

3L Distance Learning Week 3 Work

MATH

Use the blank sheets on the following pages to complete the assigned exercises from your textbook

A N S W E R F O R M

Mixed Practice Solutions

Show all necessary work. Please be neat.

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Clarifications and Notes

This week, we will have 5 days of assignments from our Frederick Douglass books! I know that when you started this book before break, the instructions were not super clear. I wanted to make sure everyone understands a few things:

1. **Do NOT give back the readings.** Keep them somewhere safe to study. If you no longer have copies of Chapter 1 and 2, email me or let me know at check-in and I'll get them to you!
 2. All answers should be written in **cursive full sentences** on a separate sheet of paper! That is the only work you need to turn in for English. If you write everything on the same sheet of paper (which is recommended), then make sure to label each section (Friday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday) so it's clear to me!
 3. Yes, for the "Closer Look" chapter questions you **have to answer EVERYTHING**. That includes the synthesizing!
-

Friday: Read page 21-22. You **MUST** do all of the steps and show your work. That means I will be looking for your two-column table on comparing and contrasting (see the example on page 21) on your separate piece of paper. You are choosing your **OWN** ideas to compare and contrast, **NOT** ideas from this book. This is a practice in writing, not a comprehension check! I will need to see a well-written and reviewed paragraph after your table.

Monday: Read pages 23-32. This includes a very interesting read on spirituals (remember what Frederick Douglass said about the meaning behind a slave's song?), as well as Chapter 3. On your separate sheet of paper with work for this week, answer all of the chapter questions on page 33.

Tuesday: Read page 34 for instructions on "Parallelism." This was a question on our pretest! You need to make sure that, whenever possible, words in a sentence are using the same kind of formatting. For example, if I say, "I like swimming and to draw," the verbs in the sentence are not following the same structure. It sounds a bit awkward, right? It's better to say, "I like to swim and draw," or "I like swimming and drawing." Try your best to fix the sentences on page 35. On your piece of paper for this week, write out each corrected sentence (1-10). If any of them are a struggle, please let me know!

Wednesday: Read through 36-41. I'm not asking you to write a maxim, but I want you to be aware of what they are! After reading Chapter 4, answer all of the chapter questions on page 42.

Thursday: Chiasmus. Basically, a literary term for switching two ideas in a sentence to cleverly make a point. Read through the explanation and examples. Then, do everything pages 44-45 ask you to do on a separate sheet of paper:

1. Find an example in Chapter 4 and diagram it like in the examples on page 44.
2. Find another famous example on your own (this is optional, if you don't have access to the internet).
3. Write your own! Get creative! This can even be a bit funny!
 - a. Example: Pewdiepie may just be a youtuber, but youtube *is* Pewdiepie (fight me).
 - b. Example: I didn't choose the cat-mom life, the cat-mom life chose me.
 - c. Example: The ghost-hunter hunted ghosts, but the real ghost was him the whole time!

3L English

Name: _____

Directions: For any days we are not in school, follow directions for the day's assignment. If we are only off for one day, for example, you only need to do Day 1. If we are off for four days, you will finish Days 1, 2, 3, and 4. All work will be due, STAPLED together into one packet, the first day back.

Day 4

Read: page 21-22

Do: Write a "Compare - and - Contrast" Chart and paragraph according to instructions. You will turn in both!

NARRATIVE OF THE LIFE OF FREDERICK DOUGLASS AN AMERICAN SLAVE



Teacher Copy



A Closer Look

Understanding the Selection

Recalling (just the facts)

1. What crops were grown on Colonel Lloyd's plantation, and where were they sold?
2. What food and clothing allowance did enslaved adults receive?
3. In what sense was Mr. Severe "rightly named"? Describe his personality and behavior.
4. How did enslaved people feel about going to the Great House on errands?

Interpreting (delving deeper)

1. Was Colonel Lloyd's plantation very productive? How do you know?
2. What constituted a slave's bed? Why, according to Douglass, would the enslaved have had little use for a real bed, if they had one at their disposal?
3. Why did the enslaved consider Mr. Hopkins to be a "good overseer," especially compared to Mr. Severe?
4. Why did the enslaved workers want to go to the Great House? What did they do in order to be chosen for such errands?

Synthesizing (putting it all together)

Describe life on a large, rich plantation. How would it be managed and what kind of commercial and agricultural activities might take place there? Also, what kinds of sights and sounds might you experience there?

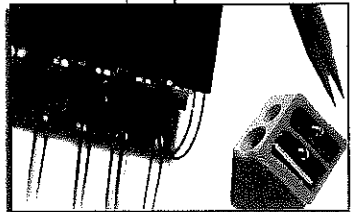
Extensions

HW

Writing

The Comparison-and-Contrast Paragraph.
Douglass compared the overseers Mr. Severe and Mr. Hopkins as follows:

Mr. Severe's place was filled by a Mr. Hopkins. He was a very different man. He was less cruel, less profane, and made less noise, than Mr. Severe. His course was characterized by no extraordinary demonstrations of cruelty; He whipped, but seemed to take no pleasure in it. He was called by the slaves a good overseer.



This passage clearly shows that both men had the same job, but they behaved very differently. Mr. Hopkins, for instance, was "less cruel," implying that Mr. Severe was quite cruel by comparison. What else do you know about Mr. Severe based on what Douglass says about Mr. Hopkins?

Write a paragraph in which you compare and contrast two things.

—Choose two things to compare. For example, you can compare and contrast two houses or towns, schools, pets, breakfast cereals, academic subjects, or any other items, as long as the two things are related.

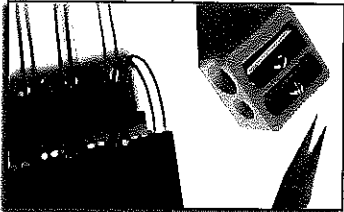
—On a separate sheet of paper, make a two-sided table with one column for "similarities" and another for "differences." Write two to four notes under each category. Had Douglass made a chart, it might have looked like this:

Mr. Hopkins vs. Mr. Severe

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both were overseers for Colonel Lloyd. • Both whipped the enslaved workers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mr. Hopkins was less cruel and profane. • Mr. Severe took pleasure in whipping the enslaved workers. • The enslaved workers thought Mr. Hopkins was a good overseer.

Extensions

Writing (cont.)



—Once you are satisfied with your chart, write an interesting topic sentence explaining your purpose for writing this paragraph. For instance, instead of simply saying, “I am going to compare two houses,” you might write an opening that reads, “My family moved from the house where I was born when I was seven years old. Our second house was much nicer than our first house.” In this example, the second sentence is the one that will be the topic sentence of the paragraph.

—Continue writing your paragraph by filling in the information from your “similarities and differences” chart. Vary the structures and lengths of your sentences, and use vivid, personal details whenever possible. Do not write something like, “Our first house was small. Our second house was large.” Instead, you might write, “I loved our second house because it had so much more space than our old house.”

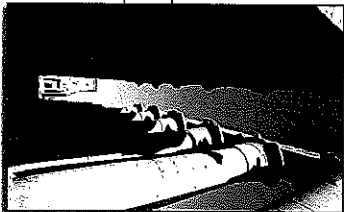
—End the paragraph by offering your own conclusions about your comparison. Douglass’s concluding sentence illustrates the effect that Mr. Hopkins’s behavior had on the slaves’ attitudes: A paragraph about the two houses might end with “I do not care if I ever see that little old house again.”

—Refer to the Revision and Proofreading Checklists on pages 170–73 to finish your work.

22

Extensions

History and Geography



Spirituals and the Code. According to Douglass, the songs of the slaves revealed both “the highest joy and the deepest sadness.” Douglass pointed out that singing was one way in which slaves dealt with their burdens and expressed their sorrows. Douglass also pointed out that the slaves’ songs were “full of meaning to themselves.” Research into the nature of slave songs and spirituals has revealed purposes behind these songs beyond simple expression of emotions. One purpose served by slave songs was the transmission of secret messages by means of what scholars of slavery refer to as the code. The code was a secret language in which slaves used people, places, and ideas from the Bible to refer to their own situation. For example, the Bible tells the story of how the Hebrew people were enslaved in Egypt under the rule of a Pharaoh. Eventually, the enslaved Hebrews were released from bondage and led across the Jordan River to freedom. The man who led the Hebrews from captivity was named Moses, and Moses led them to a so-called “promised land” called Canaan. The slaves would sing about these Biblical events but actually be singing about their own lives and circumstances. Examples of songs written in the code include “Swing Low, Sweet Chariot”

I looked over Jordan and what did I see
Coming for to carry me home?
A band of angels coming after me,
Coming for to carry me home.

and “Go Down, Moses”
Go down, Moses,
Way down in Egypt’s land.
Tell ole Pharaoh,
Let my people go.

Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass 23

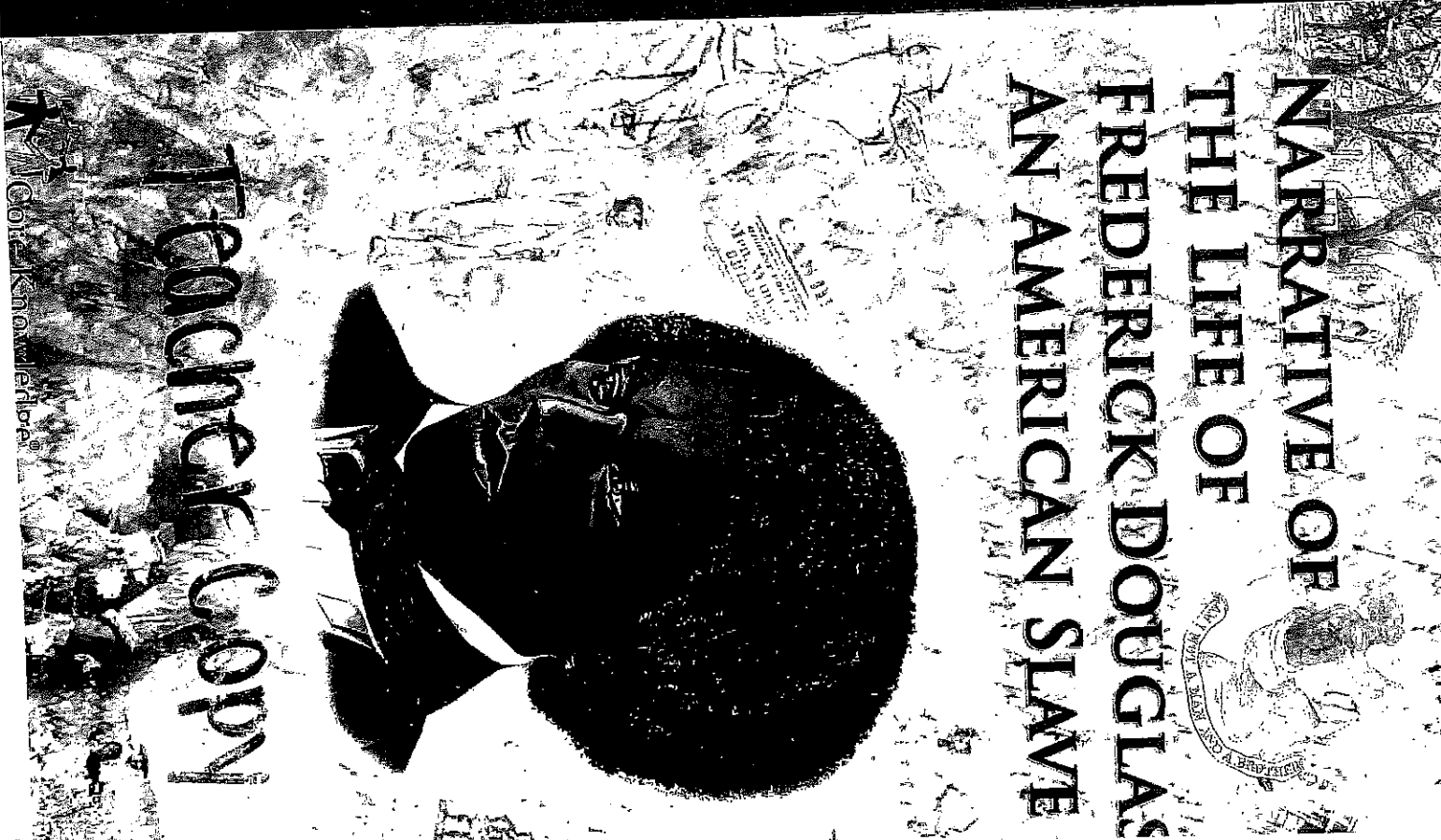
3L English Name: _____

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Day 5

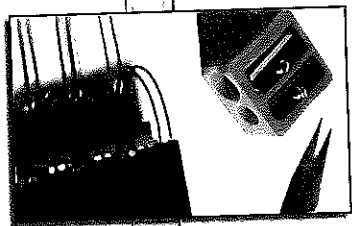
Read: pages 23-32

Do: Answer all questions
on page 33.



Extensions

Writing (cont.)



—Once you are satisfied with your chart, write an interesting topic sentence explaining your purpose for writing this paragraph. For instance, instead of simply saying, “I am going to compare two houses,” you might write an opening sentence that reads, “My family moved from the house where I was born when I was seven years old. Our second house was much nicer than our first house.” In this example, the second sentence is the one that will be the topic sentence of the paragraph.

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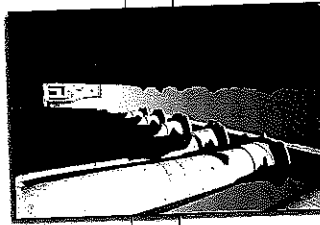
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History and Geography



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and “Go Down, Moses”

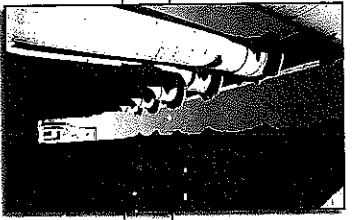
Go down, Moses,
Way down in Egypt’s land,
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Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass 23

Extensions

History and Geography (cont.)

and "Steal Away"
 Steal away,
 Steal away,
 Steal away to Jesus!
 Steal away,
 Steal away home,
 I ain't got long to stay here!



This code was a kind of **extended metaphor**, or **allegory**, in which one set of things stood for another set of things.

Element from Song	Real-life Equivalent
Jordan River	The Ohio River (which separated the North, and freedom, from the South, and slavery)
Moses	People like Harriet Tubman who helped slaves escape and led them to freedom
Pharaoh	The slave owner
Chariot	Horse or other means of conveyance
The drinking gourd	The Big Dipper constellation, which points to the North Star
Canaan, the promised land, home, over yonder	The free North
Steal away, head home	Escape

The most famous coded song is "Follow the Drinking Gourd." Here are the first four verses from that song. On a separate sheet of paper, write down any words, phrases, or lines that might hold some sort of coded message. For example, to what season does the second verse refer?

24

Extensions

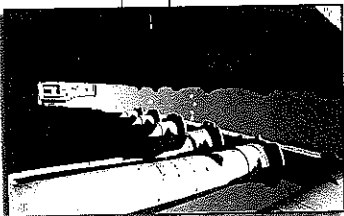
History and Geography (cont.)

The explanation is written below, but do not peek. Try to figure out some of the codes for yourself, first.

Follow the drinking gourd!
 Follow the drinking gourd!
 For the old man is a-waiting for to carry you to freedom
 if you follow the drinking gourd.
 When the sun comes back and the first quail calls,
 Follow the drinking gourd.
 For the old man is a-waiting to carry you to freedom
 if you follow the drinking gourd.
 The riverbank makes a very good road,
 The dead trees will show you the way,
 Left foot, peg foot travelling on,
 Follow the drinking gourd.
 Where the great river meets the little river,
 Follow the drinking gourd,
 The old man is a-waiting for to carry you to freedom
 if you follow the drinking gourd.

This song was taught to slaves by a famous "conductor" on the Underground Railroad named Peg Leg Joe. He was a one-legged ex-sailor who made his living doing odd jobs on various plantations, mainly in Alabama. Peg Leg Joe would teach this song on the plantations that he visited and, sure enough, many slaves would make their escape shortly thereafter.

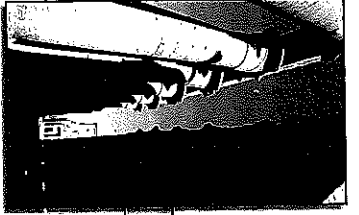
The "drinking gourd" is actually the Big Dipper constellation, which points to the North Star. "When the sun comes back" refers to springtime. The third verse is about the trail markings that the escapees followed: certain trees along the trail had



Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass 25

Extensions

History and Geography (cont.)



a painting of a left foot beside a circle (a reference to the marks left by Joe when he walked with his peg leg). By following the rivers, the runaways eventually reached the Ohio River, where other conductors would guide them across and help them on their way.

Do some research on the Internet or in the library to find other spirituals and study these for examples of the code. Look, for example, at the songs "Wade in the Water," "Oh Freedom," "O Canaan," and "Roll, Jordan, Roll."

Chapter 3

Colonel Lloyd kept a large and finely cultivated garden, which afforded almost constant employment for four men, besides the chief gardener, Mr. M'Dunmond. This garden was probably the greatest attraction of the place. During the summer months, people came from far and near—from Baltimore, Eason, and Annapolis—to see it. It abounded in fruits of almost every description, from the hardy apple of the north to the delicate orange of the south. This garden was not the least source of trouble on the plantation. Its excellent fruit was quite a temptation to the hungry swarms of boys, as well as the older slaves, belonging to the colonel, few of whom had the virtue or the vice to resist it. Scarcely a day passed, during the summer, but that some slave had to take the lash for stealing fruit. The colonel had to resort to all kinds of stratagems to keep his slaves out of the garden. The last and most successful one was that of tarring his fence all around; after which, if a slave was caught with any tar upon his person, it was deemed sufficient proof that he had either been into the garden, or had tried to get in. In either case, he was severely whipped by the chief gardener. This plan worked well; the slaves became as fearful of tar as of the lash. They seemed to realize the impossibility of touching TAR without being defiled.

Why was the garden a constant source of trouble for the slaves?

Vocabulary in Place

- stratagem, *n.* Clever scheme for achieving an objective
- The English teacher employed several stratagems to get her students to read more.
- defile, *v.* To pollute, make filthy
- The politician attempted to defile his opponent's reputation.

The colonel also kept a splendid riding equipage.¹ His stable and carriage-house presented the appearance of some of our large city livery establishments.²

His horses were of the finest form and noblest blood. His carriage-house contained three splendid coaches, three or four gigs, besides dearhorns and harouches of the most fashionable style.

Why was it so difficult to work in the stables? Were old Barney and his son punished because they did not do a good job?

