people called him the ‘British Solomon,’ but because he was such a mixture of wisdom and foolishness, he has also been called the ‘Wise Fool in Christendom” (Our Island Story 445).*
      - James hated smoking and wrote a pamphlet against it when the habit became fashionable in England, after it had been imported from Native American culture.*
      - James was a Protestant, and his harsh treatment of Roman Catholics tempted them to rebellion. The most famous attempt on James’s life was a conspiracy to wipe out both king and advisors with a gunpowder explosion, deposited by Guy Fawkes under Parliament. To this day, fireworks are set off in Britain to commemorate James’s narrow escape on November 5.*
    - Here are a few facts that your students may not know:
      - James united under one person the kingdoms of Scotland, Ireland, England, and Wales. His rule encouraged the beginnings of Great Britain’s development into one united kingdom (the UK).

- James commissioned a new translation of the Holy Scriptures, commonly known as the *King James Bible*.
- James was a bit of a glutton, and very fond of steak. Legend has it that he even went so far as to knight the flank of a cow, dubbing it “Sir Loin.” From this, we get the modern term “sirloin” steak.

9. The Native Americans and the English colonists came to be bitter enemies.

- What were the factors that contributed to their enmity?  
*There were misunderstandings on both sides resulting from the proximity of two alien cultures. The inability to communicate due to language barriers, the Native Americans’ anxiety regarding the encroachment on their land, and the colonists’ harsh treatment of the natives all contributed to the general fear and hatred between the two peoples. Both groups included people of both noble and reprehensible character, and we cannot say that either the English or the Native Americans were “all good” or “all bad.”*
- In what ways do you feel each side was right?  
*Answers will vary. Students will probably mention that the Native Americans were in residence first (conversely, there was plenty of land and game to go around) and that the Englishmen displayed ethnocentricity (as we discussed in Unit 2). The English would have said that they only wanted to gather gold and other riches and depart, leaving the Native Americans in peace. Of course, they did not do this.*
- In what ways do you feel each side was wrong?  
*There are records of lying and deceit on both sides. The Englishmen used their weapons to both attack and defend at different times, and (given their cultural views) were often brutal by modern standards in their fight for survival. Both sides grew increasingly distrustful of each other, and hatred was bred as a result of various incidents and the colonists’ desperate need for food.*
- If you had been the ruler of the land, how would you have mediated between these two peoples?  
*This is one of those questions that has no one right answer. We ask it in order to observe how our children are processing the factors involved. What values would have determined your student’s decision-making paradigm? By what standards would he have judged, determined, and enforced his decisions?*

10. Discuss the life and work of Galileo, and the effects he had on church and society in the early 1600’s.

- Ask students about the three famous astronomers who influenced Galileo’s thinking. What did each of them believe about the universe?
  - Nicholas Copernicus: He believed that the sun was the center of the universe rather than the earth.*
  - Tycho Brahe: He believed that the earth did not move and that the sun circled the earth once each year. He also believed that the other visible planets orbited around the sun.*
  - Johannes Kepler: He proved that the planets’ orbits were in the shape of an ellipse rather than that of a circle. He also figured out that the closer planets are to the sun, the faster their movement. Additionally, he explained that a planet’s distance from the sun is related to the time it takes to complete a full orbit around it.*
- Ask students, “Before Galileo’s discoveries, how did educated Europeans view the universe?”  
*Educated people believed that the earth was the center of the universe and that the sun, moon, and planets all revolved around the earth. Though Copernicus and Kepler had written contrary views, there was no hard evidence to support them and therefore they were dismissed.*
- Many Roman Catholic leaders were threatened by Galileo’s theories, especially those that were supported by his obser-

**Deuteronomy 10:14**  
*To the LORD your God belong the heavens, even the highest heavens, the earth and everything in it.*

**Psalm 8:3-4**  
*When I consider your heavens, the work of your fingers, the moon and the stars, which you have set in place, what is man that you are mindful of him, the son of man that you care for him?*

**Psalm 19:1**  
*For the director of music. A psalm of David. The heavens declare the glory of God; the skies proclaim the work of his hands.*

**Psalm 50:6**  
*And the heavens proclaim his righteousness, for God himself is judge.*

**Psalm 89:5**  
*The heavens praise your wonders, O LORD, your faithfulness too, in the assembly of the holy ones.*

**Psalm 97:6**  
*The heavens proclaim his righteousness, and all the peoples see his glory.*

**Genesis 1:16-18**  
*God made two great lights—the greater light to govern the day and the lesser light to govern the night. He also made the stars. God set them in the expanse of the sky to give light on the earth, to govern the day and the night, and to separate light from darkness. And God saw that it was good.*

vations using the telescope. Use the Scriptures in the sidebar on page 44 and the information below to discuss whether or not a Christian should be threatened by Galileo’s findings.

- Whose glory do they declare, according to Psalms?  
*They speak of God’s glory and authority.*
- What does the Bible say God’s purposes are for the stars and moon?  
*See Genesis 1:16-18 in the sidebar on page 44.*
- Given these things, why would a telescope have been threatening in Galileo’s day?
  - The heliocentric (sun at the center of the universe) theories seemed to conflict with specific Bible texts. There are several places where people command the sun to “stand still” or “move backwards,” and the sun is said to “rise and set.” (See Joshua 10:12-13; 2 Kings 20:9-10; Psalm 19:4-6; 50:1; and Malachi 1:11 for examples.) All these texts seem to say that the sun does move.*
  - Conversely, the earth is never described as moving in the Bible.*
  - Galileo countered this challenge by saying that the Bible described the motion of heavenly bodies in one “language”—that of everyday speech. He claimed that we could rightly use more precise language when describing the same truth in scientific terms without contradicting the Bible. People in his day did not agree.*
- Ask students, “Are Galileo’s observations of sunspots and the irregularities of the moon and stars threatening to your faith? Why or why not?”  
*Students may adopt Galileo’s view that the Bible references relate to the sun’s movement from a position of the everyday appearance of the truth and are not a precise scientific description. They may also say that they have seen pictures of the relative positions of the actual heavenly bodies and therefore do not doubt either God or science; in other words, they may see no contradiction between the two. Be sure to discuss this carefully and slowly, noting the steps by which students arrive at their answers. For instance, we would not want them to be quick to dismiss Bible passages in favor of the evidence of their senses.*
- Though this is not specifically highlighted in the dialectic resource, you should share with them that another reason that the work of Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo seemed to threaten Roman Catholic Church leaders was that important theologians had endorsed the theories of the ancients, and even combined church teachings with the scientific theories of Aristotle and Ptolemy. For example, they had added to Ptolemy’s theory of the earth being the heaviest and therefore at the center of the universe the idea that the earth was heavy because of sin. They also took Ptolemy’s idea of the stars being fixed in a perfect, unchanging, outermost crystalline sphere which God alone moved and made this sphere into the dwelling place of the angels.

**HISTORY: RHETORIC DISCUSSION OUTLINE**

**1<sup>st</sup> Hour: Use the dialectic-level outline if you wish to reinforce the facts of this week’s study.**

NOTE: The following discussion outline reflects our dual focus on concurrent European and American events. This week’s reading on the European scene focuses on eastern Europe and encompasses dates up to 1715 in some cases, but the time period we will be concentrating on is 1600-1650. The students’ reading therefore provides background for both European and American events discussed in Weeks 20-22. Events relating to the settlement of Jamestown occurred from 1607-1620. Next week, we’ll be covering 1620-1648. Because the Thirty Years’ War concluded in 1648, it spans the colonial events discussed in both Weeks 20 and 21.

1. Create a framework for discussion using a relative time line. We suggest that students divide the allotted space horizontally with the time line in the middle of it. Then, using their notes, students can put European events above the line, and North American events below the line. Below are events they should be sure to include:
  - Elizabeth I dies in 1603; James I begins to rule.
  - James I allows settlers to go to America under the sponsorship of the London Company in 1607.
  - Also in 1607, the Pilgrims flee to Amsterdam. (Go ahead and place this date since students will be familiar with the Pilgrims, but note that technically, this date is more pertinent to next week’s study.)
  - John Smith takes control of and saves the sickly colony of Jamestown from 1608-1609.
  - Pocahontas marries John Rolfe in 1614 and dies in England in 1616.
  - Ironically, 1619 holds both the first meeting of the House of Burgesses (the first freely elected assembly in America) and the importation of twenty black slaves (who had no freedoms of any kind). Also, the first unmarried women arrive—ninety of them on one ship—to become wives and mothers in the predominantly-male colony.

The Thirty Years' War begins in 1618 and continues until 1648. (Again, this date applies to both this week's and next week's studies.)

2. Student readings in *The Age of Religious Wars, 1559-1715*, by Richard Dunn, summarize conditions in eastern Europe during 1559-1715. We suggest that students keep details straight by filling in the chart on page 22 (or expand a copy of the chart in their notebooks and then fill it in) with key aspects of life in eastern Europe in the second half of the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. Here is the chart filled in with sample answers:

	ETHNIC/SOCIAL MAKEUP	POLITICAL STRUCTURES	RELIGIOUS CONDITIONS	MAJOR EVENTS/FACTORS
<b>HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> Czecks (Slavs) <input type="checkbox"/> Germans <input type="checkbox"/> Others	Hundreds of sovereign states collected in name only under the emperor, who during this period was ruled by the House of Hapsburg. The real power was resident in the electors of seven princes of the empire.	The Peace of Augsburg established that each sovereign would decide his independent state's religion: Lutheran or Roman Catholic. In the late 1500's, Calvinist (German Reformed) subjects multiplied.	The Peace of Augsburg slowly decayed through twin pressures of the growth of German Reformed subjects and the Catholic Reformation. These contributed to the Thirty Years' War, settled by the Peace of Westphalia, which accounted for Calvinists in the agreement.
<b>OTTOMAN EMPIRE (TURKS)</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> Greeks <input type="checkbox"/> Albanians <input type="checkbox"/> Bulgarians <input type="checkbox"/> Serbo-Croatians <input type="checkbox"/> Rumanians <input type="checkbox"/> Magyars	The sultan was a strong military leader and the undisputed ruler. After 1566, a series of weak sultans meant the decline of the empire.	Turks were Muslims, but subjects were encouraged to embrace Greek Orthodoxy as a buffer to Latin Christian Europe. The church leaders cooperated by preaching submission to the Turks.	<input type="checkbox"/> Suleiman the Magnificent ruled from 1520-1566. <input type="checkbox"/> In 1571, the Spaniards smashed the Turkish fleet at Lepanto. <input type="checkbox"/> After their defeat by Austria in 1699, the empire permanently declined.
<b>POLAND</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> Poles <input type="checkbox"/> Lithuanians <input type="checkbox"/> White Russians <input type="checkbox"/> Ruthenians <input type="checkbox"/> Germans <input type="checkbox"/> Jews	Weak "republican monarchy," with real power held by a powerful landed gentry. The people were mainly downtrodden peasant serfs. Only Poles and Lithuanian landowners were admitted to diets.	Divided and subdivided: <input type="checkbox"/> Roman Catholic <input type="checkbox"/> Protestant: Further divided into Calvinist and Lutheran <input type="checkbox"/> Greek Orthodox	<input type="checkbox"/> Poland became isolated from western Europe during this period: oriented north and east in trade and foreign relations. <input type="checkbox"/> Due to efforts of Jesuits and Roman Catholic missionaries, Roman Catholicism emerged as the dominant religion.
<b>RUSSIA</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> Muscovites <input type="checkbox"/> Tartars <input type="checkbox"/> Slavs <input type="checkbox"/> Mongols <input type="checkbox"/> Jews <input type="checkbox"/> Others	From Ivan the Terrible on, tsars held absolute rule, with a bureaucratic nobility who served the tsar at his pleasure, and a virtually enslaved peasantry.	Russian Orthodoxy predominated; at first, clergy were bullied by tsars into supporting their autocratic rule. Later, during the Time of Troubles, the church was the one stable institution and gained power.	<input type="checkbox"/> Ivan the Terrible ruled from 1533-1584. <input type="checkbox"/> In the "Time of Troubles" (1584-1613) the nobles rebelled against the tsars. <input type="checkbox"/> From 1667-1671, Russia saw the largest popular uprising of the century.
<b>SWEDEN</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> Fins <input type="checkbox"/> Estonians <input type="checkbox"/> Latvians <input type="checkbox"/> Russians <input type="checkbox"/> Poles <input type="checkbox"/> Germans	Peasant farmers were strong and independent. They owned half of the land and had significant civil liberties and political power. Nobles were correspondingly less rich and powerful.	People became solid Lutheran Protestants through struggles with Catholic Poland and Orthodox Russia.	Gustavus Adolphus (who ruled from 1611-1632) became the Protestant hero of the Thirty Years' War. In 1632, his army defeated the Imperial army at Breitenfeld, the most decisive battle of the war.

<b>AUSTRIA (HAPSBURGS)</b>	<input type="checkbox"/> Germans <input type="checkbox"/> Slavs <input type="checkbox"/> Jews	A collection of thirteen separate provinces (amounting to small states) governed and administrated separately. The Hapsburgs had no desire to unite them; rather they played them off against one another.	There were eight religious creeds distributed among the thirteen provinces. Over this period, the predominant religion became Roman Catholicism.	Austria developed vigorously during this period. One major event was the defeat of the Turks in 1699, when they surrendered lands in Hungary, Transylvania, Slavonia, and Croatia to Austria.
<b>BRANDENBURG-PRUSSIA (HOENZOLLERNS)</b>	Predominantly Germanic people	The original holdings of Frederick William, the Great Elector, were spread out in three remote regions. His standing army yielded the unexpected benefits of a strong bureaucracy, development of industries, and centralized government.	People were staunchly Lutheran, though the Great Elector was Calvinist.	Frederick William (the Great Elector) ruled from 1640-1688. He was a creative and energetic leader who laid the foundation of the modern, united German state of Prussia, which eventually united all of Germany in 1871.

3. Summarize the Thirty Years' War by answering these questions:

- When did it occur?  
It was a series of conflicts that raged from 1618-1648.
- Who were the main combatants, and why were they fighting?  
Protestants in Bohemia, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, and some German states fought (mostly) Roman Catholic potentates (and their agents) for a variety of reasons. Often the reasons were religious; sometimes, the conflicts were wars of aggression or territorial disputes. (This is a messy war; there was no one, unified reason for the fighting.) As you can see from the background notes, this war progressed in stages which saw differing combatants and differing motives. If you feel it is necessary, you can use the World Book article on pages 36-37 to go through the details with students.
- In what regions was this war waged?  
The majority of battles took place on German soil, even though in most cases the German peoples were not the major combatants.
- How severe were casualties during this war?  
Amazingly costly. Whole cities, villages, and farms had disappeared, and much property had been destroyed. Art, science, trade, and industry declined. It took almost 200 years for the German territories to recover from the effects of the war.
- What treaty resolved it, and what were the conditions of settlement?  
The Peace of Westphalia, in 1648, ended this series of conflicts on much the same terms as the Peace of Augsburg had decided it years before. Each prince could decide the religion for his own territory. New features were that France acquired Alsace and Lorraine; and Sweden got control of the mouths of the Oder, Elbe, and Weser rivers. Also as a result of the treaty, Calvinism was put on an equal footing with Catholicism and Lutheranism.

4. The Age of Reason is a major thread that begins in this unit. It started with the advent of the Scientific Revolution. In *The Age of Religious Wars, 1559-1715*, Dunn explains in a clear way the "before and after" ideas about the cosmos, the nature of substances, and the physics between the medieval mindset and the post-Galileo mindset (see pages 199-208). Draw students out to see if they can compare and contrast these two worldviews.

- Aristotle and Ptolemy, both ancient thinkers and "scientists," were the chief ancient authorities for the medieval view of the world and how it worked.
  - Aristotle was the undisputed authority on mechanics. His *Physics* taught that all heavenly bodies naturally fell toward the center of the universe.
  - Additionally, all earthly substances had one of four natures: earth, air, fire, and water. Each of these elements could exist singly or in compounds, and each lent specific natures to those substances they made up. For example, we can know that tree leaves have fire as part of their makeup because they turn red in the fall, which is consistent with the nature of fire.
  - Corresponding to these four elements were four humors (or fluids): melancholy, phlegm, blood, and choler. The goal of medieval medical practices was to keep these humors in proper balance.

- Ptolemy supplied the authoritative cosmology: earth was the unmoving center of the universe. It was heavy and at rest, having fallen as far as it could. All of the heavenly bodies (sun, moon, and stars) were embedded in concentric, clear spheres made of ether. These were interconnected, and moved in perfect, circular motion around the earth, powered by the outermost sphere, the *primum mobile*.
  - In the late Middle Ages, when these ancient writers were rediscovered and popularized, they had posed a serious threat to the authority of Christian teachings. As we learned in Week 8, Thomas Aquinas was one of the chief (but not only) men who syncretized (joined together, enmeshed) Aristotle's physics and Ptolemy's cosmology with Christian teachings. Thus, for instance, medieval men saw the earth as being heavy with sin. Because of this fact, the earth stood unmoving at the lowest place of the universe. The *primum mobile* turned for the love of God, and because it was the highest and most remote place next to heaven it was therefore the abode of the most powerful angels. After this synchronization, to strike at Aristotelian or Ptolemaic theories was to hit at the authority of the Roman Catholic Church.
5. Ask students to explain how Galileo's discoveries powerfully changed men's minds about the world and challenged the authority of the Roman Catholic Church.
- Galileo's observations of the heavenly bodies directly challenged Ptolemy's assertion that the heavenly bodies were perfect and perfectly regular. Such observations as moon mountains, sun spots, and the rings of Jupiter were incontrovertible proof (convincing people) and intolerable threats to Roman Catholic Church leaders, who forced Galileo to recant.
  - Kepler's mathematical formulas, based on the theories of Copernicus and observations of Tycho Brahe, elegantly explained the elliptical orbits of heavenly bodies and also disagreed with Ptolemy's assertion of perfectly circular planetary motion. The mounting evidence of Copernicus, Galileo, and Kepler finally led people to accept the assertion that the earth went around the sun. This view threw off the whole medieval and Roman Catholic complex hierarchy of a universe that displayed the glory of God by being centered on the corrupted, heavy, fallen dwelling place of sinful mankind.
  - Note the fact that scientific activities were much better tolerated and even supported in Protestant states than in Roman Catholic ones.