Why? This establishment was under the care of two slaves—old Barney and young Barney—father and son. To attend to this establishment was their sole work. But it was by no means an easy employment; for in nothing was Colonel Lloyd more particular than in the management of his horses. The slightest inattention to these was unpardonable, and was visited upon those, under whose care they were placed, with the severest punishment; no excuse could shield them, if the colonel only suspected any want of attention to his horses—a supposition which he frequently indulged, and one which, of course, made the office of old and young Barney a very trying one. They never knew when they were safe from punishment. They were frequently whipped when least deserving, and escaped whipping when most deserving it. Every thing depended upon the looks of the horses, and the state of Colonel Lloyd's own mind when his horses were brought to him for use. If a horse did not move fast enough, or hold his head high enough, it was owing to some fault of his keepers. It was painful to stand near the stable-door, and hear the various complaints against the keepers when a horse was taken out for use. "This horse has not had proper attention. He has not been

¹ Equipage. Equipment, materials, in this case for riding. The term is often used to refer to material and equipment used for military purposes (e.g., *camp equipage* is all the things necessary for an encampment).

² Livery establishments. Places that board and care for horses or that hire out horses and carriages for a fee

Vocabulary in Place

supposition, *n.* An assumption, something supposed
Richard's supposition that the substitute teacher would not check the homework proved to be wrong.

sufficiently rubbed and carried, or he has not been properly fed; his food was too wet or too dry; he got it too soon or too late; he was too hot or too cold; he had too much hay, and not enough of grain; or he had too much grain, and not enough of hay; instead of old Barney's attending to the horse, he had very improperly left it to his son." To all these complaints, no matter how unjust, the slave must answer never a word. Colonel Lloyd could not brook any contradiction from a slave. When he spoke, a slave must stand, listen, and tremble; and such was literally the case. I have seen Colonel Lloyd make old Barney, a man between fifty and sixty years of age, uncover his bald head, kneel down upon the cold, damp ground, and receive upon his naked and toil-worn shoulders more than thirty lashes at the time. Colonel Lloyd had three sons—Edward, Murray, and Daniel,—and three sons-in-law, Mr. Winder, Mr. Nicholson, and Mr. Lowndes. All of these lived at the Great House Farm, and enjoyed the luxury of whipping the servants when they pleased, from old Barney down to William Wilkes, the coach-driver. I have seen Winder make one of the house-servants stand off from him a suitable distance to be touched with the end of his whip, and at every stroke raise great ridges upon his back.

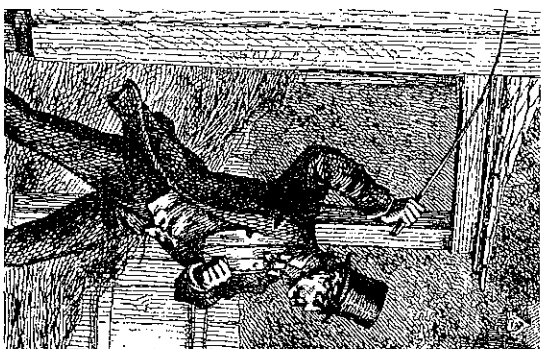
To describe the wealth of Colonel Lloyd would be almost equal to describing the riches of Job.³ He kept from ten to fifteen house-servants. He was said to own a thousand slaves, and I think this estimate quite within the truth. Colonel Lloyd owned so many that he did not know them when he saw them; nor did all the slaves of the out-farms know him. It is reported of him, that, while riding

³ Job (pronounced jób); A Biblical character, once rich and powerful, whose faith God tested by subjecting him to many misfortunes

Vocabulary in Place

brook, *v.* Put up with, tolerate
The supervisor made it clear that he would brook no laziness on the part of his employees.

along the road one day, he met a colored man, and addressed him in the usual manner of speaking to colored people on the public highways of the south: "Well, boy, whom do you belong to?" "To Colonel Lloyd," replied the slave. "Well, does the colonel treat you well?" "No, sir," was the ready reply. "What does he work you too hard?" "Yes, sir." "Well, don't he give you enough to eat?" "Yes, sir, he gives me enough, such as it is."



Detail from illustration entitled "Whipping of Old Barney" from Frederick Douglass, *My Bondage and My Freedom*. New York: Miller, Orton and Mulligan, ca. 1855. Special Collections, University of Virginia. Used by permission.

Why did the enslaved workers always speak favorably of their masters? Do you think they were being sincere?

The colonel, after ascertaining where the slave belonged, rode

on; the man also went on about his business, not dreaming that he had been conversing with his master. He thought, said, and heard nothing more of the matter, until two or three weeks afterwards. The poor man was then informed by his overseer that, for having found fault with his master, he was now to be sold to a Georgia trader. He was immediately chained and handcuffed; and thus, without a moment's warning, he was snatched away, and forever sundered, from his family and friends, by a hand more unrelenting than death. This is the penalty of telling the truth, of telling the simple truth, in answer to a series of plain questions.

It is partly in consequence of such facts, that slaves, when inquired of as to their condition and the character of their masters, almost universally say they are contented, and that their masters are kind. The slaveholders have been known to send in spies among their slaves, to ascertain their views and feelings in regard to their condition. The frequency of this has had the effect to establish

among the slaves the maxim, that a still tongue makes a wise head. They suppress the truth rather than take the consequences of telling it, and in so doing prove themselves a part of the human family. If they have any thing to say of their masters, it is generally in their masters' favor, especially when speaking to an untried man. I have been frequently asked, when a slave, if I had a kind master, and do not remember ever to have given a negative answer; nor did I, in pursuing this course, consider myself as uttering what was absolutely false; for I always measured the kindness of my master by the standard of kindness set up among slaveholders around us. Moreover, slaves are like other people, and imbibed prejudices quite common to others. They think their own better than that of others. Many, under the influence of this prejudice, think their own masters are better than the masters of other slaves; and this, too, in some cases, when the very reverse is true. Indeed, it is not uncommon for slaves even to fall out and quarrel among themselves about the relative goodness of their masters, each contending for the superior goodness of his own over that of the others. At the very same time, they mutually execrate their masters when viewed separately. It was so on our plantation. When Colonel Lloyd's slaves met the slaves of Jacob Jepson, they seldom parted without a quarrel about their masters; Colonel Lloyd's slaves contending that he was the richest, and Mr. Jepson's slaves that he was the smartest, and most of a man. Colonel Lloyd's slaves would boast his ability to buy and sell Jacob Jepson.

Vocabulary in Place

- maxim, *n.* A rule of conduct expressed as a saying or proverb
- President Lincoln was fond of this maxim from Shakespeare's *Hamlet*: "Tishe every man after his desert, and who shall scape whipping?"
- suppress, *v.* To put down, especially by force
- The company was unable to suppress the facts about its financial situation.
- imbibe, *v.* To drink, to take in
- Children sometimes imbibe the prejudices and bad habits of their elders.
- execrate, *v.* To denounce, to declare to be hateful
- She will pretend to be your friend and then execrate you as soon as you turn your back.

Why might slaves have bragged about their own "masters" to slaves from other plantations?

Mr. Jepson's slaves would boast his ability to whip Colonel Lloyd. These quarrels would almost always end in a fight between the parties, and those that whipped were supposed to have gained the point at issue. They seemed to think that the greatness of their masters was transferable to themselves. It was considered as being bad enough to be a slave; but to be a poor man's slave was deemed a disgrace indeed! ❏

A Closer Look

Understanding the Selection

Recalling (just the facts)

1. What was the biggest attraction at Colonel Lloyd's plantation?
2. What did Old Barney and Young Barney do on Colonel Lloyd's plantation?
3. For what purpose did plantation owners use spies?

Interpreting (delving deeper)

1. Why were the enslaved workers at Colonel Lloyd's plantation as "fearful of tar as of the lash"?
2. Why was it so difficult for Young Barney and Old Barney to avoid being beaten? What does this tell you about Colonel Lloyd?
3. Why did the slaves brag about the wealth of their masters and even fight among themselves over which plantation was the richest?

Synthesizing (putting it all together)

Explain why the slaves adopted certain attitudes that were not sincere. ❏



3L English Name: _____

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Day 6

Read: pages 34-35

Do: Rewrite all of the sentences the book lists in parallel form. Read all instructions!

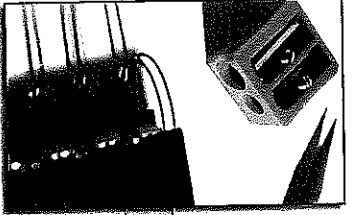
NARRATIVE OF
THE LIFE OF
FREDERICK DOUGLASS
AN AMERICAN SLAVE



TEACHER COPY

Extensions

Writing



Parallelism. Writers can make statements more interesting and memorable by using **parallelism**, or repeated grammatical patterns. The following example makes use of parallel noun phrases: *During the seventeenth century, the French, the Spanish, and the English navies fought one another for control of the Caribbean.* This example makes use of parallel prepositional phrases: *Captain Jones sailed around the African coast, across the Atlantic, and down the Amazon river in a single voyage.* Not using proper parallelism can make sentences sound awkward:

- Maya's stereo is much louder than Juan.
- Ms. Jones rewarded us for our hard work and behaving well.
- There are three things I want to do this summer: eat watermelon, fishing, and learn to water-ski.
- The fire not only burned the forest but also several homes.

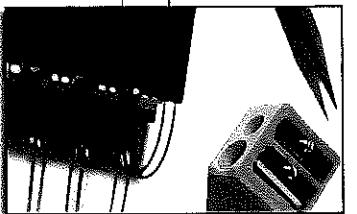
Did you notice the mistakes? Read the corrections below to see how these sentences should look with proper parallel construction:

- Maya's stereo is much louder than Juan's.
- Ms. Jones rewarded us for our hard work and good behavior.
- There are three things I want to do this summer: eat watermelon, go fishing, and learn to water-ski.
- The fire burned not only the forest but also several homes.

Rewrite each of the following faulty sentences on a separate piece of paper to correct the faulty parallelism. You might find it useful to copy each sentence and to underline or circle the incorrect section before you try to rewrite it.

Extensions

Writing (cont.)



1. My little brother is messy and can be an annoyance.
2. Lance pulled ahead early, he led most of the way, and finished before anyone else.
3. Kayla's test score was better than Philippe.
4. We learned how to do three things at camp: ride horses, to tie knots, and identifying various trees.
5. Chandra loves drawing, sculpting, and to paint.
6. Listen to the music of the whippoorwill, the crickets, and the sounds that the bullfrogs make.
7. The monks say prayers in the morning, they do it at noon, and in the evening.
8. The rings of Saturn, the boiling hot surface of Venus, and the oceans of Earth that are blue are some of the interesting features of the Solar System.
9. The forests were full of lions and tigers, and bears were also there.
10. The mad scientist made himself invisible, shrank the kids, and was traveling back and forth in time. ☐

3L English Name: _____

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Day 7

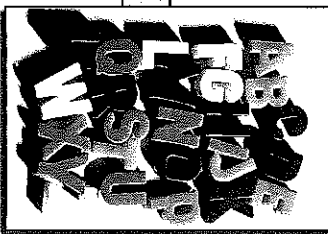
Read: pages 36-41

Do: Questions on page 42

NARRATIVE OF THE LIFE OF FREDERICK DOUGLASS AN AMERICAN SLAVE



Teacher Copy



Extensions

Language Alive!

Maxims. As you learned in this chapter, a maxim is a traditional saying that expresses a rule for conduct. Here are some examples of maxims:

- | | |
|--|--|
| Better safe than sorry. | A penny saved is a penny earned. |
| The early bird gets the worm. | Read between the lines. |
| Look before you leap. | A miss is as good as a mile. |
| Practice makes perfect. | Seize the day. |
| Where there's a will there's a way. | Don't look a gift horse in the mouth. |
| Do unto others as you would have them do unto you. | A fool and his money are soon parted. |
| Never leave until tomorrow what you can do today. | He who hesitates is lost. |
| Actions speak louder than words. | Money is the root of all evil. |
| Let bygones be bygones. | Necessity is the mother of invention. |
| | There's more than one way to skin a cat. |
- Writers occasionally have some fun by rewriting traditional sayings in unexpected ways, as follows:
1. Where there's a will there's a won't.
 2. A miss is as good as a mister.
- Work with a partner. First, come up with a list of five traditional sayings to add to the list given above. Then, choose five traditional sayings from your list and the list above to rewrite in unexpected (and perhaps humorous) ways.

Chapter 4

Mr. Hopkins remained but a short time in the office of overseer. Why his career was so short, I do not know, but suppose he lacked the necessary severity to suit Colonel Lloyd. Mr. Hopkins was succeeded by Mr. Austin Gore, a man possessing, in an eminent degree, all those traits of character indispensable to what is called a first-rate overseer. Mr. Gore had served Colonel Lloyd, in the capacity of overseer, upon one of the out-farms, and had shown himself worthy of the high station of overseer upon the home or Great House Farm.

Mr. Gore was proud, ambitious, and persevering. He was artful, cruel, and obdurate. He was just the man for such a place, and it was just the place for such a man. It afforded scope for the full exercise of all his powers, and he seemed to be perfectly at home in it. He was one of those who could torture the slightest look, word, or gesture, on the part of the slave, into impudence, and would treat it accordingly. There must be no answering back to him; no explanation was allowed a slave, showing himself to have been wrongfully accused. Mr. Gore acted fully up to the maxim laid down by slaveholders,—“It is better that a dozen slaves should suffer under the lash, than that the overseer should be convicted, in the presence of the slaves, of having been at fault.” No matter how innocent a slave might be—

What characteristics might a “first-rate” overseer have had?

Vocabulary in Place
Indispensable, <i>adj.</i> : Absolutely necessary; not to be done without or done away with
Exercise is an indispensable part of a healthy lifestyle.
Impudence, <i>n.</i> : Contempt for others or offensively bold behavior, disrespect
Clyde’s impudence toward the scout master was enough to get him thrown out of the troop for the rest of the year.

What does it mean to be "insensible to the voice of a reproving conscience"?

it availed him nothing, when accused by Mr. Gore of any misdemeanor. To be accused was to be convicted, and to be convicted was to be punished; the one always following the other with **immutable** certainty. To escape punishment was to escape accusation; and few slaves had the fortune to do either, under the overseership of Mr. Gore. He was just proud enough to demand the most degrading **homage** of the slave, and quite **servile** enough to crouch, himself, at the feet of the master. He was ambitious enough to be contented with nothing short of the height of his ambition. He was cruel enough to inflict the severest punishment, artful enough to descend to the lowest trickery, and obtundate enough to be insensible to the voice of a reproving conscience. He was, of all the overseers, the most dreaded by the slaves. His presence was painful, his eye flashed confusion; and seldom was his sharp, shrill voice heard, without producing horror and trembling in their ranks.

Mr. Gore was a **grave** man, and, though a young man, he indulged in no jokes, said no funny words, seldom smiled. His words were in perfect keeping with his looks, and his looks were in perfect keeping with his words. Overseers will sometimes indulge in a witty word, even with the slaves; not so with Mr. Gore. He spoke but to command, and commanded but to be obeyed; he dealt sparingly with his words, and bountifully with his whip, never using the former where the latter would answer as well. When he whipped, he seemed

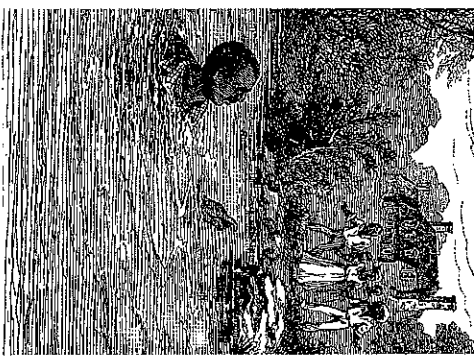
Vocabulary in Place

- Immutable, adj.** Unchanging and unchangeable
- In the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson spoke of natural, **immutable** rights.
- homage, n.** The act of showing honor or respect
- Sir Gawain paid **homage** to King Arthur and followed the code of chivalry.
- servile, adj.** In the manner of a servant, overly submissive
- Enslaved workers were expected to act in a **servile** way toward their overseer.
- grave, adj.** Serious
- At this school it is considered a **grave** offense to copy from someone else's paper.

to do so from a sense of duty, and feared no consequences. He did nothing reluctantly, no matter how disagreeable; always at his post, never inconsistent. He never promised but to fulfill. He was, in a word, a man of the most inflexible firmness and stone-like coolness.

His savage barbarity was equalled only by the consummate coolness with which he committed the grossest and most savage deeds upon the slaves under his charge. Mr. Gore once undertook to whip one of Colonel Lloyd's slaves, by the name of Demby. He had given Demby but few stripes, when, to get rid of the scourging, he ran and plunged himself into a creek, and stood there at the depth of his shoulders, refusing to come out. Mr. Gore told him that he would give him three calls, and that, if he did not come out at the third call, he would shoot him. The first call was given. Demby made no response, but stood his ground. The second and third calls were given with the same result. Mr. Gore then, without consultation or deliberation with any one, not even giving Demby an additional call, raised his musket to his face, taking deadly aim at his stranding victim, and in an instant poor Demby was no more. His mangled body sank out of sight, and blood and brains marked the water where he had stood.

A thrill of horror flashed through every soul upon the plantation, excepting Mr. Gore. He alone seemed cool and collected. He was asked by Colonel Lloyd and my old master, why he resorted to this extraordinary expedient. His reply was (as well as I can remember) that Demby had become unmanageable. He was setting a dangerous example to the other slaves,—one which, if suffered to pass without some such demonstration



Detail of an illustration from Frederick Douglass, *My Bondage and My Freedom*, New York: Miller, Orton and Mulligan, ca. 1855. Special Collections, University of Virginia. Used by Permission.

How did Mr. Gore justify his murder of Denby?

on his part, would finally lead to the total subversion of all rule and order upon the plantation. He argued that if one slave refused to be corrected, and escaped with his life, the other slaves would soon copy the example, the result of which would be the freedom of the slaves, and the enslavement of the whites. Mr. Gore's defence was satisfactory. He was continued in his station as overseer upon the home plantation. His fame as an overseer went abroad. His horrid crime was not even submitted to judicial investigation. It was committed in the presence of slaves, and they of course could neither institute a suit, nor testify against him; and thus the guilty perpetrator of one of the bloodiest and most foul murders goes unwhipped of justice, and uncensured by the community in which he lives. Mr. Gore lived in St. Michael's, Talbot County, Maryland, when I left there; and if he is still alive, he very probably lives there now; and if so, he is now, as he was then, as highly esteemed and as much respected as though his guilty soul had not been stained with his brother's blood.