### 2<sup>nd</sup> Hour: Analyze various aspects of the first permanent English settlement in America.

NOTE: For those new to *Tapestry*, beginning in Unit 2, some discussion scripts will contain additional analytical questions. The goal of these questions will be to give students practice in skillful argumentation and persuasion. For dialectic students (and for rhetoric students who have never had training in formal logic or debate), we will be working on steadily and purposefully building their debating skills. If you are new to *Tapestry*, you should explain to your students that we have this goal and then proceed somewhat slowly, since at first the *method* will be more important than the *content*.

1. Summarize the settlement of Jamestown by answering these questions:
- When was Jamestown founded, and by whom?  
*1607 by adventurers sponsored by the Virginia Company of London.*
  - What were the main obstacles the Englishmen had to overcome in colonizing Jamestown?  
*Starvation due to a combination of sloth, conflicts, and lack of local farming crops or conditions. Hostility from Native Americans. Unwise focus on quick riches from finding gold, silver, and precious stones. Lack of unity and industry among the colonists.*
  - Who were the key leaders of the colony, and what did they each contribute?
    - John Smith was the first to really help the colonists to shape up. He showed great courage and resourcefulness, and imposed strict (if unpopular) discipline. He also recruited new colonists and support from England by writing a book about Jamestown.*
    - Lord De La Warr was a sincere Christian who governed wisely and in the fear of God. However, his tenure was short.*
    - John Rolfe was at first a colonist, then a publicist, and is credited for introducing tobacco as a cash crop to Jamestown settlers.*
  - When were slaves introduced into Jamestown? How were they treated?  
*In 1619, the first slaves came to Virginia. They were treated as bondsmen, not as chattel slaves, meaning they were allowed to earn their freedom after a set period of labor.*
  - What key crop brought prosperity and longevity to Jamestown?  
*Tobacco.*

2. Discuss the goals of those who sent the Jamestown colonists and the goals of the colonists themselves in moving to the New World.
- Student resources stressed the fact that these colonists were sent by a joint stock company (the London Company) and that the hopes of both the senders and the travelers was for quick profit. The company and the colonists expected to realize profits through either the collection of precious metals and stones or the discovery of a northwest passage to Asia.*
  - Read Proverbs 16:9: "In his heart a man plans his course, but the LORD determines his steps." The colonists and the London Company thought they were going to get rich quick when they embarked on the business of colonizing the New World. Instead, they ended up furthering God's purposes for populating America with Englishmen (and their religious heritage). What was deemed an utter failure by 1624 (and abandoned by the London Company when Virginia became a royal colony) was part of God's good plan for His purposes and His glory.
3. Discuss the relationship between the character of the colonists and the course of events in Jamestown using the points below.
- How did the colonists' character affect the success or failure of Jamestown as a whole during its first ten years?  
*More than half of the colonists who went to Jamestown were "gentlemen adventurers" who were looking for riches or adventure (or both). They were quick to quarrel and slow to work, and they did not possess the skills or self-discipline equal to the tasks of survival and self-government. As a result, many of the colonists perished under horrible circumstances.*
  - Discuss John Smith's character. Do students think he was qualified to lead Jamestown? (A follow-up question might be, "If not, why do you think God allowed him to do so?")  
*Answers will vary; see page 43, question 7 of the dialectic-level outline for details on this point.*
  - Today, many want to divorce the fruits of personal character (such as adultery or drug use) and public leadership roles (such as President and congressman). What lessons from Jamestown speak to this issue?
    - Students may answer that John Smith's character was not admirable but that God nevertheless used him as a strong and able leader. Point out that though God did use Smith despite Smith's faults, it was John Smith's strength of character that made him capable of leading selfish, indolent men to work and persevere.*
    - Students might similarly note the complexity of the settlement situation. Lord De La Warr, whom World Book labels as "harsh and strict but [successful] in bringing order," also "arrived in 1610 as the colony teetered on the brink of collapse, [and] his first action was to organize a worship service in order to issue a biblical call for sacrifice and industry."<sup>1</sup> He went on to succeed as the first governor of the colony.*
    - Alternately, students may focus on the connection between the weak and ruinous condition of Jamestown before the intervention of Smith that resulted from the self-centered, indolent behavior of the colonists. If this point is brought up, focus on the treasure-seeking attitudes (of both the senders and those sent) and the colonists' refusal to do manual labor that was "beneath" them. In 2 Thessalonians 3:10, Paul says, "For even when we were with you, we gave you this rule: If a man will not work, he shall not eat."*

NOTE: Next week, we will contrast the colonists in Jamestown with the colonists in Plymouth in terms of personal integrity, goals, motives for colonizing, and overall results of their efforts. Therefore, you may want to make points that will be reviewed during or tied into next week's study. Alternately, focus on Jamestown issues this week and make broader spiritual applications next week.

4. Define the term, "Providence."
- Ask students, "Should we only use this term when God is doing things that we like? What is the scriptural support for the word?"  
*Providence (literally to "see before") is that "guiding hand" or "supportive sovereignty" that quietly orders all things for God's glory and our good. People often say that an unexpected, good event is "providential," but students should realize that all events (pleasant or unpleasant) are the outworking of Providence. Romans 8:28 says that "in all things God works for the good of those who love him, who have been called according to his purpose." Also reference James 1:2-4.*
  - What specific events in the story of Jamestown obviously show God's Providence at work?  
*Answers will vary. Students might mention:*
    - The ironic fact that although the company and colonists only desired to search for riches in the New World, they ended up building a new nation instead.*

<sup>1</sup> Mark A. Noll. *A Christian History of the United States and Canada* (Grand Rapids: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing, 2000) 36-37.

- The times when Native Americans saved colonists from starvation.*
- Events from John Smith's adventurous life, including the incident with Pocahontas and his leadership role in saving Jamestown from ruin.*
- The arrival of Lord De La Warr just as the colonists had finally given up and were ready to set sail for home.*

5. We should not become too moralistic in our discussion times. We can easily relate to the feelings of both the company leaders and the colonists. Surely these people were disappointed at their “failure” to achieve temporal goals. You may want to take this opportunity to discuss an eternal evaluation of success or failure in biblical terms.
- Proverbs 16:3 says, “Commit to the LORD whatever you do, and your plans will succeed.” Did all “disappointed” colonists commit their way to God, or were they leaning on their own understanding?
  - God was bringing His purposes about through them; they might have been encouraged by Scriptures like Isaiah 46:10-11 (below) if their hearts had been truly set on things besides personal gain or status.

I make known the end from the beginning,  
from ancient times, what is still to come.

I say: My purpose will stand,  
and I will do all that I please.

From the east I summon a bird of prey;  
from a far-off land, a man to fulfill my purpose.

What I have said, that will I bring about;  
what I have planned, that will I do.

- Most “adventurers” probably considered themselves Christians. If they were, they should not have been truly disappointed, as 2 Corinthians 4:16-18 reminds us:

Therefore we do not lose heart. Though outwardly we are wasting away, yet inwardly we are being renewed day by day. For our light and momentary troubles are achieving for us an eternal glory that far outweighs them all. So we fix our eyes not on what is seen, but on what is unseen. For what is seen is temporary, but what is unseen is eternal.

- We must admit that it isn't pleasant to go through trials, and often we can't see God's purposes as we are walking through them. But God does not promise to enlighten us; He simply asks that we trust Him, even in the midst of pain and trouble (see Job 38-40; 1 Peter 1:6-7 and 4:12-13; and James 1:2-4).

## LITERATURE: LOWER LEVEL QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

### Answers to Lower Grammar Worksheet on *Pocahontas*



You may need to help your young student define some terms before completing the worksheet.

1. *Nonfiction*
2. *Biography*

Answers can vary slightly for the student's sentences describing his pictures. Just make sure that your student's sentences match his illustrations.

Beginning: *Pocahontas is very young and pretty. She spends her days mostly playing.*

Middle: *Pocahontas takes John Smith's head in her arms and saves him from death.*

End: *Pocahontas is known as Lady Rebecca and is invited to the palace.*



### Answers to Upper Grammar Worksheet for *William Bradford, Pilgrim Boy*

Note to your student that when and where the chapter (or story) takes place is called the “setting.” The events that happen in a chapter (or story) are called its “plot.” Answers can vary slightly.

#### Chapter “William Gets a Gift”

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

*The main characters are William Bradford, the grandfather, and his grandson, also named William Bradford.*

Where and when does this chapter take place?

*The chapter opens in Austerfield, England in 1596.*

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

*A new lamb is born and young William names her Mercy. Grandfather explains to William what a “will” and a “yeoman” are.*

NOTE: Read and discuss Psalm 23 with your student.

#### Chapter “Grandfather Bradford”

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

*William, his mother, and his grandfather are the initial characters in this chapter. As the chapter progresses, other characters introduced are William's sister (Alice), Mrs. Witherbee, Uncle Thomas, Uncle Robert, Aunt Alice, and cousins, Tom and Jane.*

Where and when does this chapter take place?

*This chapter opens in the middle of a summer night, three months after the first chapter. The chapter itself takes place over the course of a number of days, in several different homes.*

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

*In the middle of a storm, William goes outside to check on Mercy. The next morning, Grandfather awakens with a cough, and eventually he dies. William moves to his mother's house, but then she dies as well. William then moves back into Grandfather's house, where Uncle Robert and Aunt Alice now live.*

#### Chapter “Mercy Loses Her Coat”

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

*Uncle Robert, Aunt Alice, William, Alice, Tom, Jane, and John Bidwell all play a role in this chapter.*

Where and when does this chapter take place?