I speak advisedly when I say this,—that killing a slave, or any colored person, in Talbot County, Maryland, is not treated as a crime, either by the courts or the community. Mr. Thomas Lanman, of St. Michael's, killed two slaves, one of whom he killed with a hatchet, by knocking his brains out. He used to boast of the commission of the awful and bloody deed. I have heard him do so laughingly sayings, among other things, that he was the only benefactor of his country in the company; and that when others would do as much as he had done, we should be relieved of "the d—"

The wife of Mr. Giles Hicks, living but a short distance from where I used to live, murdered my wife's cousin, a young girl between fifteen and sixteen years of age, mangling her person in the most horrible manner; breaking her nose and breastbone with a stick,

Vocabulary in place

subversion, *n.* The act of undermining existing authority.
Students should try to avoid subversion of discipline in the classroom.
perpetrator, *n.* One responsible for carrying out an action, especially a crime.
The policeman arrived just in time to see the perpetrator duck into the alley.

so that the poor girl expired in a few hours afterward. She was immediately buried, but had not been in her untimely grave but a few hours before she was taken up and examined by the coroner, who decided that she had come to her death by severe beating.

The offence for which this girl was thus murdered was this:—She had been set that night to mind Mrs. Hicks's baby, and during the night she fell asleep, and the baby cried. She, having lost her rest for several nights previous, did not hear the crying. They were both in the room with Mrs. Hicks. Mrs. Hicks, finding the girl slow to move, jumped from her bed, seized an oak stick of wood by the fireplace, and with it broke the girl's nose and breastbone, and thus ended her life. I will not say that this most horrid murder produced no sensation in the community. It did produce sensation, but not enough to bring the murderer to punishment. There was a warrant issued for her arrest, but it was never served. Thus she escaped not only punishment, but even the pain of being arraigned before a court for her horrid crime.

Whilst I am detailing bloody deeds which took place during my stay on Colonel Lloyd's plantation, I will briefly narrate another, which occurred about the same time as the murder of Denby by Mr. Gore. Colonel Lloyd's slaves were in the habit of spending a part of their nights and Sundays in fishing for oysters, and in this way made up the deficiency of their scanty allowance. An old man belonging to Colonel Lloyd, while thus engaged, happened to get beyond the limits of Colonel Lloyd's, and on the premises of Mr. Beal Bondly. At this trespass, Mr. Bondly took offence, and with his musket came down to the shore, and blew its deadly contents into the poor old man.

Mr. Bondly came over to see Colonel Lloyd the next day, whether to pay him for his property, or to justify himself in what he had done, I know not. At any rate, this whole fiendish transaction was soon hushed up. There was very little said about it at all, and nothing done. It was a common saying, even among little white boys, that it was worth a half-cent to kill a "", and a half-cent to bury one.

What happened to a white person if he or she murdered a black person?

A racist epithet appearing in the original text has here been deleted.—The Editors

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3L English Name: _____

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Day 8

Read: pages 44-45

Do: Follow instructions
to write your own
Chiasmus!

NARRATIVE OF THE LIFE OF FREDERICK DOUGLASS AN AMERICAN SLAVE



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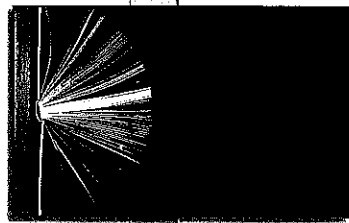
Extensions

Language Alive!

Chiasmus. Do you know this famous line?

Ask not what your country can do for you—

ask what you can do for your country.



This line from the inaugural address of President John F. Kennedy is a famous example of **chiasmus** (pronounced *ky-az-mus*). The word is taken from a Greek verb which means "to mark with two crossing lines," as in the letter "X" (the letter *chi* in the Greek alphabet). A chiasmus is a clever way to make a point or to emphasize an idea. In a chiasmus, the order of the words in the second of two parallel phrases is reversed. If that definition confuses you, just take another look at the diagram above; notice that the words *you* and *your country* in the second clause have simply been reversed.

Frederick Douglass uses *chiasmi* (the plural of chiasmus) throughout his *Narrative*. Although there is nothing cheerful or fun about his topics, one can imagine that Douglass took some pleasure, as a writer, in concocting chiasmi, and found the chiasmus to be an efficient, effective way to make his point.

Chiasmic phrases were especially useful in describing Mr. Gore, the cruel overseer.

He was just the **man** for such a **place**

and it was just the **place** for such a **man**.

Find the other example of a chiasmus in Chapter 4. Once you have located it, copy it onto a separate sheet of paper, dividing it into two clauses (as in the examples above). Write one clause above the other, and leave enough room to draw your X. Underline the words that are reversed and draw a connecting X between them.

Extensions

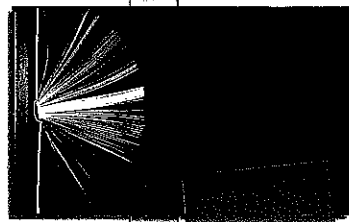
Language Alive! (cont.)

Chiasmi come in several varieties. Chiasmic questions are an age-old favorite of poets and philosophers. The Greek playwright Euripides asked, "Who knows but life be that which men call death, and death what men call life?"

Punsters and humorists also like to take advantage of chiasmic plays on words. Comedian Groucho Marx once said, "Money can't make you happy, and happy can't make you money." Richard Lederer, an American author known for his many books and articles on wordplay, loves to ask questions like, "Why do we drive on a parkway and park on a driveway?"

—If you have access to the Internet or a book of famous quotations, find another famous chiasmus, diagram it on a separate sheet of paper, and write a sentence or two explaining why you chose it and what it means to you.

—Try to write your own chiasmus. Use one of the examples above as a model if you need help. ☑



Name: _____

3L History Reading 63 – The War of 1812

American Perspective

P. 1 Written during war _____

Burned during war _____

P. 2 Not a strong leader in war _____

P. 3 Causes of War _____

Orders in Council _____

Impressment _____

P. 4 Treaty of Ghent provided for _____

P. 5 War problems due to _____

P. 6 American successes _____

Naval victories _____

P. 7 Helped into presidency _____

P. 8 War of the past _____

P. 10 Ushered in _____

Federalist _____

Promoted _____

British Perspective

P. 11 Americans stabbed in back _____

British fought with _____

P. 12 Orders in Council _____

Impressment _____

P. 13 British felt that Jefferson and Madison _____

P. 14 British goal _____

Madison's impressment demand aware _____

Canada defended by _____

P. 15 British blockade targeted _____

In 1814 American _____

British amphibious forces _____

In August 1814 _____

P. 16 American ocean successes _____

P. 17 War at sea turned against America because _____

P. 18 Decisive event of the war _____

P. 19 Ghent negotiations _____

American acceptance of treaty _____

P. 20 If U.S. had stayed in the war _____

From 1815-1890 American defense money _____

War of 1812 Timeline of Major Events

1803 - 1811

- 1803: British begin to impress American sailors and force them to work on British Ships.
- January 1806: James Madison delivers a report regarding British interference and impressment of sailors.
- June, 1807: The American ship Chesapeake is fired on by the British ship causing an international incident.
- Dec., 1807: Thomas Jefferson imposes an embargo on Great Britain but it results in economic disaster for American merchants and is discontinued in 1809.
- March, 1809: James Madison is inaugurated President of the United States.
- Nov., 1811: War Congress convenes. The Battle of Tippecanoe (in present-day Indiana), considered the first battle of the War of 1812, takes place between Tecumseh's brother, The Prophet, and William Henry Harrison's army.

1812

- June, 1812: America declares war on Great Britain.
- June – August 1812: Riots break out in Baltimore in protest of the war.
- July, 1812: General William Hull enters Canada. This is the first of three failed attempts made by the U.S. to invade Canada. The British force the surrender of Fort Michilimackinac (in Michigan).
- August, 1812: General William Hull surrenders to General Isaac Brock at Detroit.
- October, 1812: General Isaac Brock is killed at the Battle of Queenston Heights (Canada).

1813

- January, 1813: British and Indian allies repel American troops at the Battle of Frenchtown (Michigan). American survivors are killed the following day in the Raisin River Massacre (Michigan).
- April, 1813: U.S. troops capture and burn the city of York (present-day Toronto).
- May, 1813: The siege of Fort Meigs (present-day Ohio).
- Sept., 1813: Captain Perry defeats the British at the Battle of Lake Erie.
- October, 1813: The warrior Tecumseh is killed at the Battle of the Thames (Canada).
- Nov., 1813: The Battle of Crysler's Farm (Canada).

1814

- July, 1814: The Battle of Chippawa (Canada). The Battle of Lundy's Lane (Niagara Falls, Ontario, Canada).
- Aug., 1814: Peace negotiations begin in Ghent.
- Aug. 24-25, 1814: The British burn Washington, DC in retaliation for the burning of York. President James Madison flees the Capital.
- Sept., 1814: The Battle of Plattsburg on Lake Champlain is a major American victory, securing its northern border. The Battle of Baltimore takes place at Fort McHenry, where Francis Scott Key wrote The Star Spangled Banner.
- Dec., 1814: The Treaty of Ghent: Americans and British diplomats agree to the terms of a treaty and return to the status quo from before the war.

1815

- January, 1815: Andrew Jackson defeats the British at the Battle of New Orleans.
- February, 1815: The Peace Treaty is ratified and President Madison declares the war over.

An American Perspective on the War of 1812

by Donald Hickey

P.1 The War of 1812 is probably our most obscure conflict. Although a great deal has been written about the war, the average American is only vaguely aware of why we fought or who the enemy was. Even those who know something about the contest are likely to remember only a few dramatic moments, such as the writing of "The Star-Spangled Banner," the burning of the nation's capital, or the Battle of New Orleans.

P.2 Why is this war so obscure? One reason is that no great president is associated with the conflict. Although his enemies called it "Mr. Madison's War," James Madison was shy and deferential, hardly measuring up to such war leaders as Abraham Lincoln, Woodrow Wilson, or Franklin Roosevelt. Moreover, the best American generals in this war – Andrew Jackson, Jacob Brown, and Winfield Scott – were unable to turn the tide because each was confined to a one or two theaters in a war that had seven or eight theaters. No one like George Washington, Ulysses Grant, or Dwight Eisenhower emerged to put his stamp on the war and to carry the nation to victory.

P.3 Another reason for the obscurity of this war is that its causes are complex and little understood today. Most scholars agree that the war was fought over maritime issues, particularly the Orders in Council, which restricted American trade with the European Continent, and impressment, which was the Royal Navy's practice of removing seamen from American merchant vessels. In contemporary parlance, the war was fought for "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights." These issues seem arcane today. Moreover, the only way that the United States to strike at Great Britain was by attacking Canada, and that made it look like a war of territorial aggression. Even today Canadians are likely to see the war in this light, and who can blame them? A war fought to secure maritime rights by invading Canada strikes many people as curious.

The Consequences of the War

P.4 If the causes of the war are obscure, so too are the consequences. The United States has won most of its wars, often emerging with significant concessions from the enemy. But the War of 1812 was different. Far from bringing the enemy to terms, the nation was lucky to escape without making extensive concessions itself. The Treaty of Ghent (which ended the conflict) said nothing about the maritime issues that had caused the war and contained nothing to suggest that America had achieved its aims. Instead, it merely provided for returning to the status quo ante bellum – the state that had existed before the war.

P.5 The prosecution of the war was marred by considerable bungling and mismanagement. This was partly due to the nature of the republic. The nation was too young and immature – and its government too feeble and inexperienced – to prosecute a major war efficiently. Politics also played a part. Federalists vigorously opposed the conflict, and so too did some Republicans. Even those who supported the war feuded among themselves and never displayed the sort of patriotic enthusiasm that has been so evident in other American wars. The advocates of war appeared to support the conflict more with their heads than their hearts, and more with their hearts than their purses. As a result, efforts to raise men and money lagged far behind need.

P.6 Despite the bungling and half-hearted support that characterized this conflict, the War of 1812 was not without its stirring moments and splendid victories. American success at the Thames in the Northwest, the victories at Chippewa and Fort Erie on the Niagara front, the rousing defense of Baltimore in the Chesapeake, and the crushing defeat of the British at New Orleans – all these showed that with proper leadership and training American fighting men could hold their own against the well-drilled and battle-hardened regulars of Great Britain. Similarly, the naval victories on the

northern lakes and the high seas and the success of privateers around the globe demonstrated that, given the right odds, the nation's armed ships matched up well against even the vaunted and seemingly invincible Mistress of the Seas.

P.7 The war also produced its share of heroes—people whose reputations were enhanced by military or government service. The war helped catapult four men into the presidency – Andrew Jackson, John Quincy Adams, James Monroe, and William Henry Harrison – and three men into the vice-presidency – Daniel D. Tompkins, John C. Calhoun, and Richard M. Johnson. The war also gave a significant boost to the political or military careers of other men. Indeed, for many young men on the make, the war offered an excellent launching pad for a career.

P.8 In some ways, the War of 1812 looked more to the past than to the future. As America's second and last war against Great Britain, it echoed the ideology and issues of the American Revolution. It was the second and last time that America was the underdog in a war and the second and last time that the nation tried to conquer Canada. It was also the last time that Indians played a major role in determining the future of the continent. In this sense, the War of 1812 was the last of the North American colonial wars. The war was unusual in generating such vehement political opposition and nearly unique in ending in a stalemate on the battlefield. Although most Americans pretended they had won the war – even calling it a "Second War of Independence"—they could point to few concrete gains – certainly none in the peace treaty – to sustain this claim.

P.9 It is this lack of success that may best explain why the war is so little remembered. Americans have characteristically judged their wars on the basis of their success. The best-known wars – the Revolution, the Civil War, and World War II – were all clear-cut successes. Although many people remembered the War of 1812 as a success, it was in a very real sense a failure, and perhaps this is why it attracts so little attention today.

P.10 The obscurity of this war, however, should not blind us to its significance, for it was an important turning point, a great watershed, in the history of the young republic. It concluded almost a quarter of a century of troubled diplomacy and partisan politics and ushered in the Era of Good Feelings. It marked the end of the Federalist party but the vindication of Federalist policies, many of which were adopted by Republicans during or after the war. The war also broke the power of American Indians and reinforced the powerful undercurrent of Anglophobia that had been spawned by the Revolution a generation before. In addition, it promoted national self-confidence and encouraged the heady expansionism that lay at the heart of American foreign policy for the rest of the century. Finally, the war gave the fledgling republic a host of sayings, symbols, and songs that helped Americans define who they were and where their young republic was headed. Although looking to the past, the war was fraught with consequences for the future, and for this reason it is worth studying today.

*Donald R. Hickey is a professor of history at Wayne State College, Wayne, Nebraska. He is the author of **Don't Give Up the Ship: Myths of the War of 1812** and **The War of 1812: A Forgotten Conflict**.*

<http://www.pbs.org/wned/war-of-1812/essays/american-perspective/>

A British Perspective on the War of 1812

by Andrew Lambert

P.11
The War of 1812 has been referred to as a victorious "Second War for Independence," and used to define Canadian identity, but the British only remember 1812 as the year Napoleon marched to Moscow. This is not surprising. In British eyes, the conflict with America was an annoying sideshow. The Americans had stabbed them in the back while they, the British, were busy fighting a total war against the French Empire, directed by their most inveterate enemy. For a nation fighting Napoleon Bonaparte, James Madison was an annoying irrelevance. Consequently the American war would be fought with whatever money, manpower and naval force that could be spared, no more than seven percent of the total British military effort.

Orders in Council

P.12
War with America was a direct consequence of the Napoleonic conflict. Britain relied on a maritime economic blockade to defeat France. When American merchants tried to exploit their neutral status to breach this blockade, the British introduced new laws, the 'Orders in Council', to block this trading. In the same spirit, when British warships stopped American merchant ships, they forcibly impressed any British sailors they found into the Royal Navy. While some of these men were Americans, most were British. Some had deserted from the Royal Navy, a hanging offence. Britain was in a total war with France. There would be no place for neutral traders, no amnesty for deserters. Although American statesmen complained in public, in private they admitted that fully half of the sailors on American merchant ships were British subjects.

P.13
Some in Britain thought the Orders in Council could be relaxed, and in fact, the Orders were suspended in June of 1812. But no one doubted Britain's right to impress her sailors, and all blamed the Americans for employing British seamen when the Royal Navy needed them. A decade of American complaints and economic restrictions only served to convince the British that Jefferson and Madison were pro-French, and violently anti-British. Consequently, when America finally declared war, she had very few friends in Britain. Many remembered the War of Independence, some had lost fathers or brothers in the fighting; others were the sons of Loyalists driven from their homes.

Britain's Response to the American Declaration of War

P.14
The British had no interest in fighting this war, and once it began, they had one clear goal: keep the United States from taking any part of Canada. At the outset, they hoped that, by pointing out that the Orders in Council had been revoked, the U.S. would suspend hostilities. Instead, President Madison demanded an end to impressment, well aware that Britain would not make such a concession in wartime. And so Britain went to war, with no troops to spare to reinforce Canada; it would be defended by a handful of British regulars, Native Americans and Canadian militia.

P.15
The British imposed the same devastating economic blockade that had crippled France, carefully targeting states like Virginia that had voted for war. By autumn 1814 the American economy had collapsed. British followed up with amphibious forces raiding around Chesapeake Bay, raising regiments of former slaves as they went. In August, 1814 four thousand British troops captured and burnt Washington, D.C.

The War at Sea

P.16
While these military successes were welcome, British views of the American war were dominated by what happened on the ocean. In 1812, American super frigates captured smaller, less powerful British opponents in three single ship actions. Despite the marked inequality between the combatants, these actions were profoundly shocking for the heirs of Nelson. To make matters worse American privateers took a heavy toll of British merchant ships. The public blamed the Government for these losses, and the ministers responded by reinforcing the fleet before the 1813 campaign.

P.17

The enlarged fleet imposed an effective convoy system, cutting the supply of prizes and capturing a steady stream of privateers. The next three frigate battles reversed the pattern of 1812. On June 1, 1813 HMS Shannon captured the USS Chesapeake off Boston in only eleven minutes, perhaps the most brilliant single ship action ever fought, making Captain Philip Broke the British hero of the war. On February 28th, 1814 HMS Phoebe took the USS Essex at Valparaiso, Chile in a similarly one-sided action. Finally, on January 14th 1815 the American flagship, the big 44 gun frigate USS President commanded by Stephen Decatur, was hunted down and defeated off Sandy Hook by HMS Endymion. The American flagship became HMS President, a name that still graces the list of Her Majesty's Fleet. The war at sea had turned against America, the U.S. Navy had been defeated, privateers curbed, ports closed and trade at a standstill.

The End of the Napoleonic Conflict

P.18

The decisive event of the war was the abdication of Napoleon in April, 1814. This gave the British the option of increasing their military effort to secure a decisive victory. But the Duke of Wellington's army remained in Europe, sending a few regiments to facilitate the capture of Washington. The British focus on Europe remained absolute from 1803 to 1815: securing a peaceful, stable and durable settlement on the continent was far more important than the Canadian frontier.