*Most of this chapter's events take place in the spring during lambing time at the farm.*

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

*Your student may list one or more accounts of how William is treated unfairly by his aunt and uncle. Additionally, William and Tom play “Robin Hood.” Later, sheep are sheared, and William holds Mercy during her shearing.*

NOTE: If you wish to review the story of Robin Hood, look at assignments from Weeks 6 and 7.

#### Chapter “The Fair at Doncaster”

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

*Uncle Robert, Aunt Alice, William, Alice, Tom, and Jane are the main characters in this chapter. Minor characters include the thief, the officer, and various people working at the fair.*

Where and when does this chapter take place?

*This chapter takes place at Doncaster at the fair, which lasts for three days.*

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

*The family travels to the fair. Once there, they need to have their wool weighed before it is sold. A thief steals the wool, but is apprehended, and the wool is then sold. Because William shows responsibility, his uncle gives him a couple of pennies to spend. William takes in many of the interesting sights, but ends up spending his money on a doll for Alice.*

#### Chapter “Lost Sheep”

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

*The primary characters in this chapter are William and Uncle Robert. The schoolmaster, Mr. Johnson, is introduced.*

Where and when does this chapter take place?

*The story takes place when William is eight years old, although no specific date is given. About half of the chapter takes place in the moor, and the other half takes place in the school in Rossington.*

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

*William is supposed to be watching the sheep in the moor, but he ends up focusing more on reading his grandfather's Bible. After William gets pneumonia, Uncle Robert decides to let him attend school. While at school, William quickly learns the purpose of the stick that Mr. Johnson keeps under his arm. Walking three miles each way to school isn't a deterrent to William because he is learning to read.*

To complete orally: **Chapter “A New Friend”**

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

Main characters include those previously introduced, as well as William’s new friends: Samuel White and Timothy Small.

Where and when does this chapter take place?

Primarily, the chapter takes place at school when William is ten years old, but a small segment does take place at the farmhouse.

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

William begins to help Samuel learn how to read and the two become friends. Tom begins to attend school, much to his dismay. One student, Timothy, runs out of ink and William shares with him.

To complete orally: **Chapter “Robin Hood’s Forest”**

Who are the main characters in this chapter?

William, Sam White, and Tom interact with Richard Clyfton and William Brewster. A minor character is the beggar, whom the boys encounter in the forest.

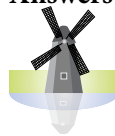
Where and when does this chapter take place?

The reader is clued in as to the amount of time that has passed by the fact that William is now twelve years old. The chapter opens on a warm spring day, and takes place over the course of a couple of days, at the church in Babworth and in a nearby forest.

Give a short summary of what happens in this chapter.

William and Sam plan a trip to the forest after church on a Sunday. Tom finds out and goes along with the boys. William enjoys hearing about God from Mr. Clyfton and is introduced to William Brewster. The boys have a fun adventure in the forest until they are approached by a beggar, who wants their food and some clothing.

#### Answers to Dialectic Worksheet for *Almost Home*



Your student has been asked to journal responses to four different phrases given on his worksheet. Check his answers and listen to any further explanation he may give you. Any answer is acceptable, provided he has done a thorough job.

#### LITERATURE: RHETORIC DISCUSSION OUTLINE

Our only preparation suggestion for this week, besides our standard recommendation that you pre-read the discussion outlines for both Beginning and Continuing levels (regardless of which you intend to teach), is that you consider reading the Norton introduction to Miguel de Cervantes (found in *Western Literature Anthology* on pages 2217-2221).

#### Summary of *Don Quixote*

In Part I of *Don Quixote* we meet the hero, a somewhat elderly and impoverished Spanish gentleman from the region of La Mancha. He is “close on to fifty, of a robust constitution but with little flesh on his bones and a face that was lean and gaunt” (*Western Literature Anthology* 2226), and his surname is either Quijada or Quesada. Cervantes, after the usual manner of medieval authors, promises to tell the absolutely true and accurate history of this “ingenious” gentleman (who is completely fictional, so far as anyone has been able to discover).

Quijada lives with his housekeeper, his niece, and an errand boy. His great passion is for books of chivalrous romance, and as the story opens we learn that he has sold many acres of his estate in order to purchase these books. He pores over his volumes night and day until, they at last drive him mad and he comes to believe that their stories are literally true. Quijada then decides to become a knight-errant and go throughout the world righting wrongs, serving damsels, redressing grievances, and removing abuses. He chooses a new name for himself, “Don Quixote de la Mancha” (“Quixote” based on “Quijada,” “Don” meaning “Lord,” a title of respect, and “de la Mancha” meaning “from La Mancha”), and renames his broken-down barn nag “Rocinante” (which means “once a hack,” a hack being an ordinary riding horse). Having glorified himself and his horse, Quixote chooses a pretty farm girl whom he has long admired, changes her name from Aldonza Lorenzo to “Dulcinea del Toboso,” and calls her his lady.

Quixote gets out his great-grandfather’s ancient suit of armor, fashions a new part for his visorless helmet out of cardboard, mounts his broken-down horse, and rides out into the world without telling anybody where he is going. After riding all day without adventure, he is further depressed by the realization that he has not been formally knighted, and so has no right to challenge other knights to single combat. In the evening he comes upon an inn. After a few hilarious adventures occasioned by his mad mistakes, such as taking the inn for a castle and the innkeeper for its lord, he is knighted in a barnyard by the innkeeper. Quixote then goes home to fetch money and clean shirts.

What follows are various adventures involving Quixote and his “squire,” a poor and witless neighbor named Sancho Panza, whom Quixote persuades to join him by promising Sancho the governorship of an island (as soon as Quixote has won an island from the enemy knight whom they are sure to meet). The most famous episode is that of the windmills, wherein Quixote mistakes a group of windmills for giants and sets off to joust with them, getting knocked off his horse and badly battered in the process. After many more adventures that span the rest of Part I and all of Part II, Quixote finally arrives home for the last time.

At the end of his life, Quixote miraculously recovers from his lunacy and repudiates the tales of chivalry that drove him mad in the beginning of the story. Ironically, his entire household now so prefers his madness that they try to make him believe it was all true. Quixote, however, will have nothing of it and dies as a sane man in his own bed.

The subject for recitation or reading aloud this week is “The Golden Age Monologue” (*Western Literature Anthology*, p. 2261-2262), OR, for two people, “The Conversation between Don Quixote and Sancho Panza concerning Fierabrás’s Balm” (*Western Literature Anthology*, p. 2258, beginning with Sancho’s statement that he has never read any history, and ending with Don Quixote’s admission that his ear is hurting “more than I like”).

**Class-Opening Question or Comment:** What is the difference between prose and poetry?

- ❑ The most obvious difference between prose and poetry is a difference purely of *form*. Prose and poetry are arranged differently on the page. Whereas prose is displayed in units of sentences which make up paragraphs and fill a page up to the margins, poetry is arranged in units of lines that make up stanzas and usually do not fill a page. These lines may or may not break off in the middle of a sentence.
- ❑ This formal difference of arrangement on paper is a distinction that has been blurred a little over the course of the twentieth century, since we now have “prose poetry,” which looks just like prose on a page. However, the difference in form is still a good rule of thumb and holds true for all metrical poetry.
- ❑ Prose and poetry also differ in *content*, especially in their use of language. Though both ways of writing can tell a story, make an argument, or describe a person, place, or thing, their manners of doing it are fundamentally different. Poetry is the more condensed of the two—indeed one of the surest marks of poetry is that it uses the fewest possible words to make the greatest possible impact on the reader, usually by employing images or figures of speech or by using words in more than one sense.<sup>1</sup> Prose is more elongated. A prose description will use more words, and usually will use them more simply, than poetry.
- ❑ The last thing to notice about prose and poetry is that they are the two largest categories in literature. Every story, every play, every piece of imaginative literature and every written work that combines artistry and a theme must ultimately be categorized as either prose or poetry.

#### Beginning Level

Topic 1 is simply a short lecture on the life of Miguel de Cervantes, which you may choose to skip, if you wish. Topic 2 covers the interesting question, “What kind of work *is* this?” and includes a discussion of *Don Quixote*’s mode and genre. This topic will give your student a chance to review what he has learned about genres so far, and will hopefully bring him to a new level of thinking about literary categories. Topic 3 is intended to get at the themes of the work and Cervantes’s “main point” in writing it.

1. We suggest that you briefly review the following author description information for Miguel de Cervantes with your student. It is part of the Author Description Index available on the *Loom*. You may choose whether or not to have him copy it as part of his assignment for this week; however, if you plan to give your Beginning or Continuing student the Unit 2 Literature Exam, he should know that this author information is fair game for the test!

<sup>1</sup> Leland Ryken says that the distinction between prose and poetry is the latter’s “reliance on images and figures of speech,” and that poetry’s basic unit “is the individual image or figure of speech” (*Words of Delight* 159). We find that this an extremely helpful common distinction, but would not go so far as to make it the basis of differentiation between the two ways of writing, since (as Ryken notes) prose can also contain many images and figures of speech, and narrative poetry can relate many scenes and episodes (which Ryken considers as belonging specially to narrative prose). We would argue that the most basic differences between prose and poetry are their respective uses of language (uncompressed or compressed) and their units of arrangement (sentences and paragraphs or lines and stanzas).

Miguel de Cervantes—1547-1616<sup>1</sup>

- ❑ Cervantes wrote the following works: *La Galatea* (a prose pastoral romance published in 1585), followed by a number of plays; *Don Quixote* (first part published in 1605, second part published in 1615); *Novelas Ejemplares* (“Exemplary Novels,” published in 1613); *Journey to Parnassus* (a long poem published in 1614); *Eight Comedies and Eight Entremeses* (a collection of plays, including one-act comedies called *entremeses*, published in 1615); and finally, *Persiles and Sigismunda* (a romantic adventure novel published in 1617, after his death).<sup>2</sup>
  - ❑ According to Norton, little is known about Cervantes’s early life. He was born late in the Renaissance era, in Alcalá de Henares, a university town near Madrid. His father was an apothecary (a pharmacist). We know almost nothing about his youth, though he may have studied formally under a humanist scholar from Madrid named Juan López.
  - ❑ At the age of 23, it seems likely that Cervantes was living in Rome, in the service of a future cardinal. We know that he enlisted in the Spanish fleet and fought against the Turks. At 24, he fought valiantly in the important Battle of Lepanto (1571). Cervantes was wounded by three gunshots in that battle, one of which permanently damaged his left hand. He served four more years in the military and saw further battles, but set out to return to Spain in 1575 with his brother Rodrigo.
  - ❑ Cervantes’s ship was captured by pirates on the way to Spain, and the brothers were held prisoner at Algiers for five years. Miguel repeatedly tried to escape, but at last he was ransomed by Hassan Pasha, viceroy of Algiers, who apparently admired his daring. Cervantes finally reached home in the winter of 1580, now 33 years old.
  - ❑ The adventurous soldier then settled down, more or less. Between 1580 and 1597 he fathered an illegitimate daughter, married (not his child’s mother, but another woman eighteen years younger than himself, named Catalina de Salazar), took and was dismissed from several government posts, and began a literary career, at first highly unsuccessful, since his first twenty or thirty plays and pastoral romance *Galatea* seem to have gone unnoticed.
  - ❑ In 1605, at the age of 58, Cervantes published the first part of *Don Quixote*. It was an immediate success but did not make its author rich. Later, prompted by another author’s false sequel to his work, Cervantes wrote the second part of the story and published it in 1615.
  - ❑ Cervantes died on the same day as Shakespeare, April 23, 1616. His last work, *Persiles and Sigismunda*, was published the year after his death.
2. Ask students which mode(s) and genre(s) best describe *Don Quixote*. (Student Question #1)
- ❑ Is *Don Quixote* romantic or realistic in mode?
    - ❑ Don Quixote’s mode is probably best defined as realistic, since no supernatural forces actually enter the story and the hero is not presented in a glorified form. However, though the mode is realistic, this story constantly touches on the romantic mode and characteristics of the romance genre in order to mock them.
    - ❑ As we said in Week 1, literary realism focuses on presenting the world as it usually is—or as it usually seems to our earthly senses. Literary romance focuses on presenting the world as it is when supernatural forces are at work—forces of which we are usually unaware. Romance sometimes also presents a picture of the world as it would be if we imagined a particular supernatural force (which does not actually exist) to be at work.
    - ❑ Literary realism also tends to present human beings as they ordinarily are, with ordinary strengths and weaknesses, whereas literary romance presents them in glorified form (heroic) or in vilified form (evil or even demonic).
    - ❑ The Norton introduction to Cervantes comments that in *Don Quixote* we have a “mingling”—“On the one hand much of the book has the color and intonation of the world of medieval chivalry as its poets had portrayed it.... On the other hand the chivalric world is continuously jostled by elements of contemporary life... the realities of landscape and speech, peasants and nobles, inns and highways. So the author can draw on two sources, roughly the realistic and the romantic... practical facts and lofty values” (*Western Literature Anthology* 2218).
    - ❑ We might say that *Don Quixote* is like the Bible in that it includes both romantic and realistic elements. It is very much *unlike* the Bible, however, in that it overtly declares those romantic elements and “high ide-

<sup>1</sup> Unless otherwise noted, details and quotes about Cervantes’s life are extracted from the *Norton Anthology of Western Literature*, Vol. 1, 2217-2220.

<sup>2</sup> This information about Cervantes’s works is from a *World Book* article entitled *Miguel de Cervantes*. Contributor: Harry Sieber, Ph.D., Professor of Spanish, Johns Hopkins University.

als” to be insane, rather than insisting—as the Bible does—that we must live our lives in this world according to the standards of the supernatural world.

- ❑ Which genre(s) best describe *Don Quixote*?
  - ❑ Don Quixote is primarily a satire in the realistic mode. Its overt purpose (according to Cervantes) is to undermine and expose the follies of chivalric romances.
  - ❑ Many genres have been suggested as a “best fit” for *Don Quixote*. Some call it simply an unusual romance. Some call it an early version of the novel. We would argue that it is primarily a satire because it does not sincerely agree with the characteristic content (themes and ideals) of romance, but instead holds them up to be ridiculed.
  - ❑ We also argue that it is a satire because of Cervantes’s own statement of his purpose in the *Prologue* to Part I of *Don Quixote*. He said, speaking to himself through a “friend’s” advice, “Let it be your aim that, by reading your story, the melancholy may be moved to laughter and the cheerful man made merrier still; let the simple not be bored, but may the clever admire your originality; let the grave ones not despise you, but let the prudent praise you. And keep in mind, above all, your purpose, which is that of undermining the ill-founded edifice that is constituted by these books of chivalry, so abhorred by many but admired by many more; if you succeed in attaining it, you will have accomplished no little” (*Western Literature Anthology* 2225, emphasis ours). In order to “undermine” the “books of chivalry,” Cervantes uses the form of satire.
  - ❑ Satire, which we studied in some depth in Week 9, is intended to expose, through ridicule or rebuke, human vices and follies (*Words of Delight* 517). According to Ryken, it must have an object of attack (in this case the “pulp romances” of Cervantes’s time) and a “satiric norm” or standard of correct values. (Here the overt satiric norm is the “real world” that exists around Don Quixote, which he—in his madness—ignores.) A satire usually has also a satiric tone (which *Don Quixote* certainly does), and a satiric vehicle (in this case the vehicle of a story).<sup>1</sup>
  - ❑ Satire accomplishes its chief objective of ridiculing human vice or folly by persuading the reader that the object which is being held up to ridicule is actually ridiculous and deserves condemnation. The immediate effect is scorn, disgust, or contempt for the object under attack.
  - ❑ Norton explains why Cervantes would want to satirize romances: “In those long yarns [romances]—which had to do with the Carolingian and Arthurian legends and which were full of supernatural deeds of valor, implausible and complicated adventures, duels, and enchantments—the literature that had expressed the medieval spirit of chivalry and romance had degenerated to the same extent to which, in our day, certain conventions of romantic literature have degenerated in “pulp” fiction and film melodrama. Up to a point, then, what Cervantes set out to do was to produce a parody, a caricature of a literary type” (*Western Literature Anthology* 2218).
  - ❑ We studied a beautiful romance in Week 10—*Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*—but that romance was one of the best produced by the Middle Ages. In the two hundred years between its writing and Cervantes’s time, romances had “degenerated” into something like the “chick flick” movies and soap operas that we know today which are disparaged by many but still watched by many more. These romances simply cried out to be satirized—and Cervantes did so, brilliantly.
  - ❑ Mockery of conventional romances is evident throughout *Don Quixote*, as for example when the Don explains to a fellow traveler that it is absolutely unheard-of for any knight to be lacking a lady-love (*Western Literature Anthology* 2272). One cannot really be a knight, Quixote says, unless one is completely devoted to a lady. In this conversation Don Quixote is perfectly serious, but Cervantes is poking fun at a convention of romance whereby it seems that every knight has his lady, just as nowadays we cannot imagine a superhero who has no girlfriend to rescue. And this is one example of many—Cervantes continually parodies and mocks common elements of chivalric romances such as dwarfs, elixirs which can heal any wound, enchantments, knights who stay up all night thinking of their ladies yet never seem to need to sleep, and on and on. The most famous episode, in which Quixote mistakes windmills for giants and tries to joust against them, is only one more instance of Cervantes’s satiric wit, ridiculing the grandiose exploits of knights.
  - ❑ It would appear—from these examples and others—that Cervantes is indeed pursuing satire and does in fact accomplish his intended goal. He cheers and amuses; he displays his originality and wins the regard of the prudent (who certainly don’t believe in the all this “romantic nonsense”); and he succeeds in holding the chivalric romances of his time up to ridicule through the genre of satire.

<sup>1</sup> These four characteristics of satire are taken from *Words of Delight* 329-330.