P.19

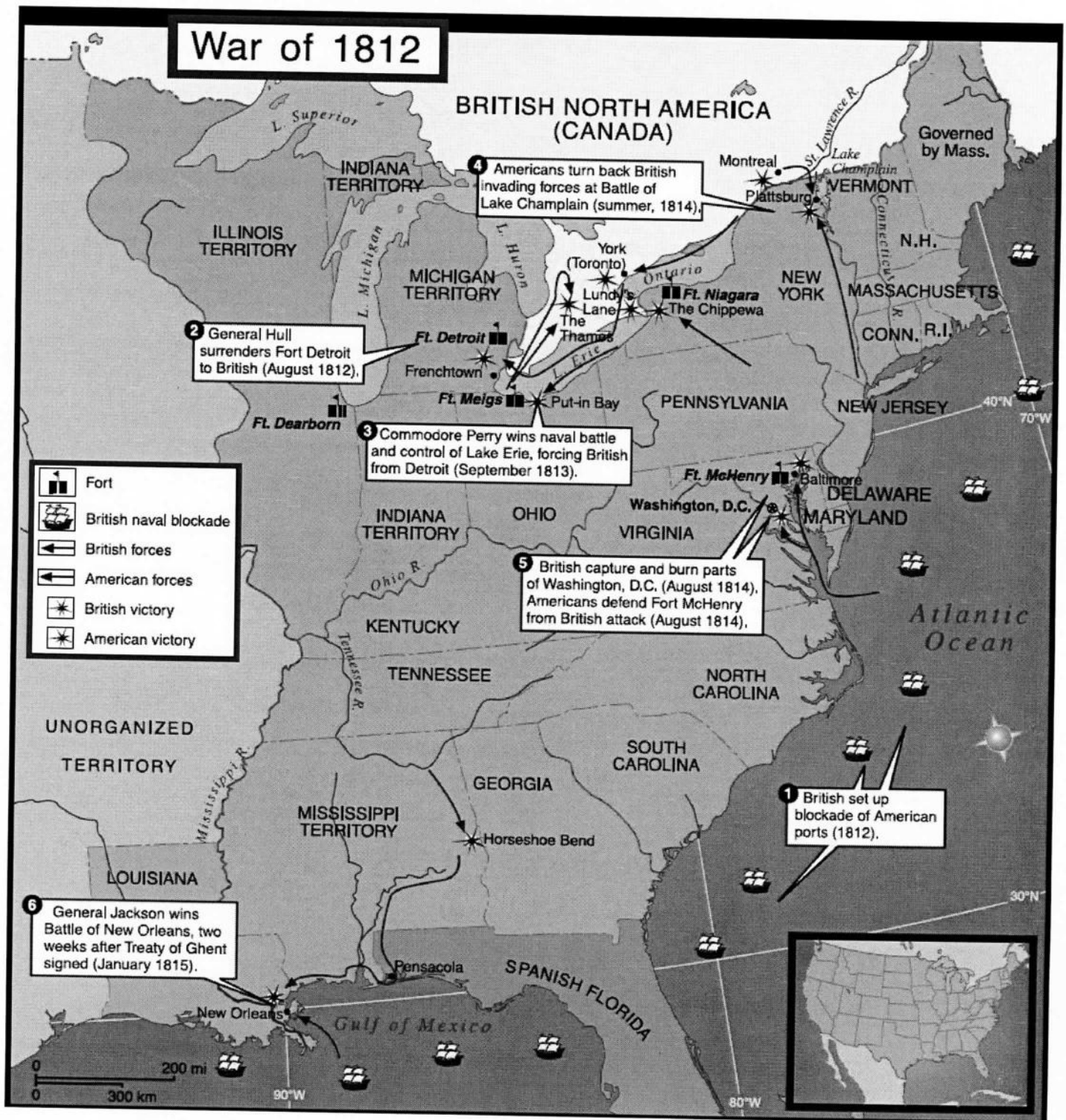
Even when the British agreed to negotiate with the U.S., the discussions at Ghent remained entirely subordinate to the main diplomatic gathering at Vienna. Eventually the British offered a status quo ante bellum peace, without concession by either side: the Treaty of Ghent ignored the Orders in Council, the belligerent rights and impressment. By accepting these terms the Americans acknowledged the complete failure of the war to achieve any of their strategic or political aims. Once the treaty had been signed, on Christmas Eve 1814, the British returned the focus to Europe.

P.20

The wisdom of their decision soon became obvious: Napoleon returned to power in 1815, only to meet his Waterloo at the hands of Wellington. Had the U.S. stayed in the war, the army that defeated Napoleon might have been sent to America. Anglo-American relations remained difficult for the next fifty years, but when crises erupted over frontiers and maritime rights, British statesmen subtly reminded the Americans who had won the War of 1812, and how they had won it. In case any doubt remains the results were written in stone all along the American coast. Between 1815 and 1890, American defence expenditure was dominated by the construction of coastal fortifications on the Atlantic seaboard.

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<http://www.pbs.org/wned/war-of-1812/essays/british-perspective/>



Name: _____

3L Reading 64 - Western Settlement

The Fur Trade

P. 1 _____

P. 2 _____

P. 3 _____

P. 4 _____

Oregon Country

P. 1 _____

P. 2 In 1819 Adams-Onis Treaty _____

Russia withdrew _____

Britain and U.S. continued _____

P. 3 1830s-1840s Americans _____

Whitmans moved to Oregon Country to _____

P. 4 Whitmans failed _____

Oregon Trail

P. 1 Oregon Trail _____

Hitting the Trail

P. 1 Oregon fever _____

P. 2 pioneer journeys _____

Wagon trains _____

The Long Journey West

P. 1 Obstacles _____

Native Americans _____

P. 2 Pioneers walked _____

P. 4 By 1845 _____

The California Trail

P. 1 California Trail _____

P. 2 Donner party _____

P. 3 Few Americans _____

Californios _____

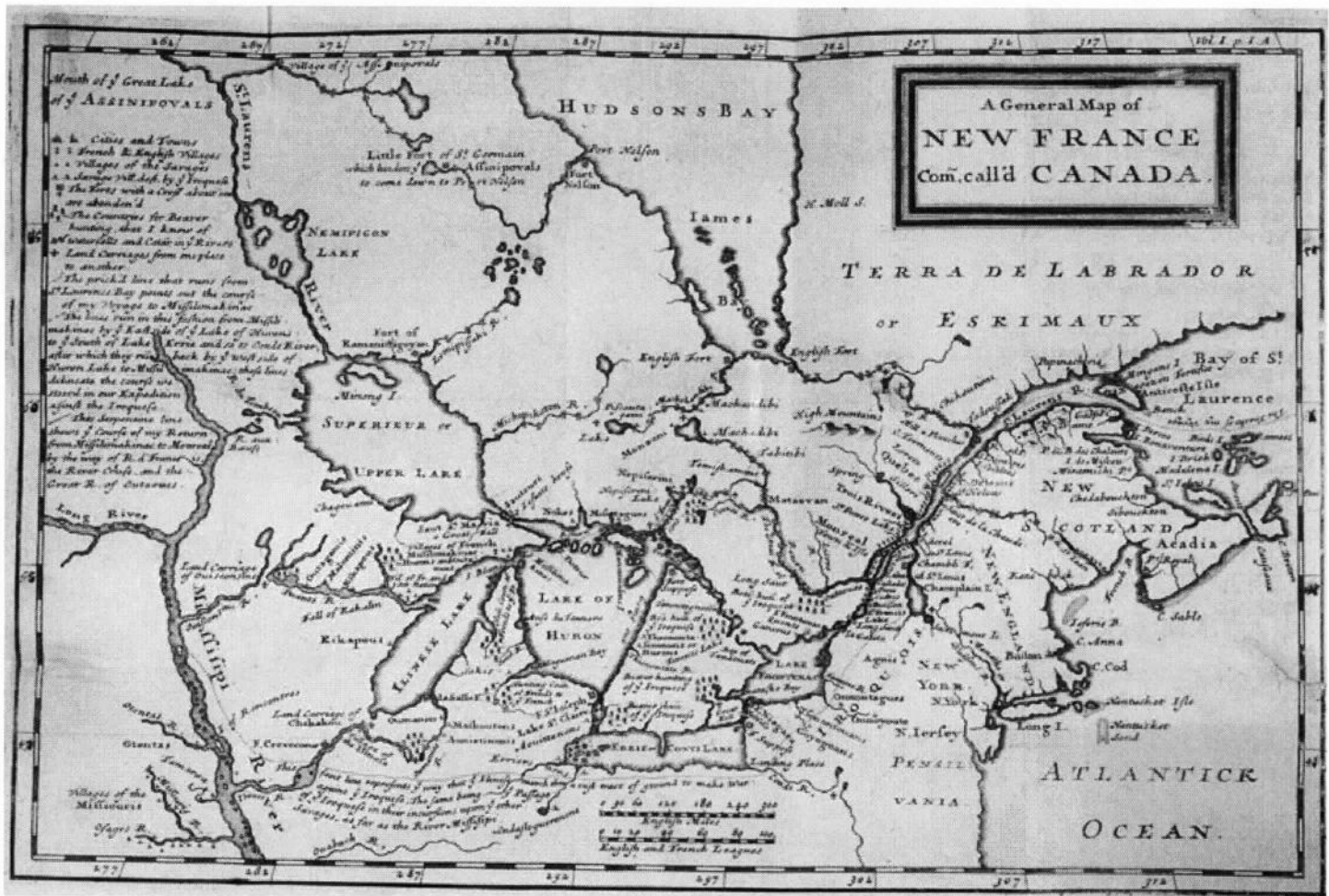
The Santa Fe Trail

P. 1 Santa Fe trail _____

P. 2 Traders lured _____

Fur trade in Minnesota

- P. 1 From 1500-1800 the French _____
 Europeans goods included _____
- P. 2 French voyageurs started in _____
- P. 3 In 1754 the British and French _____
 Due to fierce competition among British companies _____
- P. 4 Lower demand for pelts was due to _____
 By 1870s _____



Louis Lahontan. *New Voyages to North-America*, 1703, v. 1 (Newberry Library, Graff 2364). General Map of New France. This map shows where French traders were established by the end of the 18th century. Montreal was a major trade depot, and note LaSalle's fort on the southeast shore of Illinois Lake and Fort Crevecoeur, established by La Salle in 1679, on the Illinese [Illinois] River. The British presence is farther east.

★ The Fur Trade

P.1 Most of the first non-Indians who journeyed to the Rocky Mountains and beyond were fur traders and trappers, known as **mountain men**. Manuel Lisa, Jim Bridger, and Jedediah Smith were well-known mountain men. Like others, these mountain men supported themselves by selling furs to merchants from the eastern states and Europe. The merchants bought the furs to make hats and other articles of clothing, which were very fashionable at the time.

P.2 Mountain men lived an isolated and dangerous lifestyle. In order to survive, many mountain men adopted American Indian customs and clothing. Mountain men also frequently married American Indian women. A mountain man's success often depended largely on the knowledge and hard work of his wife.

P.3 Once a year mountain men met to trade and socialize in an event known as the **rendezvous**. At the rendezvous, mountain men and American Indian trappers would sell their furs to agents from fur companies. One trapper described the participants of a typical rendezvous in 1837 as "Americans and Canadian French with some Dutch, Scotch, Irish, English, . . . and full blood Indians." Trapper Joseph Thing wrote that the rendezvous was full of "as crazy a set of men as I ever saw."

P.4 Fur trading lasted only a few decades. By the 1840s the demand for beaver pelts decreased as clothing fashions changed. Overtrapping had also greatly reduced the supply of beaver and other animals. Some mountain men began guiding miners and ranchers to the West. In the 1840s these new settlers replaced the mountain men.

★ Oregon Country

P.1 In 1811 John Jacob Astor had founded Astoria, a fur-trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River in present-day Oregon. This outpost was one of the earliest U.S. settlements in the region that became known as Oregon Country.

P.2 In the early 1800s Indian tribes such as the Flathead, the Nez Percé, the Bannock, and the Shoshoni lived in Oregon Country. Britain, Russia, Spain, and the United States also claimed ownership of this land. In 1819 the Adams-Onís Treaty set the limit of Spain's claim to the region at the northern border of present-day California. Russia withdrew its claims to any land south of present-day Alaska in an 1824 treaty. The United States, Britain, and American Indian tribes remained as rivals. In 1827 the United States and Britain extended an 1818 treaty for joint occupation of Oregon Country. Both sides wanted to maintain access to the Columbia River and its surrounding land.

P.3 Despite Britain's interest in the Pacific Northwest, relatively few settlers from Britain or Canada moved into the area. In the late 1830s and early 1840s, however, many Americans began making the difficult journey across the Great Plains to Oregon Country. Missionaries, such as Marcus and Narcissa Whitman, were among the pioneers who helped to settle Oregon Country. The Whitmans traveled to the Pacific Northwest in 1836, hoping to convert the local American Indians to Christianity. Narcissa Whitman and another missionary were the first two white women known to have crossed North America.

P.4 The Whitmans established a mission called Waiilatpu near the present-day city of Walla Walla, Washington. Despite their goal, they succeeded in converting only a few of the local Cayuse Indians. In part their mission failed because the Whitmans wanted the Cayuse to give up their traditional customs, as well as change their religion.

P.5 Over time, Waiilatpu mission became a frequent stopping point for settlers arriving in Oregon Country. The Whitmans provided rest and shelter for many of these weary travelers. As Marcus Whitman wrote, "I have no doubt our greatest work is to . . . aid the white settlement of this country."



Missionary
Narcissa Whitman

★ The Oregon Trail

P.1 Many of the settlers moving to Oregon Country and other western areas followed the **Oregon Trail**. Stretching more than 2,000 miles across the northern Great Plains and the Rocky Mountains, the Oregon Trail challenged the endurance and determination of these pioneer families.

Hitting the Trail

P.1 Many Americans looked to the West as a place to improve their lives, especially in the decade after the economic crisis of the Panic of 1837. One mid-western newspaper, the *Ohio Statesman*, reported in May 1843 that "the Oregon fever is raging in almost every part of the Union."

P.2 The pioneers' journey usually began in late spring, once the rainy season ended, and lasted for six to eight months. A family of four needed about \$600 to buy the supplies necessary for the trip. This was a large sum at a time when laborers made around \$1.50 per day. Most of the groups were young families who formed wagon trains ranging in size from 10 to several dozen wagons.

The Long Journey West

P.1 Pioneer families faced enormous obstacles on the trail. Shortages of food, water, and supplies were common. Pioneers also faced rough weather and natural barriers such as rivers and mountains. Along the way, American Indians often helped pioneers by acting as guides for the wagon trains or by supplying food in exchange for various trade goods.

P.2 Men and women walked much of the way on the trail. In doing so, they hoped to conserve their animals' strength. They also wanted to free up space in the wagons for supplies and the sick. The pioneers kept up a tiring pace, traveling from dawn until dusk.

P.3 At the end of each day's journey, much work remained to be done. Women unpacked wagons, cooked the evening meal, cleaned up, washed clothes, and tended to children. Men looked after livestock, hunted for food, and scouted the trail ahead.

P.4 The settlers who arrived safely in Oregon and California found generally healthy and pleasant climates and fertile valleys for farming. By 1845 about 5,000 settlers occupied the Willamette River Valley.

★ The California Trail

P.1 The Oregon Trail followed the Platte and Sweetwater Rivers over the Plains. It led across the Rockies, then forked at the Snake River in present-day Idaho. Most settlers followed the northern branch to Oregon. A few settlers took the southern branch leading to California. This route became known as the **California Trail**.

P.2 On the California Trail, settlers and traders faced a particular danger—snow. Travelers needed to cross the Sierra Nevada before the first snows fell. Otherwise, crossing the mountain range would be dangerous and almost impossible. The **Donner party** was perhaps the most tragic example of a group of western travelers with bad luck and poor judgment.

A rescue party finally found the group in February 1847. Of the original 87 members of the party, 40 had died.

P.3 Despite the increased traffic along the California Trail, few Americans actually settled in California. The population there included a small number of Spanish colonists, called **Californios**, in addition to Mexicans and American Indians. The American merchants in California were more interested in trading manufactured goods for hides, tallow (animal fat used for soap and candles), and gold dust than in settling in the region. In addition, Mexican officials did not want large numbers of Americans to settle in California, as they had done in Texas.

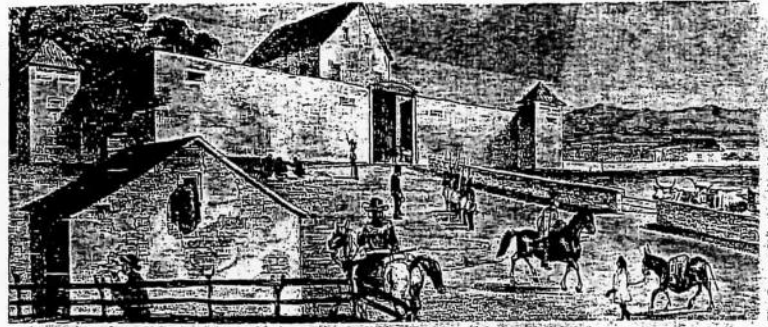
★ The Santa Fe Trail

P.1 After Mexico had gained independence from Spain in 1821, the newly liberated country allowed American merchants to trade in the former Spanish Southwest. These traders soon established the **Santa Fe Trail**, which ran from Independence, Missouri, to Santa Fe, New Mexico. Unlike the Oregon Trail, the Santa Fe Trail was not often used as a migration route.

P.2 The long trip across the desert and mountains was difficult and dangerous, but the lure of high profits encouraged traders to take the trail. The U.S. government helped protect traders by sending troops and money to ensure Indian cooperation.