3. Discuss with your student Cervantes's values and views of morality and reality. What does he think Cervantes is saying through the experiment in living of his hero? (Student Question #2)
- ❑ *Answers will vary. Below are some points which may help your student.*
  - ❑ In Part I it would seem that Cervantes's values are largely the same as those of the sane people surrounding Don Quixote. Reality has nothing to do with the giants and magicians of Quixote's madness, but consists instead of the everyday Spanish countryside. Right and wrong are determined according to a Christian worldview (in theory), but in practice also according to the everyday (frequently sinful) pressures of life "in the real world." Real money, real relationships, and a prudent awareness of "how to get on in life" are the things that are valued. Quixote's mad ideals have no value in the eyes of others, and his experiment in living by them ends only in his being brought home, broken and battered, to recover from his mental illness. The experiment in Part I ends badly, and so we can probably conclude that Cervantes is not supporting Quixote's chivalric ideals.
  - ❑ By the end of Part II, we may begin to ask whether the satiric tone of the author has softened so much that he is actually beginning to praise the same qualities that he set out to ridicule. For example, in the episode in which Don Quixote fights the Knight of the White Moon and loses to him, this insane knight-errant is touching in his steadfastness to his lady, Dulcinea, for whose sake he fought. "Dulcinea del Toboso is the most beautiful woman in the world," he says, lying battered on the ground for having defended his boast of her beauty, "and I the most unhappy knight upon the face of this earth. It is not right that my weakness should serve to defraud the truth. Drive home your lance, O knight, and take my life since you already have deprived me of my honor" (*Western Literature Anthology* 2340). The reader cannot help but admire Don Quixote's faithfulness.
  - ❑ The madman's experiment in living, however, ends no better in Part II than it did in Part I. Though Cervantes perhaps increasingly portrays Don Quixote's ideals in a touching light, they finally destroy him. We regret the hilarious and sometimes moving acts of the madman, and so when Don Quixote becomes sane again for a little while just before his death we regret his madness. However, if we could keep the madness of his chivalric ideals with us after Quixote is cold in the grave, we would not want to do so. Our values have not changed because of his pursuit of chivalry, except that we now have a value for lovable idiots. Our morals certainly have not changed, and we never came to believe (as Sancho did) that all Don Quixote's stories were true.
  - ❑ This experiment in living produces only death; therefore we do not take Quixote's example seriously as a model for living. The madman made us fond of his madness, not the other way round. Thus we may mourn the sweet, senile old fellow whose many books drove him to such amusing excesses, and whose legacy is the creation of a new word, "quixotic," but we certainly do not intend to live according to his example.

#### Continuing Level

Even for Continuing students, this week is lighter than usual. If you would like, you may further lighten it by letting your student read Cervantes's author information in the Author Description Index (on the *Loom*) instead of reviewing it in class. Topics 2-3 are important for this week, so we suggest that you go over them in some detail. Topics 4 and 5 are relatively less important (in the sense that your student can read them on his own if time is short), but we believe that your Continuing student will benefit from a slightly more sophisticated level of discussion about connections between Cervantes's own life and *Don Quixote* (topic 4), and about the subtleties of theme in this unusual satire (topic 5).

4. Ask students what connections they see between Cervantes's life and his literary work that might explain why he wrote *Don Quixote*, or what would have prepared him to produce such a story. (Student Question #3)
- ❑ We should notice that Cervantes himself was acquainted with adventure, battle, prison, and travel, and that he appears to have been a brave fighter. In all probability, he wrote *Don Quixote* in his fifties, after his own "glory days," and wrote in relative poverty, so that his situation was closely parallel to that of Quixote himself. Note also that in *Don Quixote*, Cervantes is mocking the romance form with which he had so little success in his early literary efforts (*Galatea*, for example).
  - ❑ From these points we can draw a few observations:
    - ❑ First, we can see that Cervantes himself was acquainted with the harsh and dirty realities of "adventure" so that he was able to produce the "realistic" quality that we find in *Don Quixote*, and to make a brilliant contrast throughout the work between what Quixote *imagines* is going on, and what really goes on in the world. Cervantes's account of Quixote's courage and ferocity in battle also has an autobiographical touch, since Cervantes himself was apparently a brave soldier.
    - ❑ Second, we can see how well Cervantes understood the mind of an aging man with little money and much imagination, who was looking back on an adventurous past with perhaps nostalgic remembrances and to-

wards the future with possibly a desire for one last chance at immortal fame. It is not difficult to see where Cervantes got the core attributes of the "ingenious gentleman" of La Mancha.

- ❑ Finally, we can observe the seeds of satire in Cervantes's own failed attempts to write romances. It is almost as if he said to himself in amused disgust one day, "Well, if I cannot write romances that anybody will read, I can at least be original, clever, and entertaining by mocking and parodying the form. *That would be something new!*"
  - ❑ It is not difficult at all to draw plausible connections between *Don Quixote* and Cervantes, though Cervantes alone knows how far these conjectures are true. However, it is a good exercise for your student to practice thinking about the ways in which authors are linked to their works and how works get their shape and substance from authors. This topic is intended to help your student do so.
5. Is Cervantes really making fun of chivalry, or does he seem to be subtly supporting it? If he is supporting a chivalric worldview, can we say that *Don Quixote* isn't really a satire? (Student Question #4)
- ❑ *Cervantes is not supporting a chivalric worldview so much as he is supporting a sympathetic character, namely Don Quixote. Because Cervantes mocks the conventions of romances throughout both Part I and Part II, we can still say that Don Quixote is a satire. However, we find that there is a transition between Part I and Part II from mostly satire of romances to a more gentle and sympathetic account of Don Quixote's deeds.*
  - ❑ In topic 2 we said that *Don Quixote* declares the supernatural elements and "lofty ideals" of romance to be insane and impractical, but in topic 3, we got a hint that Cervantes's parody of chivalric values might not perhaps have been quite so mocking as one would expect from a satire whose overt purpose is to ridicule and "undermine" chivalric romances. In places, Cervantes seems even to suggest—a little wistfully—that a world ruled by selfish ambition and vain conceit might be better off if a few more people were totally committed to righting wrongs, establishing justice, practicing courtesy, and serving their neighbors. Think for example of Don Quixote's "Golden Age" soliloquy in Part I (*Western Literature Anthology* 2261-2262).
  - ❑ Then again, it is quite possible that Cervantes is not supporting the ideals of chivalric romance so much as he is promoting the pleasure of reading about Don Quixote the madman. As Don Antonio says in Part II to Sansón Carrasco (also called the Knight of the White Moon, who has found a way to make Don Quixote give up knight-errantry for awhile), "My dear sir... may God forgive you for the wrong you have done the world by seeking to deprive it of its most charming madman! Do you not see that the benefit accomplished by restoring Don Quixote to his senses can never equal the pleasure which others derive from his vagaries?" (*Western Literature Anthology* 2342).
  - ❑ Whatever his satirical purpose may be, Cervantes made it perfectly clear in his first *Prologue* (topic 2) that he intended to please his audience. The madman is charming; we would be sorry to lose the enjoyment of reading about his droll exploits; we *are* sorry to lose those enjoyments when he dies. But Cervantes is not trying to persuade us to follow Don Quixote's example, and our sorrow at his death does not mean that we subscribe to his ideals.
  - ❑ Perhaps it would do most justice to the complexity of *Don Quixote* to say that, though in Part I Cervantes satirically attacks the *abuses* of the chivalric romance genre—the improbabilities, exaggerations, and unnecessary nonsense of poorly-written chivalric stories—he heartily affirms the pleasure afforded by the sight of a man who tries to live "in the here and now" according to them, and emphasizes the touching faithfulness and sincerity of the madman more and more as the story progresses.
  - ❑ Coming in the wake of a decade of *Don Quixote*'s amazing popularity, Part II had perhaps grown beyond satire and acquired a new focus. We might say that in Part II the story revolves much less around a satire of romances and much more around Don Quixote himself, that most lovable of madmen, whom, if Cervantes wishes to mock at all, he wants to mock gently, to laugh *with* the Don rather than *at* him, and to make us love him. By the time we reach Don Quixote's deathbed, we may love the old madman so much that we can say with Don Antonio (though we say it to Cervantes), "My dear sir... may God forgive you for the wrong you have done the world by seeking to deprive it of its most charming madman!"

#### Defining Terms

This week your student has been asked to make cards for some literary vocabulary terms, which have been given to him with definitions. Please check his cards.

**GEOGRAPHY: BACKGROUND INFORMATION****World Book on Geographic Features of the East Coast of America**<sup>1</sup>

[The] **Piedmont Region**, pronounced PEED mahnt, is an area of gently rolling to hilly land lying between the Appalachian Mountains and the **Atlantic Coastal Plain** of the United States. It is sometimes called the **Piedmont Plateau**. It was named for the Piedmont region in Italy. It varies in width from about 50 miles in the north to more than 125 miles in the south.

The division between the Piedmont Region and the Coastal Plain is marked by the **Fall Line** for the rivers flowing toward the Atlantic Ocean. Along this line, streams from the west drop from the harder, rocky ground near the mountains to the softer Coastal Plain.

Many large cities have developed along the Fall Line, partly because of the access to water power and tidewater. They include Newark, N.J.; Philadelphia; Washington, D.C.; Richmond, Va.; and Columbia, S.C.

The Piedmont Region covers about 80,000 square miles. It ranges in elevation from 300 feet above sea level on the east to 1,200 feet on the west.

[Today,] tobacco is widely grown in the Piedmont Region. The Piedmont section of Virginia and Pennsylvania is fine apple-growing country. The dairy industry is important in the northern Piedmont. Furniture manufacturing is a major industry in the central Piedmont. The southern Piedmont is the leading U.S. cotton-textile producing area.