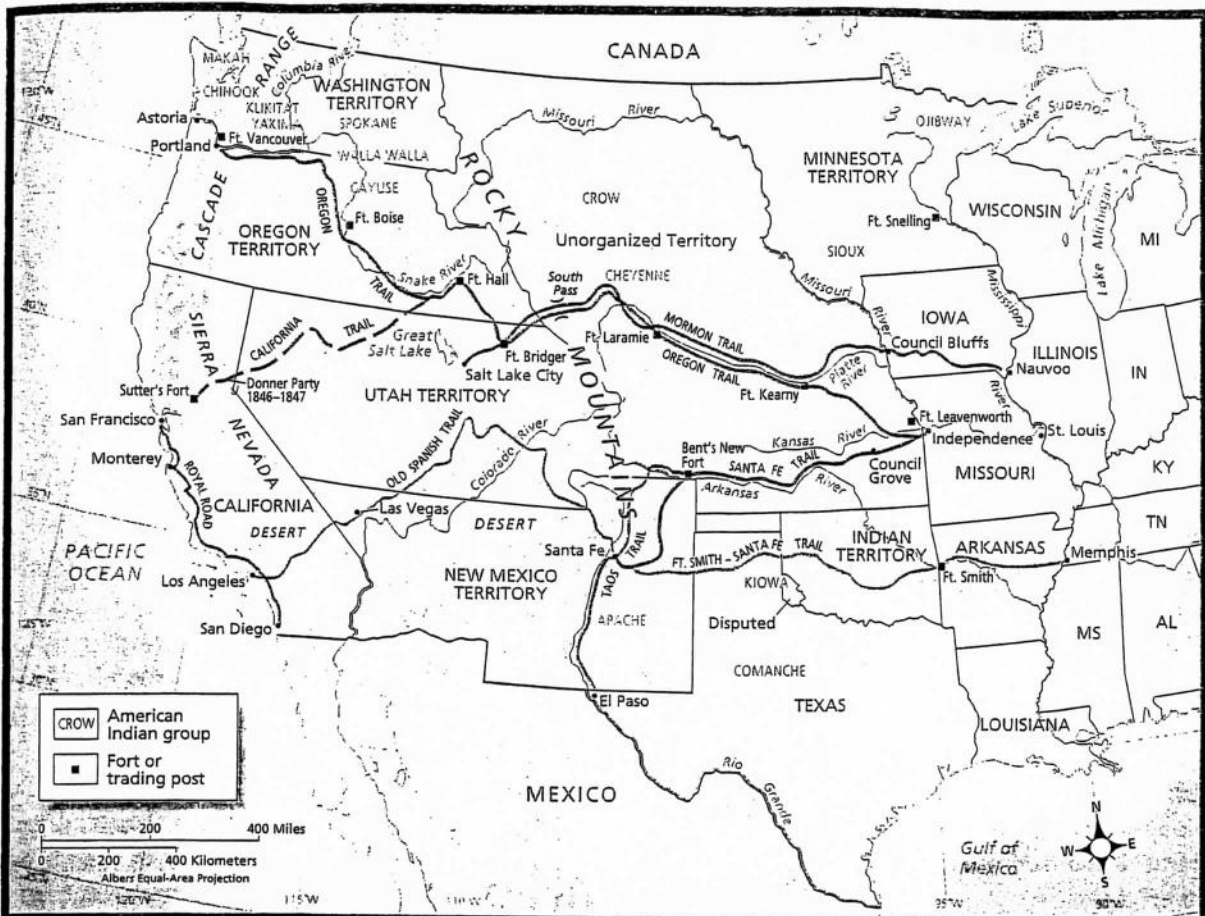


An artist's portrait of a mountain man



Sutter's Fort, a popular stopping point on the California Trail, was located on the site of present-day Sacramento, California.

The Granger Collection, New York



Major Overland Routes to the West by 1860

Learning from Maps The rough terrain and lack of a constant water supply made many of the overland routes extremely dangerous.

Movement What trails led between Fort Laramie and Fort Bridger? What pass allowed settlers to cut through the Rocky Mountains?



Fur Trade in Minnesota

Source: Minnesota historical Society

[Http://libguides.mnhs.org/furtrade](http://libguides.mnhs.org/furtrade)

P1

The fur trade was one of the earliest economic exchanges in North American history. In the early years—roughly 1500 to 1800—the French dominated the trade of animal pelts in exchange for European goods such as rifles, alcohol, cured tobacco, and iron tools. In contrast to the British, Spanish, and Americans, the French were less interested in conquering territories, and therefore, they maintained amicable relationships with various Native American tribes.

P2
Starting in Montreal and Quebec City, French voyageurs made their way as far west as the present day Dakotas and Montana using rivers and the Great Lakes. The journey took several months each way and required that traders winter in the west among Native Americans and build their own forts. Many of these forts are still standing today.

P3
In 1754, the British and French warred over establishing a fur-trade monopoly in what became known as the French-Indian war. British companies began to compete with one another after the French lost both the war and their domination of the fur trade in 1763. Because of fierce competition, over-trapping led to the decimation of many fur-bearing animals.

P4
In the 1830s silk was introduced to England, lowering the demand for and price of beaver fur. Combined with over-trapping, this lowered demand greatly changed the the fur trade and the relationships between traders and Native Americans. By the 1870s, fur trading had mostly died out.

Name: _____ Date: _____

U.S. History - Do Now

Directions: Read the excerpt below and answer the questions that follow.

"The **Battle of Tippecanoe** was fought on November 7, 1811, between United States forces led by Governor William Henry Harrison of the Indiana Territory and forces of Tecumseh's growing American Indian confederation led by his brother, Tenskwatawa (The Prophet). In response to rising tensions with the tribes and threats of war, an American force of militia and regulars set out to launch a preemptive strike on the headquarters of the confederacy. The battle took place outside Prophetstown, at the confluence of the Tippecanoe and Wabash Rivers.

Although the Americans were victorious both tactically (as they held their ground and Prophetstown was destroyed the next morning) and strategically (Tecumseh's confederacy never recovered), the win was costly as the tribes attacked with fewer men and sustained fewer casualties. The battle was the culmination of rising tensions in a period sometimes called Tecumseh's War, which continued until Tecumseh's death in 1813. In addition to serving as an important political and symbolic victory for the American forces, Tippecanoe dealt a devastating blow to Tecumseh's confederacy, which never regained its former strength. Public opinion in the United States blamed the Native American uprising on British interference and helped catalyze the War of 1812, which broke out only six months later."

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Tippecanoe

- ___ 1. The Battle of Tippecanoe was fought between
 - a. The British and the Americans
 - b. The British and the Native Americans
 - c. The Americans and the Native Americans
 - d. The British and Native Americans versus the Americans

- ___ 2. This battle was important because
 - a. it was the culmination of Tecumseh's War
 - b. it was an important political and symbolic victory for American forces
 - c. it dealt a blow to Tecumseh's confederacy that it never recovered from
 - d. all of the above

- ___ 3. One of the effects of the battle was that
 - a. Tecumseh's confederacy grew in strength
 - b. Americans lost both tactically and strategically
 - c. Governor Harrison's political career came to an end
 - d. the U.S. blamed it on British interference and it helped start the War of 1812

Name: _____

Date: _____

Do Now – Star Spangled Banner

"The Star-Spangled Banner" is the national anthem of the United States of America. The lyrics come from a poem written in 1814 by Francis Scott Key, a then 35-year-old amateur poet who wrote "Defense of Fort McHenry" after seeing the bombardment of Fort McHenry at Baltimore, Maryland, by Royal Navy ships in the Chesapeake Bay during the War of 1812.' From Wikipedia

The Star-Spangled Banner

O! say can you see by the dawn's early light
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming,
Whose broad stripes and bright stars through the perilous
fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming.
And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.
O! say does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen through the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines in the stream:
'Tis the star-spangled banner! Oh long may it wave

O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

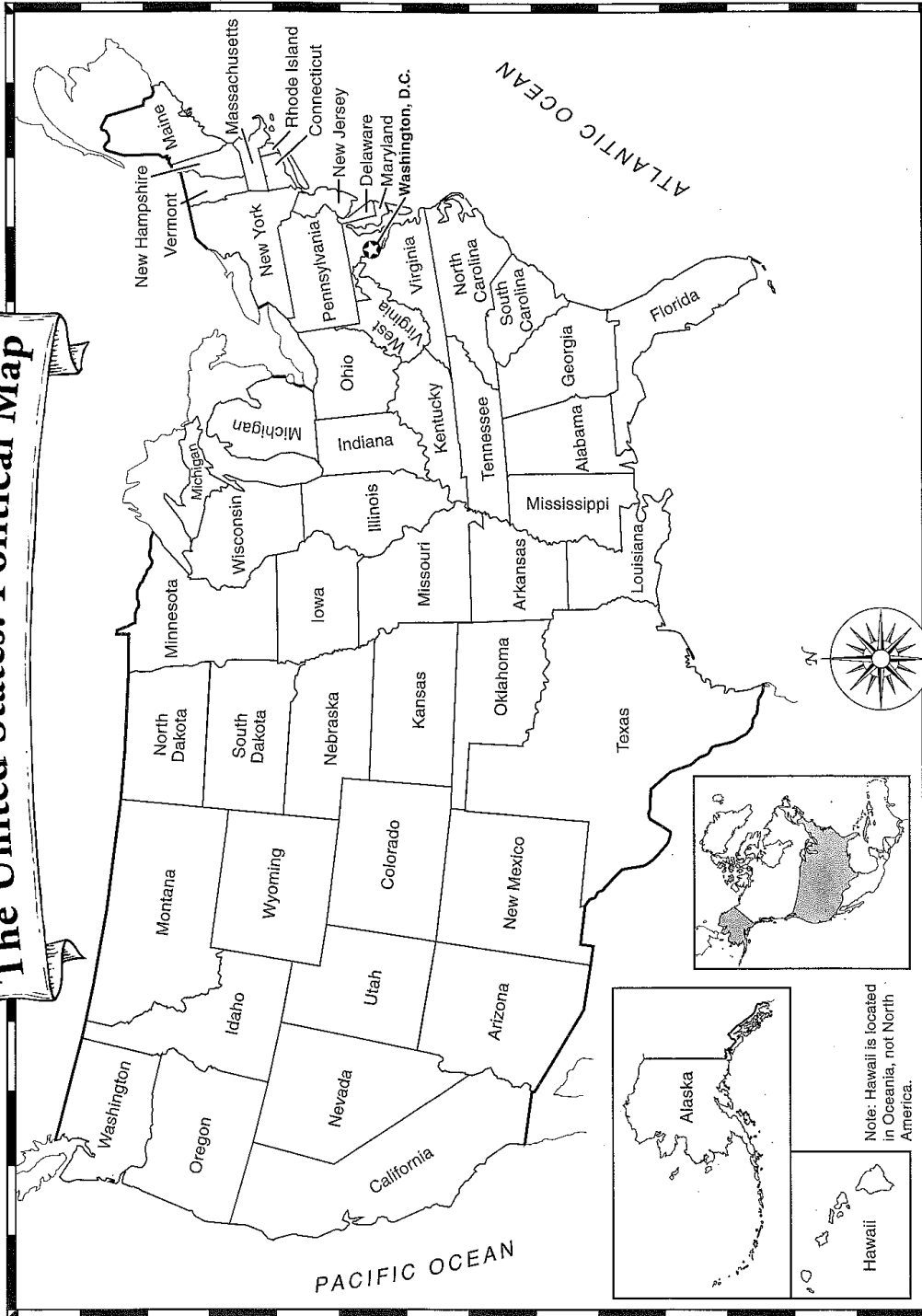
And where is that band who so vauntingly swore
That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion,
A home and a country should leave us no more!
Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps' pollution.
No refuge could save the hireling and slave
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave:
And the star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

O! thus be it ever, when freemen shall stand
Between their loved home and the war's desolation!
Blest with victory and peace, may the heav'n rescued land
Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation.
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just,
And this be our motto: 'In God is our trust.'
And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!^[9]

Read the lyrics to our national anthem and answer the questions below.

1. In the first stanza (a poetry paragraph) it says "Whose broad stripes and bright stars" and this refers to what American symbol?
 - a. The American flag with its decoration of stripes and stars
 - b. Abrahma Lincoln
 - C. the American eagle
 - d. a military man
2. In the first stanza it says "And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air" refers to
 - a. the July 4th celebrations
 - b. the glory of military life
 - c. the high hopes of our country
 - d. what it is like during war
3. In the first stanza it refers to "the land of the free and the home of the brave" and this means
 - a. the city of Atlanta, the home of the Braves baseball team
 - b. America
 - c. the Native Americans who lived here first
 - d. the North during the Civil War

The United States: Political Map



The 50 States and Capitals of the United States of America

eviation	Capital	State	Abbreviation	Capital	State
AL	MONTGOMERY	ALABAMA	MT	HELENA	MONTANA
AK	JUNEAU	ALASKA	NE	LINCOLN	NEBRASKA
AZ	PHOENIX	ARIZONA	NV	CARSON CITY	NEVADA
AR	LITTLE ROCK	ARKANSAS	NH	CONCORD	NEW HAMPSHIRE
CA	SACRAMENTO	CALIFORNIA	NJ	TRENTON	NEW JERSEY
CO	DENVER	COLORADO	NM	SANTA FE	NEW MEXICO
CT	HARTFORD	CONNECTICUT	NY	ALBANY	NEW YORK
DE	DOVER	DELAWARE	NC	RALEIGH	NORTH CAROLINA
FL	TALLAHASSEE	FLORIDA	ND	BISMARCK	NORTH DAKOTA
GA	ATLANTA	GEORGIA	OH	COLUMBUS	OHIO
HI	HONOLULU	HAWAII	OK	OKLAHOMA CITY	OKLAHOMA
ID	BOISE	IDAHO	OR	SALEM	OREGON
IL	SPRINGFIELD	ILLINOIS	PA	HARRISBURG	PENNSYLVANIA
IN	INDIANAPOLIS	INDIANA	RI	PROVIDENCE	RHODE ISLAND
IA	DES MOINES	IOWA	SC	COLUMBIA	SOUTH CAROLINA
KS	TOPEKA	KANSAS	SD	PIERRE	SOUTH DAKOTA
KY	FRANKFORT	KENTUCKY	TN	NASHVILLE	TENNESSEE
LA	BATON ROUGE	LOUISIANA	TX	AUSTIN	TEXAS
ME	AUGUSTA	MAINE	UT	SALT LAKE CITY	UTAH
MD	ANNAPOLIS	MARYLAND	VT	MONTPELIER	VERMONT
MA	BOSTON	MASSACHUSETTS	VA	RICHMOND	VIRGINIA
MI	LANSING	MICHIGAN	WA	OLYMPIA	WASHINGTON
MN	ST. PAUL	MINNESOTA	WV	CHARLESTON	WEST VIRGINIA
MS	JACKSON	MISSISSIPPI	WI	MADISON	WISCONSIN
MO	JEFFERSON CITY	MISSOURI	WY	CHEYENNE	WYOMING

The capital of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA is WASHINGTON DC.

Southeast Region

On blanks below write
state name, capital city
and abbreviation.



State	Abbreviation	Capital City	State	Abbreviation	Capital City
1. _____	_____	_____	8. _____	_____	_____
2. _____	_____	_____	9. _____	_____	_____
3. _____	_____	_____	10. _____	_____	_____
4. _____	_____	_____	11. _____	_____	_____
5. _____	_____	_____	12. _____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	13. _____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	14. _____	_____	_____

Match the state with the capital.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|
| ___ 1. Virginia | A. Montgomery |
| ___ 2. Tennessee | B. Jackson |
| ___ 3. South Carolina | C. Little Rock |
| ___ 4. North Carolina | D. Raleigh |
| ___ 5. Mississippi | E. Tallahassee |
| ___ 6. Louisiana | F. Nashville |
| ___ 7. Kentucky | G. Atlanta |
| ___ 8. Georgia | H. Richmond |
| ___ 9. Florida | I. Frankfort |
| ___ 10. Arkansas | J. Columbia |
| ___ 11. Alabama | K. Baton Rouge |
| ___ 12. West Virginia | L. Dover |
| ___ 13. Maryland | M. Charleston |
| ___ 14. Delaware | N. Annapolis |

Match the capital with the state

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| ___ 15. Concord | O. New Jersey |
| ___ 16. Augusta | P. Connecticut |
| ___ 17. Providence | Q. Massachusetts |
| ___ 18. Harrisburg | R. Vermont |
| ___ 19. Montpelier | S. New Hampshire |
| ___ 20. Boston | T. Maine |
| ___ 21. Trenton | U. Pennsylvania |
| ___ 22. Albany | V. Rhode Island |
| ___ 23. Hartford | W. New York |

Write the state abbreviation

- | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------------|
| ___ 24. Maine | ___ 31. New Jersey | ___ 38. Florida | ___ 45. Maryland |
| ___ 25. New Hampshire | ___ 32. Pennsylvania | ___ 39. South Carolina | ___ 46. Delaware |
| ___ 26. Vermont | ___ 33. Louisiana | ___ 40. North Carolina | |
| ___ 27. Massachusetts | ___ 34. Arkansas | ___ 41. Tennessee | |
| ___ 28. Rhode Island | ___ 35. Mississippi | ___ 42. Kentucky | |
| ___ 29. Connecticut | ___ 36. Alabama | ___ 43. Virginia | |
| ___ 30. New York | ___ 37. Georgia | ___ 44. West Virginia | |

Name: _____

R. 64

3L Do Now - Daniel Boone: American Pioneer and Explorer

Colonel Daniel Boone (October 22, 1734 - September 26, 1820) was an American pioneer, soldier, and explorer. Boone was born in Pennsylvania. He founded the first US settlement west of the Appalachian Mountains. A frontiersman and folk hero, Boone explored the Kentucky wilderness from 1769 to 1782. He traveled down the Ohio River and trapped furs in the Green and Cumberland Valleys.

In 1773, Boone brought a group of settlers to Kentucky. As they traveled over the Cumberland Gap, Boone's oldest son, James, and five other members of the party were killed by Native Americans. The settlers went home to North Carolina immediately; Boone and his family spent the winter in the Clinch River Valley, then returned home.

Determined to settle the rich land of Kentucky, Judge Henderson (a wealthy local businessman) organized the Transylvania Company in order to buy land from Native Americans. Boone negotiated the price with the Cherokee Indians; their agreement is called the Watauga Treaty. In 1775, Henderson sent Boone and 28 settlers across the Cumberland Gap into Kentucky, along what is now called the Wilderness Trail. Boone built a fort on the Kentucky River in what is now Madison County.

Boone was captured by Shawnee Indians in 1778 and was given up for dead. After more attacks by Native Americans, he brought more settlers to Kentucky in 1779; among these settlers were Abraham Lincoln's grandmother and grandfather.

Boone was elected to the Virginia legislature in 1781. In later Indian attacks, his brother Edward and his son Israel were killed. These attacks prompted a major campaign against Native Americans by George Rogers Clark. Boone lost all of his land claims, and spent the rest of his life moving - he lived in Ohio, West Virginia, and Missouri. Boone's book, called "Adventures," detailed his exploits and capture by the Shawnee Indians; it was published in 1784 to much public acclaim.

<http://www.enchantedlearning.com/explorers/page/b/boone.shtml>

Cumberland Gap (el. 1,600 ft (490 m)) is a pass through the Cumberland Mountains region of the Appalachian Mountains at the junction of the U.S. states of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Virginia. Famous in American history for its role as one key passageway through the lower central Appalachians, it was an important part of the Wilderness Road and is now part of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Long used by Native Americans, the Cumberland Gap was brought to the attention of settlers in 1750 by Dr. Thomas Walker, a Virginia physician and explorer. The path was widened by a team of loggers led by Daniel Boone, making it accessible to pioneers who used it to journey into the western frontiers of Kentucky and Tennessee.