**World Book on the Atlantic Coastal Plain**<sup>2</sup>

The **Atlantic Coastal Plain** extends eastward from the Piedmont to the Atlantic Ocean. It ranges from a narrow strip of land in New England to a broad belt that covers much of North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. In colonial times, the broad southern part of the plain encouraged the development of huge plantations for growing cotton. Cotton is still grown there. Other farm products include vegetables, citrus fruits, peanuts, and tobacco. In New England, where the plain narrows to a width of about 10 miles in some places, crop farming has always been less important. Many New Englanders turned to manufacturing, fishing, or shipping instead of farming.

Numerous rivers cross the plain and flow into the Atlantic Ocean. They include the **Delaware, Hudson, James, Potomac, Roanoke, Savannah, and Susquehanna**. Bays cut deeply into the plain in some areas, creating excellent natural harbors. They include Cape Cod Bay, Boston Bay, **Chesapeake Bay, Delaware Bay, and Long Island Sound**.

**World Book on the Appalachian Mountains**<sup>3</sup>

**Appalachian Mountains**, pronounced ap uh LAY chuhn or ap uh LACH uhn, are the second largest mountain system of North America. Only the Rocky Mountain system is larger. The Appalachians extend about 1,500 miles between the Gaspe Peninsula in the Canadian province of Quebec and Birmingham, in central Alabama. The valleys of these mountains include important agricultural and recreational regions. The Appalachians are also a major source of mineral deposits.

The Appalachian Mountains [are believed to be] the oldest mountains in North America. The name Appalachian comes from the Apalachee Indians.

**Physical features.** The chief ranges of the northern Appalachians include the Notre Dame Mountains in Quebec, the **White Mountains** in New Hampshire, the **Green Mountains** in Vermont, and the **Catskill Mountains** in New York.

Southwest of the **Hudson River**, the Appalachians are divided into three main sections—the **Blue Ridge**, the Great Valley, and the Ridge-and-Valley Province. The Blue Ridge has most of the Appalachians' tallest mountains, including the tallest, Mount Mitchell. This peak rises 6,684 feet near Asheville, N.C.

North of Virginia, the Blue Ridge Mountains are separated into small sections by major valleys called water gaps and wind gaps. A water gap, such as the Delaware Water Gap in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, is a valley that has a river flowing through it. A wind gap is a dry valley. An example of a wind gap is the **Cumberland Gap** on the **borders of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia**.

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *United States*. Contributor: Teresa A. Sullivan, Ph.D., Vice President and Dean of Graduate Studies and Professor of Sociology and Law, University of Texas, Austin.

<sup>2</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Piedmont Region*. Contributor: Stephen S. Birdsall, Ph.D., Professor of Geography, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

<sup>3</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Appalachian Mountains*. Contributor: John Edwin Coffman, Ph.D., Former Associate Professor of Geography, University of Houston.

Immediately west of the Blue Ridge is the Great Valley, which extends from the Hudson River Valley to Alabama. The **Great Valley** includes the Cumberland, Lebanon, and Lehigh valleys in Pennsylvania; the Cumberland Valley in Maryland; the **Shenandoah Valley** and the Valley of Virginia in Virginia; the Valley of East Tennessee; and the Coosa River Valley in Alabama.

West of the Great Valley is the Ridge-and-Valley Province, which consists of long, sharp ridges separated by narrow valleys. It is bordered on the west by the Cumberland and Allegheny mountains. North of central Virginia, the Alleghenies in the north and the Blue Ridge and Great Smoky mountains in the south make the Appalachians one of the great divides of North America. This region separates rivers that empty into the Atlantic Ocean from those flowing into the Gulf of Mexico. [NOTE: From central New York southward, the Appalachian Highlands has three main subdivisions. They are, from east to west: the Blue Ridge Mountains Area, the Ridge and Valley Region, and the **Appalachian Plateau**.]

**Economic importance.** Thousands of people in the Appalachians make their living in farming or mining. Farmers in the southern sections grow corn and tobacco and raise poultry. In the northern part of the Appalachians, the chief valley products are apples, barley, dairy foods, hay, potatoes, and wheat. Trees from the region, including hickories, maples, and oaks, are shipped to furniture makers in Hickory and High Point, N.C. Coal deposits cover about 50,000 square miles in the Appalachians in Alabama, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia.

**Recreation and wildlife.** Rivers, lakes, and state and national parks provide a wide range of recreational opportunities in the Appalachians. During the winter, skiers from many states come to the northern Appalachians. Throughout the summer and fall, hikers walk along the Appalachian National Scenic Trail, the nation's longest marked footpath. This trail extends about 2,000 miles between Mount Katahdin in Maine and Springer Mountain in Georgia.

Many large mammals, including bears, bobcats, and deer, live in the Appalachians. Smaller mammals, such as raccoons and skunks, and reptiles are also plentiful.

**FINE ARTS AND ACTIVITIES: BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

If you are new to *Tapestry* with this week-plan, please note that in Unit 2, we briefly covered the Baroque period in both music and visual arts. For newcomers especially, we have assigned rhetoric students an optional reading in *The Age of Religious Wars, 1559-1715* this week that summarizes and analyzes this artistic movement during that period. In subsequent weeks, we list additional assignments that allow your students to study the Baroque period in more depth.

**CHURCH HISTORY: BACKGROUND INFORMATION****World Book on the King James Bible**<sup>1</sup>

In 1604, King James I of England authorized a committee of about 50 scholars to prepare a revision of earlier English translations of the Bible. The new version appeared in 1611 and became known as the King James, or Authorized, Version. The beauty and grace of the translation established the King James Version as one of the great treasures of the English language. No important English translations of the Bible appeared for more than 200 years after the publication of the King James Version. During this time, the King James Version was the most widely used translation in the English-speaking world.

**World Book on Gustavus Adolphus**<sup>2</sup>

**Gustavus Adolphus**, pronounced guh STAY vuhs or guh STAH vuhs uh DAHL fuhs (1594-1632) was king of Sweden from 1611 to 1632. He came to the throne as Gustavus II Adolphus, also called Gustav II Adolf, when Sweden was at war with Denmark, Poland, and Russia. After winning these wars, he led an army into Germany in 1630 to save the Protestants there from Roman Catholic domination. In 1631, he defeated the Catholics at the Battle of Breitenfeld. In 1632, his troops overwhelmed those of Bohemian general Albrecht von Wallenstein at Lutzen. But Gustavus died on the battlefield. His victory saved Protestantism in Germany and won German territory for Sweden.

<sup>1</sup> Excerpted from a *World Book* article entitled *Bible*. Contributors: B. Barry Levy, Ph.D., Professor of Biblical Studies, Chairman of Jewish Studies Department, and Director of Jewish Teacher Training Program, McGill University; Terrance D. Callan, Ph.D., Dean of the Athenaeum, Professor of Biblical Studies, Athenaeum of Ohio.

<sup>2</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *Gustavus Adolphus*. Contributor: Odd S. Lovoll, Ph.D., Professor of History, St. Olaf College.

**GOVERNMENT: BACKGROUND INFORMATION****World Book on the House of Burgesses<sup>1</sup>**

The **House of Burgesses**, pronounced BUR jehs ehs, was the first representative legislative body in colonial America. The House of Burgesses first met at Jamestown, then the capital of Virginia, on July 30, 1619. Governor Sir George Yeardley called the meeting. The session included two citizens, or burgesses, from each of the 11 boroughs (subdivisions) of Virginia.

The first act of the body was to approve an official great seal for the colony. The House also claimed the right to act on all tax laws. In 1621, the House received the authority to make all legislation, but the governor and his council had the right of veto. The House conformed to English law and used the same procedure as the English Parliament.

After the death of King James I in 1625, the English government became occupied with its internal affairs. From then on, the House of Burgesses managed the affairs of the colony. The failure of Governor Sir William Berkeley to call a new election to the House was one of the many grievances that led to Bacon's Rebellion in 1676.

The House of Burgesses was not completely democratic. But it contributed to the development of representative government in colonial America. When it was temporarily dissolved in 1774, its members met in the first revolutionary convention of Virginia. There they elected delegates to the First Continental Congress. Some members of the House of Burgesses became leaders of the Revolutionary War in America (1775-1783).

The First Charter of Virginia was established by King James I. It set up three councils of thirteen men each to manage the new colonies in America. These councilmen were not representatives of the inhabitants; they were more like the stockholders of a corporation.

The council established by the Charter of Virginia then wrote up the Ordinances for Virginia. This created a much more representative form of government, which included a general assembly made up of burgesses chosen from each town. The laws enacted by this general assembly still had to be ratified by the council of thirteen established under the Charter, however.

The legislative body created by the Ordinances for Virginia in 1621 still exists today. Even though it revolted against King George III in 1776 and seceded from the United States in 1861, Virginia's General Assembly is still in operation.