Cumberland Gap is located just north of the spot where the current-day states of Kentucky, Tennessee and Virginia meet. The nearby town of Cumberland Gap, Tennessee takes its name from the pass.

It is estimated that between 200,000 and 300,000 migrants passed through the gap on their way into Kentucky and the Ohio Valley before 1810.

1. Why is Daniel Boone considered a pioneer? What do you think the term pioneer means? _____

2. Why is the Cumberland Gap considered an important pioneer route? _____

3. Why do you think pioneers wanted to settle west of the Appalachian Mountains? _____

Name: _____

Hour: _____

Western Exploration - Zebulon Pike Do Now

Before Lewis and Clark returned from their expedition, another explorer set out from St. Louis, Missouri. From 1805-1807, Zebulon Pike explored the upper Mississippi River (including the Twin Cities - hence Pike Island near St. Paul), the Arkansas River, and parts of present-day Colorado and New Mexico. In November 1806, Pike viewed a mountain peak rising above the Colorado plains. Today, this mountain is known as Pike's Peak and Ms. Byrne used to see it out her college dorm window.

Continuing further westward into the Rocky Mountains, Pike came upon a small river. It was the Rio Grande. Pike had entered into Spanish territory. Spanish troops soon arrested Pike and his men and took them into Mexico.

After being questioned and detained for a while, the Americans were escorted through Texas back into the United States. The Spanish had confiscated Pike's maps and journals. Still, Pike was able to remember enough to write a report. The report greatly expanded American's knowledge about the area west of the Mississippi, including the Southwest.

Mark your answer either **T for true** or **F for false**:

- ___ 1. Lewis and Clark were the only explorers to explore the new Louisiana Territory.
- ___ 2. An island in the Mississippi River near St. Paul is named after Zebulon Pike.
- ___ 3. When Pike crossed the Rio Grande, he entered French territory.
- ___ 4. Pike's report did not include any information about the Southwest.

Section 3 Cell Division

In the early autumn, many local fairs run pumpkin contests. Proud growers enter their largest pumpkins, hoping to win a prize. The pumpkin below has a mass greater than 600 kilograms! This giant pumpkin began as a small flower, how did the pumpkin grow so big?

A pumpkin grows in size by increasing both the size and the number of its cells. A single cell grows and then divides, forming four, and so on. This process of cell growth and division does not occur only in pumpkins, though. In fact, many cells in your body are dividing as you read this page.



Figure 10 - Bigger Pig, More Cells.

The mother pig has more cells in her body than her small piglets.

Stage 1: Interphase

How do little pigs get to be big pigs? Their cells grow and divide, over and over. Their regular sequence of growth and division that cells undergo is known as the **cell cycle**. During the cell cycle, a cell grows, prepares for division, and divides into two new cells, which are called “daughter cells.” Each of the daughter cells then begins the cell cycle again. You can see details of the cell cycle in Figure 12. Notice that the cell cycle is divided into three main stages: interphase, mitosis, and cytokinesis.

The first stage of the cell cycle is called **interphase**. Interphase is the period before cell division. **During interphase, the cell grows, makes a copy of its DNA, and prepares to divide into two cells.**

Growing During the first part of interphase, the cell grows to its full size and produces structures it needs. For example, the cell makes new ribosomes and produces enzymes. Copies are made of both mitochondria and chloroplasts.

Copying DNA In the next part of interphase, the cell makes an exact copy of the DNA in its nucleus in a process called **replication**. Recall that DNA is found in the chromatin in the nucleus. DNA holds all the information that the cell needs to carry out its functions. Replication of DNA is very important since each daughter cell must have a complete set of DNA to survive. At the end of DNA replication, the cell contains two identical sets of DNA. You will learn the details of DNA replication later in this section.

Preparing for Division Once the DNA has replicated preparation for cell division begins. The cell produces structures that it will use to divide into two new cells. At the end of interphase, the cell is ready to divide.

Reading check point - What is replication?

Stage 2: Mitosis

Once interphase is complete, the second stage of the cell cycle begins. **Mitosis** (my TOH sis) is the stage during which the cell's nucleus divides into two new nuclei. **During mitosis, one copy of the DNA is distributed into each of the two daughter cells.**

Scientists divide mitosis into four parts, or phase: prophase, the threadlike chromatin in the nucleus condenses to form double-rod structures called **chromosomes**. Each chromosome has two rods because the cell's DNA has replicated, and each rod in a chromosome is an exact copy of the other. Each identical rod in a chromosome is called a chromatid. Notice in Figure 11 that the two chromatids are held together by a structure called a centromere.

As the cell progresses through metaphase, anaphase and telophase, the chromatids separate from each other and move in opposite ends of the cell. Then two nuclei form around the new chromosomes at the two ends of the cell.

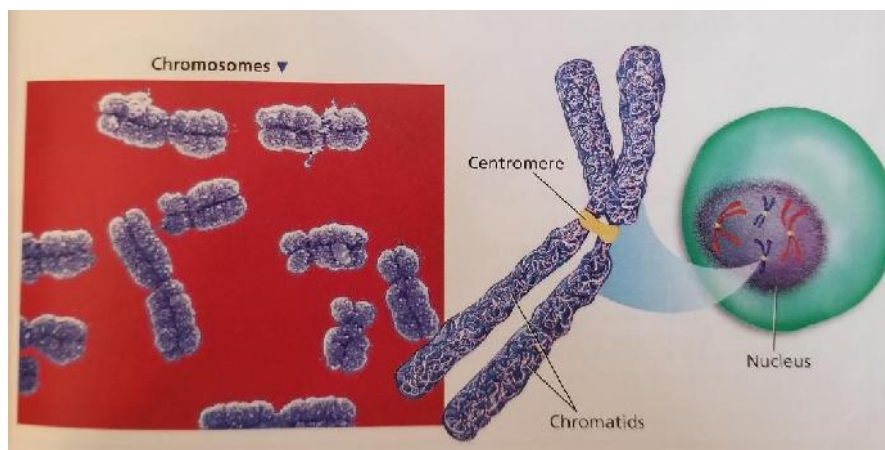
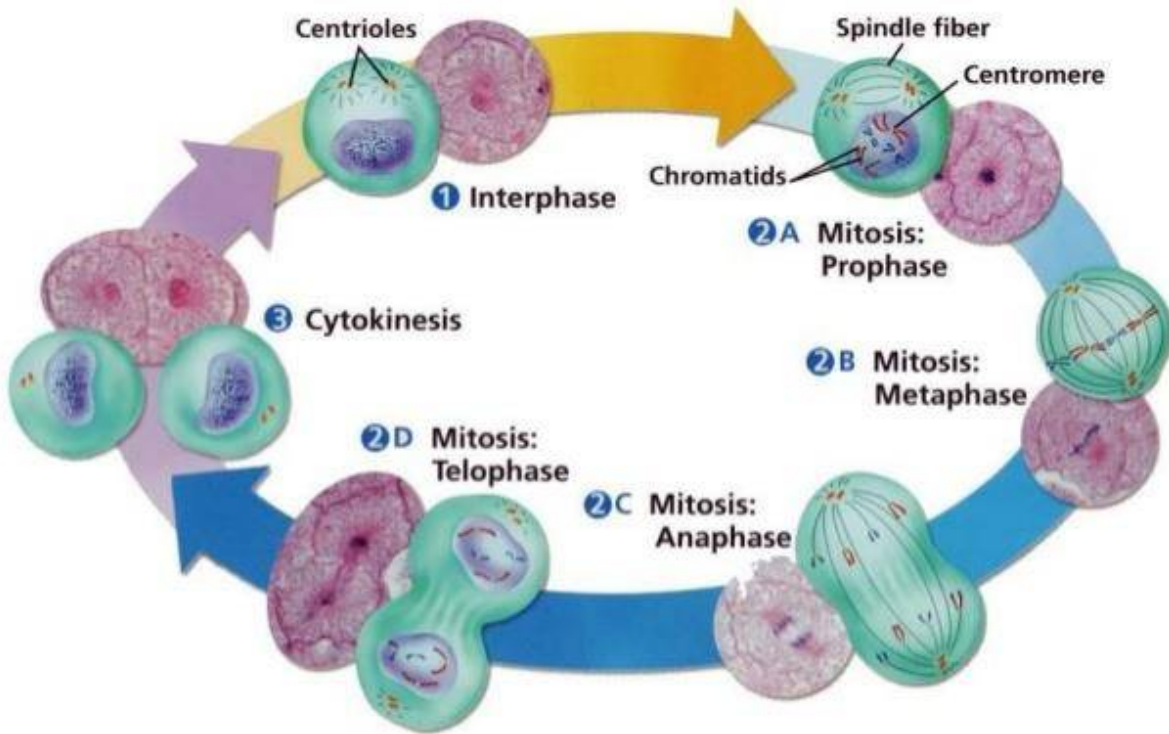


Figure 11 – Chromosomes

During mitosis, the chromatin condenses to form chromosomes. Each chromosome consists of two identical strands, or chromatids.

Figure 12 - The Cell cycle

Cells undergo an orderly sequence of events as they grow and divide. The sequence shown here is a typical cell cycle in an animal cell.



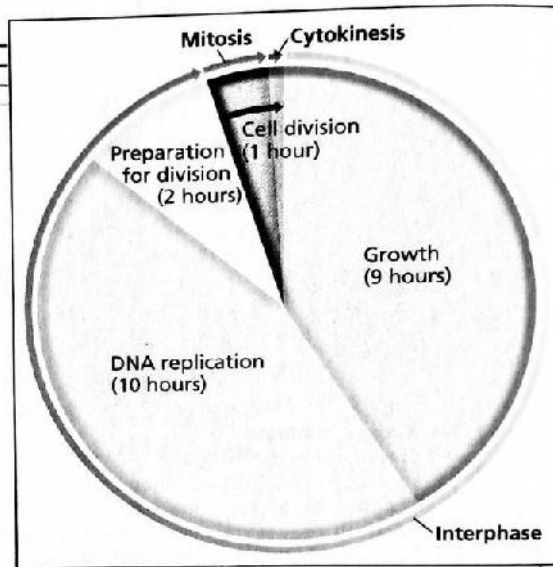
1. **Interphase** – The cell grows to its mature size, makes a copy of its DNA, and prepares to divide into two cells. Two cylindrical structures called centrioles are also copied.
2. **A. Mitosis: Prophase** – Chromatin in the nucleus condenses to form chromosomes. The pairs of centrioles move to opposite sides of the nucleus. Spindle fibers form a bridge between the ends of the cell. The nuclear envelope breaks down.
B. Mitosis: Metaphase – The chromosomes line up across the center of the cell. Each chromosome attaches to a spindle fiber at its centromere.
C. Mitosis: Anaphase – The centromeres split. The two chromatids separate, and each chromatid becomes a new chromosome. The new chromosomes move to opposite ends of the cell. The cell stretches out as the opposite ends are pushed apart.
D. Mitosis: Telophase – The chromosomes begin to stretch out and lose their rodlike appearance. A new nuclear envelope forms around each region of chromosomes.
3. **Cytokinesis** – The cell membrane pinches in around the middle of the cell. The cell splits in two. Each daughter cell ends up with an identical set of chromosomes and half the organelles.

Math Analyzing Data

Length of the Cell Cycle

How long does it take for a cell to go through one cell cycle? It all depends on the cell. The cells shown in the graph, for example, completes one cell cycle in about 22 hours. Study the graph and then answer the following questions.

1. **Reading Graphs** What do the three curved arrows outside the circle represent?
2. **Reading Graphs** In what stage of the cell cycle is the wedge representing growth?
3. **Interpreting Data** In the cell shown in the graph, how long does it take DNA replication to occur?
4. **Drawing Conclusions** In the cell shown in the graph, what stage in the cell cycle takes the longest time?



Stage 3: Cytokinesis

The final stage of the cell cycle, which is called cytokinesis (sy toh kih NEE sis), completes the process of cell division. During cytokinesis, the cytoplasm divides. The organelles are distributed into each of the two new cells. Cytokinesis usually starts at about the same time as telophase. When cytokinesis is complete, two new cells, or daughter cells, have formed. Each daughter cell has the same number of chromosomes as the original parent cell. At the end of cytokinesis, each cell enters interphase, and the cycle begins again.

Cytokinesis in Animal Cells – During cytokinesis in animal cells, the cell membrane squeezes together around the middle of the cell. The cytoplasm pinches into two cells. Each daughter cell gets about half of the organelles.

Cytokinesis in Plant Cells – Cytokinesis is somewhat different in plant cells. A plant cell's rigid cell wall cannot squeeze together in the same way that a cell membrane can. Instead, a structure called a cell plate forms across the middle of the cell. The cell plate gradually develops into a new cell membranes between the two daughter cells. New cell walls then form around the cell membranes.

Reading check point – During what phase of mitosis does cytokinesis begin?

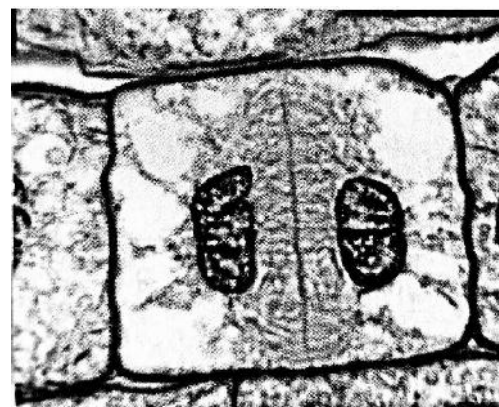


Figure 13 – Cytokinesis in Plant Cells
During cytokinesis in plant cells, a cell plate forms between the two new nuclei.

Structure and Replication of DNA

DNA replication ensures that each daughter cell will have the genetic information it needs to carry out its activities. Before scientists could understand how DNA replicates, they had to know its structure. IN 1952, Rosalind Franklin used an X-ray method to photograph DNA molecules. Her photographs helped James Watson and Francis Crick figure out the structure of DNA in 1953.

The Structure of DNA Notice in figure 14 that a DNA molecule looks like a twisted ladder, or spiral stair case. The two sides of the DNA ladder are made up of molecules of a sugar called deoxyribose, alternating with molecules known as phosphates.

Each rung is made up of a pair of molecules called nitrogen bases. Nitrogen bases are molecules that contain the element nitrogen and other elements. DNA has four kinds of nitrogen bases: Adenine (AD uh neen), thymine (THY meen), guanine (GWAH neen), and cytosine (Sy tuh seen). The capital letters A, T, G, and C are used to represent the four bases.

The bases on one side of the ladder pair up with the bases on the other side. Adenine (A) only pairs with thymine (T), while guanine (G) only pairs with cytosine (C). This pairing pattern is the key to understanding how DNA replication occurs.

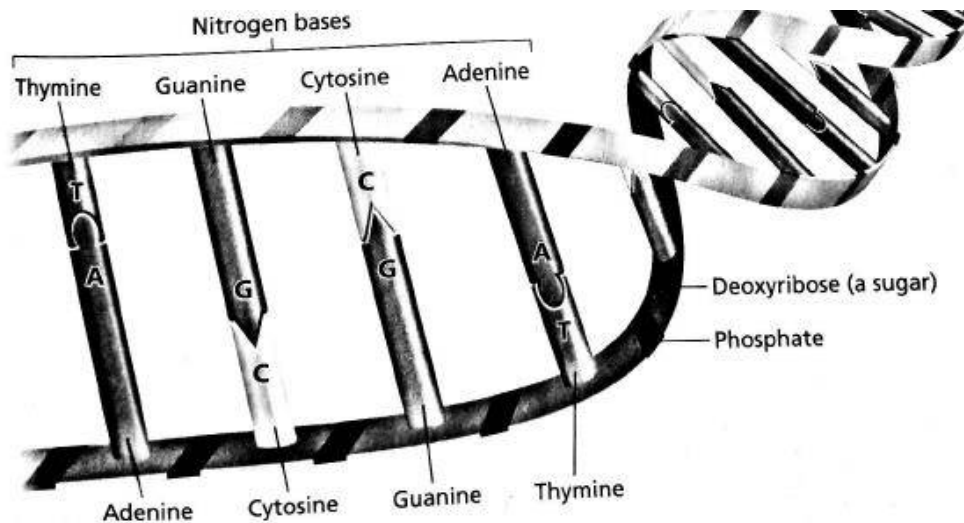


Figure 14 – The Structure of DNA
The DNA molecule is shaped like a twisted ladder.
Which base always pairs with adenine?

The Replication Process DNA replication begins when the two sides of the DNA molecule unwind and separate, somewhat like a zipper unzipping. As you can see in Figure 15, the molecule separates between the paired nitrogen bases.

Next, nitrogen bases that are floating in the nucleus pair up with the bases on each half of the DNA molecule. **Because of the way in which the nitrogen bases pair with one another the order of the bases in each new DNA molecule exactly matches the order in the original DNA molecule.** Adenine always pairs with thymine, while guanine always pairs with cytosine. Once the new bases are attached, two new DNA molecules are formed.

Reading check point – During DNA replication, which base pairs with quinine?

For more information watch youtube video <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=f-lpGefAHI>

Name: _____

3L Section 3 Assessment – Cell Division

1. A. What are the three stages of the cell cycle?

B. Summarize what happens to chromosomes during the stage of the cell cycle in which the nucleus divides. Include the terms prophase, metaphase, anaphase, and telophase?

C. Look at Figure 12. What is the role of spindle fibers during cell division?

2. A. List the nitrogen bases in DNA.

B. Describe how the nitrogen bases pair in a DNA molecule

C. One section of a strand of DNA has the base sequence AGATTC. What is the base sequence on the other strand?

Stage 1: Interphase

1. The regular sequence of growth and division that cells undergo is called the _____.
2. List three things that the cell is doing during interphase.
 - A. _____
 - B. _____
 - C. _____
3. Circle the letter of the specific process during which the cell copies its DNA
 - a. interphase
 - b. cytokinesis
 - c. replication
 - d. division

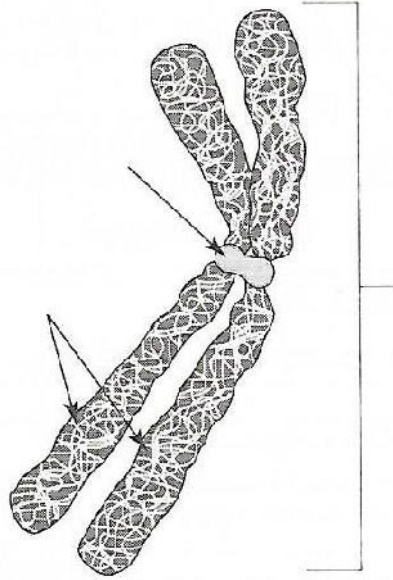
Stage 2: Mitosis

4. Circle the letter of each sentence that is true about mitosis.
 - a. The cell makes a copy of its DNA
 - b. The cell membrane pinches in around the middle of the cell
 - c. The cell's nucleus divides into two new nuclei.
 - d. One copy of DNA is distributed into each daughter cell

Match the phases of mitosis with the events that occur in each

Event	Phase
____ 5. The centromeres split and the chromatids separate	a. prophase
____ 6. The chromatin condenses to form chromosomes	b. metaphase
____ 7. A new nuclear envelope forms around each region of chromosomes	c. anaphase
____ 8. The chromosomes line up across the center of the wall	d. telophase

9. Label the parts of the structure in the diagram below



Stage 3: cytokinesis

10. During cytokinesis the _____ divides, distributing the organelles into each of the two new cells.

11. Is the following sentence true or false? During cytokinesis in plant cells, the new cell membrane forms before the new cell wall does? _____

Structure and Replication of DNA

12. Why does a cell make a copy of its DNA before mitosis occurs?

13. Circle the letter of each molecule that makes up the sides of the DNA ladder.

- a. deoxyribose
- b. glucose
- c. phosphate
- d. oxygen

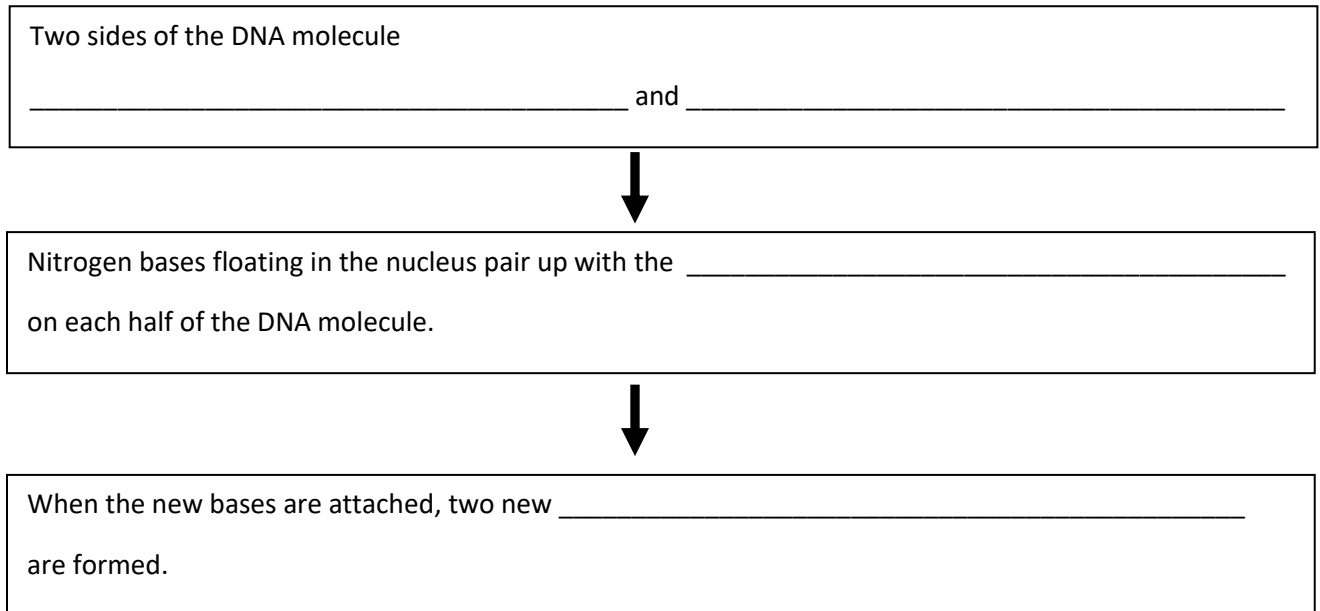
14. Name the nitrogen bases that pair up to make up the rungs of the DNA ladder.

a. _____ pairs with _____

b. _____ pairs with _____

15. Complete the flowchart to show what happens during DNA replication.

DNA Replication



Section 4 Cancer

If you go outside on a clear night in spring, you may be able to see the constellation, or group of stars, called Cancer. The word cancer means “crab” in Latin, the language of the ancient Romans. According to an ancient Roman myth, the goddess Juno sent a giant crab to help kill the hero Hercules. Instead, Hercules crushed a crab with his foot. Juno then put the crab in the sky in form of a constellation.



Today the word *cancer* still names the constellation, but it also names a disease. As the mythological crab threatened Hercules, the disease called cancer threatens human health. But doctors and scientists are making progress in treating and preventing cancer. As Hercules conquered the monster called Cancer, perhaps one day scientists will conquer the disease.

What is Cancer?

Cancer is a disease in which cells grow and divide uncontrollably, damaging the parts of the body around them. Cancer is something like weeds in a garden. Weeds can overrun the garden plots, robbing them of the space, sunlight and water they need. Similarly, cancer cells can overrun normal cells.

Cancer is actually not just one disease. In fact, there are more than 100 types of cancer. Cancer can occur in almost any part of the body. Cancers are often named by the place in the body where they begin. For example, lung cancer begins in the tissues of the lungs. In the United States today, lung cancer is the leading cause of cancer deaths among both men and women.

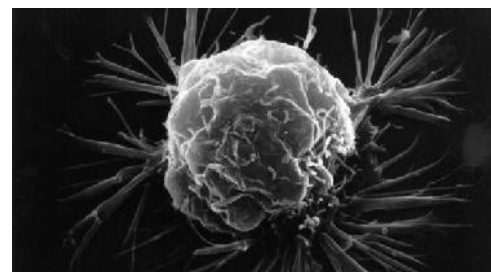


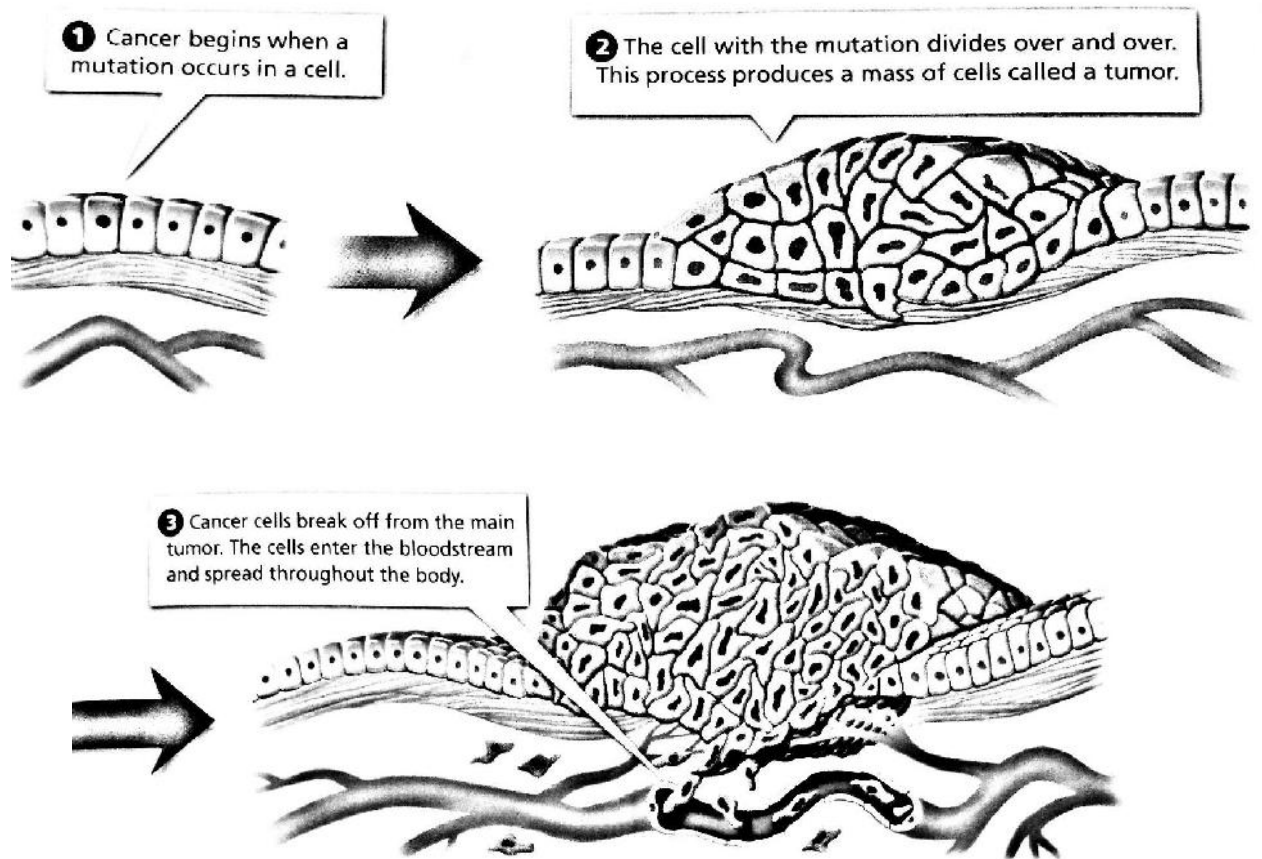
Figure 16 – A Breast Cancer Cell

A cancer tumor begins as a single cell. A mutation in the cell's DNA disrupts the normal cell cycle

How Cancer Begins Scientists think that cancer begins when something damages a portion of the DNA in a chromosome. The damage causes a change in the DNA called a **mutation**. DNA contains all the instructions necessary for life. Damage to the DNA can cause cells to function abnormally.

Normally, the cells in one part of the body live in harmony with the cells around them. Cells that go through the cell cycle divide in a controlled way. **Cancer begins when mutation disrupted the normal cell cycle, causing cells to divide in an uncontrolled way.** Without the normal controls on the cell cycle, the cells grow too large and divide too often.

At first, one cell develops in an abnormal way. As the cell divides over and over, the repeated divisions produce more and more abnormal cells. In time, these cells form a tumor. A **tumor** is a mass of abnormal cells that develops when cancerous cells divide and grow uncontrollably.



How

Cancer Spreads Figure 17 shows how a tumor forms. Tumors often take years to grow to a noticeable size. During that time, the cells become more and more abnormal as they continue to divide. Some of the cancerous cells may break off the tumor and enter the bloodstream. In this way the cancer can spread to other areas of the body.

Reading check – What is the first step that leads to the development of a tumor?

Treating and Preventing Cancer

Scientists are making progress in the battle against cancer. Treatments offer hope for cancer patients. In addition, people can take steps that help prevent the disease.

Treating Cancer If a person is diagnosed with cancer, there are a variety of treatments. **There are three common ways to treat cancer: surgery, radiation, and drugs that destroy the cancer cells.**

When a cancer is detected before it has spread to other parts of the body, surgery is usually the best treatment. If doctors can completely remove the cancerous tumor, a person may be cured.

If, however, the cancer has spread or if the tumor cannot be removed, doctors may use radiation. Radiation consists of beams of high-energy waves. Fast-growing cancer cells are more likely than normal cells to be destroyed by radiation.

Chemotherapy is another form of cancer treatment. **Chemotherapy** is the use of drugs to treat a disease. Cancer treatment drugs are carried through the body by the bloodstream. These drugs kill cancer cells or slow their growth.

Scientists continue to look for new ways to treat cancer. If scientists can discover how the cell cycle is controlled, they may find ways to stop cancer cells from multiplying.

Preventing Cancer People can reduce their chances of developing cancer by avoiding smoking, eating a healthful diet, and protecting their skin from bright sunlight. When people repeatedly inhale tobacco smoke, lung cancer and other forms of cancer may result. Unhealthful diets may lead to almost as many cancer deaths as does tobacco. A diet high in fatty foods, such as fatty meats and fried foods, is especially harmful. Eating a lot of fruits and vegetables may help lower the risk for some types of cancer.

Most skin cancers are caused by the ultraviolet light in sunlight. If people limit their exposure to bright sunlight, they can reduce their risk of getting skin cancer.

Reading checkpoint – How can exposure to bright sunlight lead to cancer?

For more information watch youtube video <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QVCjdNxJreE>

Name: _____

3L Section 4 Assessment – Cancer

1. A. What is cancer?

B. How are cancer cells different from normal cells?

C. What is the relationship between cancer and DNA?

2. A. Identify the three ways in which cancer is treated.

B. Which method is almost always a part of the treatment for very small tumors that have not spread to other parts of the body? Explain why this method is chosen.

C. Why is a combination of methods typically used to treat cancer that has spread beyond the original tumor?

3L Latin Distance Learning

— Week of April 17-23 —

Directions:

- Review all of your verb endings (active AND passive!) up to Chapter 27
- Complete the attached verb synopsis for the **1st Conjugation** verb *probō, probāre, probāvī, probatum* – “to approve” in the **3rd person singular**, being sure to accurately translate each form in the second chart!

*****Next week we will (at long last!) be tackling the fabled SUBJUNCTIVE mood for verbs, so make sure you reach out to me with any questions you may still have about verb endings!*****

(Optional) Enrichment activity:

- For an extra challenge, you may complete an additional synopsis on the **3rd Conjugation** verb *ponō, ponere, posuī, positum* – “to put, to place” in the **3rd person plural**.

Principal Parts: probō, probāre, probāvī, probatum

Person: 3rd

Number: Singular

LATIN

INDICATIVE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Imperfect		
Future		
Perfect		
Pluperfect		
Future Perf.		
PARTICIPLE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Perfect		
Future		
INFINITIVE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Perfect		
Future		
IMPERATIVE	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Present		

English

INDICATIVE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Imperfect		
Future		
Perfect		
Pluperfect		
Future Perf.		
PARTICIPLE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Perfect		
Future		
INFINITIVE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Perfect		
Future		
IMPERATIVE	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Present		

Enrichment: Decline *ponō* (3rd conjugation) in 3rd Pl.

Principal Parts: ponō, ponere, posuī, positum

Person: 3rd

Number: Plural

INDICATIVE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Imperfect		
Future		
Perfect		
Pluperfect		
Future Perf.		
PARTICIPLE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Perfect		
Future		
INFINITIVE	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present		
Perfect		
Future		
IMPERATIVE	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Present		

Reference: ALL the Latin verb endings. You can ignore the "Subjunctive" ... for now ;-)

Indicative															
Pres Act 1st/ 2nd		Pres Act 3rd/4th		Fut Act 1st/2nd		Fut Act 3rd/4th		Imp Act 1st-4th		Perf Act 1st-4th		Futper Act 1st-4th		Pluper Act 1st-4th	
ō	imus	ō	imus	bō	bimus	am	ēmus	bam	bāmus	ī	imus	erō	erimus	eram	erāmus
s	tis	is	itis	bis	bitis	ēs	ētis	bās	bātis	istī	istis	eris	eritis	erās	erātis
t	nt	it	(i)unt	bit	bunt	et	ent	bat	bant	it	ērunt/ēre	erit	erint	erat	erant
long stem vowel remains long except before 'm' 't' and 'nt'								2nd through 4th ē or iē		3rd PP+		3rd PP+		3rd PP+	

Pres Pass 1st/ 2nd/4th		Pres Pass 3rd		Fut Pass 1st/2nd		Fut Pass 3rd/4th		Imp Pass 1st-4th		Perf Pass 1st-4th		Futper Pass 1st-4th		Pluper Pass 1st-4th	
or	mur	or	imur	bor	bimur	ar	ēmur	bar	bāmur	sūm	sumus	erō	erimus	eram	erāmus
ris/re	mini	eris/ere	imīni	beris/bere	bimīni	ēris/ēre	ēmīni	bāris/bāre	bāmīni	es	estis	eris	eritis	erās	erātis
tur	(i)ntur	itur	(i)untur	bitur	buntur	ētur	entur	bātur	bantur	est	sunt	erit	erunt	erat	erant
long stem vowel remains long except before 'r' and 'ntur'								2nd through 4th ē or iē		Perf, FutPerf and PluPerf Pass has 4th PP					

Subjunctive															
Pres Act Vowel Stem		Imp Act		Perf Act 3rd PP		Plu Act 3rd PP		Pres Pass Vowel Stem		Imp Pass		Perf Pass 4th PP+		Plu Pass 4th PP+	
(1)āre: ā		(2)ēre: eā		(3)ere: iā or ā		(4)ire: iā		(1)āre: ā		(2)ēre: eā		(3)ere: iā or ā		(4)ire: iā	
m	mus	m	mus	erim	erimus	issem	issēmus	r	mur	r	mur	sim	sīmus	essem	essēmus
s	tis	s	tis	eris	eritis	issēs	issētis	ris	mini	ris	mini	sīs	sītis	essēs	essētis
t	nt	t	nt	erit	erint	isset	issent	tur	ntur	tur	ntur	sit	sint	esset	essent
long stem vowel remains long except before 'm' 't' and 'nt'								long stem vowel remains long except before 'r' and 'ntur'							

Imperative	Active	Passive
Singular	inf -re except dic, duc, fac, & fer	inf or 2nd sing ind (-re)
Plural	1st, 2nd, 4th stem + -te; 3rd root + ite	same as 2nd plural pres ind pass

Infinitive				
Pres Act	Pres Pass	Perf Act	Perf Pass	Fut Act
āre	ārī	3rd PP+	4th + esse	4th + turus, a, um + esse
ēre	ērī	isse		
cre	ī			
īre	īrī			

Participles						
Pres Act	2nd	3rd	3rd-i-stem	4th	Perf Pass	Fut Act
āns	ēns	ēns	iēns	iēns	4th principal part	4th + ūrus, a, um
antis	entis	entis	ientis	ientis		

Fut Pass				
1st PP+ andus a um	endus, a, um	endus, a, um	iendus, a, um	iendus, a, um

Present progressive: Irregular forms

Some verbs have irregular present participle forms.

To form the present participle of *-ir* stem-changing verbs, the *e* in the infinitive form changes to *i*, and the *o* in the infinitive form changes to *u*:

- | | | | |
|-----------|--|--|--------------|
| To say | decir: ^{telling} dic iendo | servir: ^{serving} sir viendo | To serve |
| To ask | pedir: pid iendo | vestir: vist iendo | To get dress |
| To repeat | repetir: rep itiendo | dormir: durm iendo | To sleep |
| To follow | seguir: sig uiendo | | |

In the following *-er* verbs, the *i* of *-iendo* changes to *y*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------|
| creer: cre iendo | To believe |
| leer: lee iendo | To read |
| traer: tra iendo | To bring |

When you use object pronouns with the present progressive, you can put them before the conjugated form of *estar* or attach them to the present participle.