**GOVERNMENT: RHETORIC DISCUSSION OUTLINE****First Charter of Virginia**

- The first paragraph of the charter describes the boundaries of Virginia. Find these lines of latitude on a map or globe. Which states lie at least partly within the boundaries described in the first paragraph of the charter? *The charter claims all the land in North America between 34° and 45° North. Forty-four states lie at least partially within the boundaries of this original charter. The ones that don't are Florida, Louisiana, North Dakota, Washington, Hawaii and Alaska.*
- The charter authorizes two separate colonies. What are they called, and where were they to be located? (Use your map to find the states each colony could have chosen for its first settlement.)
  - The "first colony," made up of adventurers from London, was authorized to settle anywhere on the American coast between 34° and 41° North. This would be somewhere in North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, or New York.*
  - The "second colony," made up of adventurers from Plymouth, could settle on the coast between 38° and 45° North. This includes Maryland, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Maine.*
  - Each colony was allowed fifty miles of territory north and south, and a hundred miles inland. Neither colony was allowed to settle within one hundred miles of the other.*
- What three councils of thirteen men were established by the charter?
  - The charter set up one council of thirteen men in each of the two colonies, as well as one other in England.*
  - Each of the councils on American soil was to govern its own colony, according to laws signed and sealed by the King. The council back in England dealt with matters involving territory outside the colonies.*

<sup>1</sup> From a *World Book* article entitled *House of Burgesses*. Contributor: Donna J. Spindel, Ph.D., Prof. Emeritus of English History, Northwestern Univ.

- What was the king's share of any gold or other precious metals mined in the new colonies? *The king was entitled to one fifth of all gold or silver, and one fifteenth of any copper.*
- What right did the colonies have to protect their borders? *The colonists were specifically authorized to repel and resist any person who tried to inhabit the territory allotted to the colonies. They were allowed to impose a tax of 2.5% on every British vessel that tried to trade within their territories, and 5% on every foreign vessel, and they could keep the profits from such taxes for their first twenty-one years as a colony. (After that time, the crown received the money.)*
- Did the colonists give up any of their rights as English citizens? *No. The charter specifically bound King James and all of his heirs to respect the rights of any person born to British parents on any of the lands claimed by the charter.*

**Ordinances for Virginia**

- Read the greeting in the first sentence of this document carefully, remembering what you just read in the First Charter of Virginia. Who wrote the Ordinances for Virginia? *The Ordinances for Virginia were written by the council of thirteen for the first colony, which was established by the First Charter of Virginia.*
- What specific purposes for these ordinances are listed in the rest of the first paragraph?
  - To provide benefit and comfort for the people*
  - To prevent as much injustice, grievances, and oppression as possible*
  - To remedy inconveniences by vigilant care and prudence*
  - To advance the strength, stability, and prosperity of the colony*
- Describe the nature and function of the two councils established by the ordinances.
  - The Council of State is made up of named individuals chosen by the council of thirteen. The councilors must reside near the colonial Governor and have the primary duty of advising and serving the Governor.*
  - The General Assembly is to be called by the Governor one time each year. The members of this council consist of the Council of State plus two representatives from each town or settlement. These representatives are elected by the inhabitants of those towns. The General Assembly has the authority to enact laws by majority vote, except that the Governor may veto any such law.*
- What law governed the new colony?
  - The colony remained under English law, so the new government was bound by the same laws that limited governments in England.*
  - All laws enacted by the General Assembly had to be ratified by the council of thirteen back in England.*

**PHILOSOPHY: RHETORIC DISCUSSION OUTLINE**

NOTE: As explained in the Unit Introduction, each man profiled in this unit (and in Unit 4) was either a contributor to or against the broad intellectual movement called the Age of Reason (or Enlightenment). This age was immediately preceded by (and connected to) the Age of Science, in which Galileo was the first major figure. History students will be taught about the Age of Science and the Age of Reason as a broad movement in Week 24, which is halfway through this unit. Students who are following the *Pageant of Philosophy* may want to refer to this overview sooner.

There have been tensions between faith and philosophy for thousands of years. Pagan philosophers like Plato and Aristotle often contradicted Scripture, forcing Christian thinkers to look for ways to reconcile them. It was like putting together a jigsaw puzzle made up of two very different kinds of pieces. The medieval method of scholasticism helped scholars accomplish this task; they put the pieces together by making ever finer distinctions between concepts. Philosophy became the friend of faith. To be more precise, one philosophical method (scholasticism) supported one interpretation of the faith (medieval Catholicism).

In the 1600's, a new kind of science threatened both faith and philosophy. Copernicus said the sun stood still and the earth went around it. This conflicted with both the scholastic understanding of astronomy and the most obvious reading of Scripture. Joshua told the sun to stand still in Joshua 10:12, not the earth!

This tension came into focus with the case of Galileo. Galileo argued that true science could never conflict with true religion. He urged the Roman Catholic Church to reconsider its commitment to one particular theory of astronomy. When the church told him to stop teaching the new Copernican theory, he complied—sort of. He claimed his *Dialogues Concerning the Two Chief World Systems* didn't really teach Copernicanism, it just explained it. The problem was that it explained it so well that it made any other theory look absurd—including the theory that had the full support of the church. Galileo was tried, convicted, and placed under house arrest for his teaching.

**The intention of the Holy Ghost is to teach us how one goes to Heaven, not how heaven goes.**

- What does this mean, and how does it help Galileo's cause?  
*According to this notion, the Bible is about ethics, not physics. It teaches the way things should be, while science studies the way things are. If this statement is true, then it eliminates much of the tension between Nature and Scripture by eliminating the overlap between their subject matter.*
- To what degree is this a true statement?  
*According to 2 Timothy 3:16, "All Scripture is God-breathed and is useful for teaching, rebuking, correcting and training in righteousness..." It does teach us how to go to Heaven by revealing God and Jesus Christ whom He has sent (see John 17:2).*
- How might this statement be misused?  
*If one can eliminate some of the tension between Nature and Scripture by eliminating some of the overlap, it would seem one could eliminate all of the tension by eliminating all of the overlap. One could argue that anything the Bible says about Creation or other scientific matters is merely "symbolic" or "poetic." We will see "liberal Protestant" theologians do just this in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.*

**The holy Bible can never speak untruth—whenever its true meaning is understood.**

- Does Galileo think there is any real conflict between Nature and Scripture?  
*No. He thought any apparent conflict between Scripture and the actual evidence of Nature was due to misunderstanding what the Bible really meant, or to a false hypothesis about Nature.*
- What does Galileo mean by "accommodating" certain passages to the "capacities of the common people"?  
*He argues that the Bible describes things in language that makes sense to ordinary people. Thus, we talk about "God's hand" even though nobody believes the Heavenly Father really has fingers and thumbs.*
- Do you think there is any real conflict between a moving earth and the passage where Joshua told the sun to stand still? Why or why not?  
*Most modern Christians would agree that there is no real conflict here. Joshua commanded the sun to "stand still" so that he would have time to fight his enemies, and it did what he wanted it to do. The God who is powerful enough to stop the sun in the sky is wise enough to know what we mean when we pray.*

**Wise expositors should produce the true senses of such passages, together with the special reasons for which they were set down in these words.**

- In Galileo's approach, who should decide the "true meaning" of Scripture?  
*Galileo was trying to be a faithful Catholic. He believed the pope and other teachers of the Roman Catholic Church should decide what the true meaning of Scripture was. He also believed they should agree with him that the Bible doesn't really teach that the earth stands still.*
- Could the Roman Catholic Church decide to interpret Scripture to be consistent with Darwinian evolution? Why or why not?  
*In theory, it could. The Roman Catholic Church teaches that lay people cannot reliably interpret Scripture for themselves. Under Catholic doctrine, the pope and other teachers are supposed to determine the meaning of difficult passages of Scripture and then teach that meaning to the lay people. For instance, if the pope announced that Genesis 1 should be understood to be consistent with millions of years of evolution, faithful Catholics should accept that.*

- The Southern Baptist Convention believes that every Christian must interpret Scripture for himself. They hold to "no creed but the Bible." Given this fact, could the Southern Baptist Convention put a Baptist under house arrest for disagreeing with them?  
*No. Even if 99.9% of Southern Baptists agree on a particular matter, each Baptist is expected to interpret the issue for himself, in light of Scripture.*



**GLANCE INTO NEXT WEEK...**

WEEK 21: EUROPEANS IN NEW ENGLAND	
Lower Grammar	There are no specific concerns for this level this week.
Upper Grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> In <i>Making Thirteen Colonies</i>, one of our core books for this week, there are statements that could possibly be construed as tying Christianity with racism on pages 45-46. There are also violent illustrations on pages 45 and 49.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> There is a death by burning in this week's reading assignment in <i>Trial and Triumph</i>. Pre-read pages 168-169 if this is a concern.</li> </ul>
Dialectic	The History reading assignments are fairly hefty this week, so consider assigning some of it as weekend homework.
Rhetoric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> <i>The Age of Religious Wars</i> discusses sex, abortion, and fertility on pages 105-106, and 108. Extreme punishments and wife-beating are discussed on pages 125 and 129. There is also information about witchcraft on page 134.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Chapter 3 of <i>Worldly Saints</i> (assigned for Church History) takes a direct look at the Puritan's views on sex and marriage, although there is nothing objectionable in the chapter. The chapter is optional, so we suggest that you pre-read it and then decide whether it is appropriate for your students. There is also a mention of sex on page 2.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> There are some illustrations of nudes in <i>Music: An Appreciation</i>, which is the Fine Arts assignment for this week.</li> </ul>
Teacher	There are no specific concerns for this week.

Budget Tips	
All Levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> If you'd like to use one resource for all of your students for your focus on the American colonies, share <i>Making Thirteen Colonies</i>, by Joy Hakim.</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Choose one of our books for hands-on projects for all of your children to share.</li> </ul>