Notice that if a pronoun is attached to the present participle, an accent mark is needed. Write the accent mark over the vowel that is normally stressed in the present participle.

Are you waiting (Plural Polite) for the bus?
 ¿Están Uds. esperando el autobús?
 -Sí, lo estamos esperando. Yes, we are waiting (for it).
 o: Sí, estamos esperándolo.

Regular Verbs:

¿Recuerdas?

To say that an action is happening right now, use the present progressive. To form the present progressive, use the present tense of *estar* + the present participle (*-ando* or *-iendo*).

- doblar → doblando
- Ella está doblando a la izquierda.
- aprender → aprendiendo
- Estamos aprendiendo a manejar.
- escribir → escribiendo
- Están escribiendo una carta.

Estar (Present) → To be

I am estoy	we are estamos
you are estás	estáis
he/she/it está	you all are están
Ud. is	They, it, Uds. are

Cantar → To sing

I am singing estoy cantando	estamos cantando
estás cantando	estáis cantando
está cantando	están cantando

CAPÍTULO 14

Fecha Sra. Serrano April 17-23

DAY
1

Your ride to the party was late! You've just arrived and now you are wondering what all of your friends are doing. First fill in the chart. Then complete each dialogue according to the verb in parentheses. Follow the model.

Present progressive

estoy <i>bail</i> _____ <i>com</i> _____ <i>escrib</i> _____	estamos <i>bail</i> _____ <i>com</i> _____ <i>escrib</i> _____
estás <i>bail</i> _____ <i>com</i> _____ <i>escrib</i> _____	estáis <i>bail</i> _____ <i>com</i> _____ <i>escrib</i> _____
está <i>bail</i> _____ <i>com</i> _____	están <i>bail</i> _____ <i>com</i> _____

—¿Qué están haciendo Raúl y Jorge? (cantar)

—Ellos *están cantando*.

1. —¿Qué está haciendo Óscar? (bailar)

2. —¿Qué estás haciendo tú? (comer)

3. —¿Qué están haciendo Uds.? (hablar)

4. —¿Qué está haciendo Ud.? (sacar fotos)

5. —¿Qué están haciendo Norma y Olga? (ver la televisión)

6. —¿Qué está haciendo Beatriz? (poner la mesa)



DAY 2

Present progressive: irregular forms (p. 171)

- Remember that you form the present progressive by using **estar** + the present participle:

Estoy hablando con Lucía. *I am talking to Lucía.*

A. Fill in the blanks using **estar** + the present participle of the verbs in parentheses. The first one is done for you.

- (hablar) Mis padres están hablando con la policía.
- (compartir) Juanita y Pepito _____ la comida.
- (quedar) Yo me _____ en el hotel.
- (poner) Tú me _____ nerviosa.
- (doblar) El coche _____ en la esquina.

- Some verbs have irregular present participle forms. To form the present participle of **-ir** stem-changing verbs, the **e** in the stem of the infinitive changes to **i**, and then the **o** in the stem changes to **u**:

decir → diciendo	pedir → pidiendo	repetir → repitiendo
servir → sirviendo	seguir → siguiendo	dormir → durmiendo

B. Fill in the missing vowels to form the present participle of the verbs that have been started in each sentence below. Follow the model.

Modelo La camarera está s_i_rv_i_endo a las chicas primero.

- El perro está d__r__m__ndo en el piso.
- Mi mamá me está s__g__u__ndo en su coche.
- La profesora está rep__t__ndo la tarea.

- To form the present participle of the following **-er** verbs, add **-yendo** instead of **-iendo**:

creer → creyendo	leer → leyendo	traer → trayendo
-------------------------	-----------------------	-------------------------

C. Write the present participle of each verb in parentheses to complete the sentence. The first one has been done for you.

- Yo estoy creyendo en mi equipo. (creer)
- Los estudiantes están _____ sus tareas. (traer)
- Nosotras estamos _____ un libro. (leer)
- Mario está _____ la comida. (traer)



Capítulo 3B

Present progressive: irregular forms (continued)

D. Change the underlined verb in the following sentences from the present tense to the present progressive tense. Follow the model.

Modelo Adriana dice la verdad. está diciendo

- 1. Tú pides ayuda. _____
- 2. Mi padre lee el periódico. _____
- 3. La profesora repite la pregunta. _____
- 4. Ana y yo traemos las bebidas. _____
- 5. El camarero sirve la comida. _____
- 6. Paulo y Javier duermen en clase. _____
- 7. Los estudiantes siguen al profesor. _____
- 8. Yo no te creo. _____

• When you use a direct object pronoun with a present progressive verb, the pronoun can either come before *estar* or attached to the present participle. It is necessary to add a written accent if the pronoun is attached to the present participle.

Lara lo está trayendo. or Lara está trayéndolo.

E. Rewrite the sentences adding the direct object pronoun to the end of the present progressive form. Remember to write an accent on the stressed a or e. Follow the model.

Modelo Felipe nos está llevando. Felipe está llevándonos

- 1. Nosotros lo estamos esperando. _____
- 2. Ella me está siguiendo. _____
- 3. Tú las estás leyendo. _____
- 4. Sancho me está diciendo la verdad. _____
- 5. El profesor nos está enseñando. _____

Ahora mismo

Say what the following people are doing now that is different from what they normally do. Follow the model.

Modelo Generalmente, Juan maneja despacio.

Ahora está manejando rápido.

1. Normalmente, Diego dice mentiras.

Ahora _____ la verdad.

2. Cada día los peatones no siguen por aquella avenida.

Hoy sí _____ por aquella avenida.

3. Generalmente, repetimos las direcciones cuando las recibimos.

Ahora no _____ nada.

4. En un día normal, los peatones se visten de amarillo.

Hoy día los peatones _____ de anaranjado.

5. Normalmente, Uds. leen el manual de manejar.

Ahora Uds. no _____ el manual.

6. Liliana cruza la calle con su mamá todos los días.

Pero ahora no _____ la calle porque está sola.

7. Siempre traigo mi permiso de manejar.

Hoy no _____ el permiso conmigo.

8. Normalmente me pones tranquilo.

Ahora _____ nervioso.

9. Generalmente, Andrés duerme en casa.

No sé por qué ahora _____ en el coche.

10. En este restaurante siempre pedimos la paella.

Pero esta noche _____ la tortilla española.

Day

4

Day

5



Unos verbos

Me llamo _____

La fecha Sra. Serrano

3L New Students

Irregular verbs are not conjugated in a regular pattern. You must memorize these verb conjugations.

Three such verbs are *ser*, *estar*, and *tener*. Study and memorize the conjugations in the charts below.

Subject Pronoun	<i>ser</i> (to be *)	Meaning	<i>estar</i> (to be **)	Meaning
yo	soy	I am	estoy	I am
tú	eres	you are	estás	you are
él, ella, usted	es	he or she is you are	está	he or she is you are
nosotros, nosotras	somos	we are	estamos	we are
ellos, ellas, Uds.	son	they or you (pl.) are	están	they or you (pl.) are

* The verb *ser* is used to express origin (where someone is from), ownership, occupations, nationalities, descriptions, time, and locations of events.

** The verb *estar* is used to express temporary conditions (health) or states (hot, tired, busy, closed, etc.), or the location of someone or something.

Subject Pronoun	<i>tener</i> (to have)	Meaning
yo	tengo	I have
tú	tienes	you have
él, ella, usted	tiene	he or she has you have
nosotros, nosotras	tenemos	we have
ellos, ellas, ustedes	tienen	they or you (pl.) have



¿Cómo están?

Sra. Serrano

Nombre _____

3L New Students

April 17-23

Horizontales

1. I am
2. she has
4. they are
6. I am
8. they have
10. you are (familiar)
11. you are (familiar)
12. we are

Verticales

1. we are
2. I have
3. you all are
4. he is
5. we have
7. you have (familiar)
9. she is

Complete each sentence by filling in the blank with the proper form of the given irregular verb.

1. Yo _____ diez años. (tener)
2. Las tijeras _____ verdes. (ser)
3. Yo _____ profesora. (ser)
4. Enero _____ treinta y un días. (tener)
5. Tú _____ en la casa. (estar)
6. Los chicos _____ seis chaquetas. (tener)
7. Mi madre _____ ochenta años. (tener)
8. Los libros _____ debajo de la mesa. (estar)
9. Nosotros _____ amigos. (ser)
10. ¿Cómo _____ Ud.? (estar)



En la clase

3L

New Students

Me llamo _____

La fecha

April 17-23

The definite article *the* can be written four ways in Spanish—*el, la, los, or las*—depending on the gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) of the noun.

The indefinite article *a* (or *an*) can be written as *un* or *una* in Spanish. *Un* is used before masculine, singular nouns, and *una* before feminine, singular nouns.

The indefinite article *some* can be written as *unos* or *unas*. *Unos* is used before masculine, plural nouns and *unas* before feminine, plural nouns.

Singular	the	a, an
masculine	<i>el</i>	<i>un</i>
feminine	<i>la</i>	<i>una</i>

Plural	the	some
masculine	<i>los</i>	<i>unos</i>
feminine	<i>las</i>	<i>unas</i>

Refer to the list of singular nouns at the bottom of the page to write the phrases below in Spanish.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. the book _____ | 8. the papers _____ |
| 2. a globe _____ | 9. some notebooks _____ |
| 3. some chalkboards _____ | 10. some tables _____ |
| 4. a clock _____ | 11. the door _____ |
| 5. a ruler _____ | 12. a chair _____ |
| 6. the scissors _____ | 13. some erasers _____ |
| 7. the pens _____ | 14. the pencils _____ |

Word Bank

libro <i>book</i>	cuaderno <i>notebook</i>	mesa <i>table</i>	pluma <i>pen</i>
borrador <i>eraser</i>	puerta <i>door</i>	silla <i>chair</i>	lápiz <i>pencil</i>
mapa <i>map</i>	regla <i>ruler</i>	papel <i>paper</i>	calendario <i>calendar</i>
pizarra <i>white-board</i>	reloj <i>clock</i>	tijera <i>scissor</i>	globo <i>globe</i>

Logic—Guide to Thinking Worksheet 2

Day 1: Pg. 11-13

- 1) What is the definition of logic?

- 2) When you make an argument with reasoning by proof, what are some examples of things you might use as proof?

- 3) List 3 signal words for an argument that uses reasoning with proof.

- 4) How are authority and proof/evidence different?

- 5) Give two examples of questions you would ask when evaluating the evidence or authority in this type of argument.

- 6) What are the 6 fallacies for an argument by proof/evidence?

Day 2: Pg. 13-15

- 1) Define reasoning by debate:

- 2) Give 3 cue words/phrases for reasoning by debate:

- 3) Give three questions you should ask about an argument when reasoning by debate:

- 4) List the three fallacies for reasoning by debate:

- 5) Define assumption:

- 6) There are two kinds of assumptions. List them.

- 7) There is something in this reading you should recognize from seeing it over. And over. And over in our study of logic. Copy it down, and label the major, minor, and middle terms. (new scholars: skip this question)

Day 3: Pg. 16-17

1) Define values:

2) Give 3 examples of cue words for an author's values.:

3) List the three steps for evaluating the values of an author:

4) Give two examples of questions you can ask to evaluate value:

Day 4: Pg. 18

- 1) What does ARMEAR stand for?

- 2) What are 2 questions you can ask about the author?

- 3) What are 2 questions you can ask about the relevant information?

- 4) What are 2 questions you can ask about the evidence/proof?

- 5) What does PROP stand for?

Day 5: Application

You have learned about many different fallacies over the past two weeks. Please choose one fallacy from "Guide to Thinking" (pages 1-18).

- 1) Explain it in your own words (1-3 sentences)

Turn page -->

UNIT 1

Guide to Critical Thinking

Purpose of this Unit

This Guide is meant to help you improve your critical thinking skills. Critical thinking, as used in this book, means evaluating or judging arguments. The critical thinker asks, "Why should I believe this?" or "How do I know this is true?" Just as importantly, critical thinking means constructing good arguments. Here, the critical thinker asks, "Why do I believe this?" and "Do I have a logical, well-supported case to back up my claims?"

~~As mentioned in the Introduction to this text,~~ you are going to be confronted in this book with opposing viewpoints. You will have to decide for yourself which are stronger and which are weaker. This Guide will help you with the critical thinking skills necessary to judge the viewpoints presented and to express your own verbal and written views on topics.

Historians use critical thinking skills constantly in evaluating the reliability of documents, in selecting what is important, and in determining the underlying causes for events. But critical thinking is useful in everyday life as well. It is called for in such situations as buying a car, watching the news, voting, or deciding on a job or career. Improved skills in this area will help you make better judgments more often.

You can get an overall picture of critical thinking by reading through this Guide. You will find it most useful, however, when you need to use a particular skill in a particular lesson. For example, the section on evaluating **Generalizations** will be useful in Lesson 9, which asks several questions on recognizing and drawing good generalizations.

When Is an Argument Not a Fight?

An *argument* or interpretation, as used in this Guide, refers to presenting a conclusion and defending it with reasons that logically lead to the conclusion. You will have to decide for yourself how strong each argument is. A case is a set of arguments. The strength of a case may be judged by examining individual arguments. Arguments or interpretations may include any or all of the following components.

- Assertions • Evidence • Reasoning •
- Assumptions • Values •

Keep the importance of words in mind as you look through the following pages. Words are the keys to arguments. Signal words like "but," "however," and "on the other hand" indicate a change of direction in an argument. Words will serve as your clues in identifying parts of an argument and, once the argument

Assertions

has been identified, they will serve as your keys in analyzing the strength of that argument.

Once you recognize an argument, you will want to analyze it. You will break it down into its respective parts and evaluate the elements against certain standards of excellence in reasoning and evidence. You will examine the assumptions to see if they are warranted. You will consider how the author's values shape the evidence and reasoning presented.

An assertion is a statement, conclusion, main point, or claim concerning an issue, person, or idea. It can be the conclusion of a very short argument, or it can be the main point (thesis) of an argument of perhaps two or more paragraphs.

For example, consider the short argument, "Bob is very responsible, so I'm sure he'll show up." The conclusion (assertion) in the argument is the phrase "...so I'm sure he'll show up." (The part of the argument that isn't the conclusion ["Bob is very responsible,..."] is called the premise. Premises are assumptions or reasons offered to support a conclusion. See the section on **Assumptions**, pages 15-16.)

IDENTIFYING ASSERTIONS

Words that often cue an assertion or conclusion include "therefore," "then," "so," and "thus." You can also identify an assertion by asking yourself, "What is the author trying to prove? Of what is the author trying to convince me?"

EVALUATING ASSERTIONS

Two important questions to ask to evaluate the overall assertion of an argument are:

- Is the assertion supported by good reasons (supporting arguments)?
- Are the reasons supported by evidence?

Evidence

Evidence consists of the information a person uses to support assertions. It is the data, information, and knowledge which a historian, social scientist, or any communicator uses to support an argument; it is not the argument or interpretation itself.

There are many sources of evidence. Some of the more common sources include statements by witnesses or other people, written documents, objects, photographs, and video recordings. Lack of sources for evidence seriously weakens an argument. That is why many historical works include footnotes to cite sources; that is also why you should cite sources in essays you write.

For example, historians studying a Civil War battle could gather written accounts of the battle from sources such as diaries, battle reports, and letters. They could examine objects that had been found on the battlefield and photographs taken at the time of the battle. They also might use accounts by other historians, but these would be weaker sources because they are not eyewitness

IDENTIFYING EVIDENCE

accounts (see primary sources below).

To help locate evidence in an argument, look for endnotes, quotation marks, or such words as “according to,” “so-and-so said,” or “such-and-such shows.”

The initial questions to be asked when evaluating any evidence offered in support of an argument should be:

- Is there a source given for this information?
- If so, what is it?

EVALUATING EVIDENCE

Only when you know the sources of evidence can you judge how reliable the evidence actually is. Frequently, you can use the following evaluation method when considering evidence and its sources. This can be shortened to **PROP**; remember that good sources will “prop up” evidence.

P Is it a primary (eyewitness) or secondary (not an eyewitness) source?

Primary sources are invariably more desirable. To reach valid conclusions, you need to realize the importance of primary sources and gather as many as possible to use as evidence in an argument. You should depend on secondary sources, like encyclopedias or history texts, only when primary sources are unavailable.

R If the source is a person, does he or she have any reason to distrust the evidence?

Would those giving the statement, writing the document, recording the audio (or video), or identifying the object benefit if the truth were distorted, covered up, falsified, sensationalized, or manipulated? Witnesses with no reason to distort the evidence are more desirable than those who might benefit from a particular presentation of the evidence.

O Are there other witnesses statements, recordings, or evidence which report the same data, information, or knowledge?

Having other evidence verify the initial evidence strengthens the argument.

P Is it a public or private statement?

If the person making the statement of evidence knew or intended that other people should hear it, then it is a public statement. A private statement may be judged more accurate because it was probably said in confidence and is, therefore, more likely to reflect the speaker's true feelings or observations.

These four factors (PROP) will be enough to evaluate most

evidence you encounter. Additional factors that are sometimes considered regarding evidence include:

Witnesses

- What are the frames of reference (points of view) of the witnesses? What are their values? What are their backgrounds?
- Are the witnesses expert (recognized authorities) on what they saw?
- Did the witnesses believe their statements could be checked? (If I believe you can check my story with other witnesses, I am more likely to tell the truth.)
- Was what the witnesses said an observation (“Maria smiled”) or an inference (“Maria was happy”)? Inferences are judgments that can reveal much about the witnesses’ points of view or motives (reasons) for making statements.

*Observation
Conditions*

- Were physical conditions conducive to witnessing the event? (Was it foggy? Noisy? Dark?)
- What were the physical locations of the witnesses in relation to the event? Were they close to the action? Was there anything blocking their view?

*Witnesses’
Statement or
Document*

- Is the document authentic or a forgery?
- What is the reputation of the source containing the document?
- How soon after the event was the statement made?
- Did the witnesses use precise techniques or tools to report or record the event? For example, did they take notes or use reference points?

Reasoning

Just as evidence can be judged for its reliability, so reasoning can be evaluated for its logic.

Reasoning is the logical process through which a person reaches conclusions. For example, you notice that the car is in the driveway (evidence) so you reason that your mother is home (conclusion). Five kinds of reasoning are frequently used in historical interpretations:

- cause-and-effect
- comparison
- generalization
- proof (by evidence, example, or authority)
- debating (eliminating alternatives)

These types of reasoning, along with questions to help evaluate them and fallacies (errors in reasoning) for each, are explained on the next page.

Reasoning by Cause and Effect

This type of reasoning is used when someone argues that something caused, brought about, or will result in something else. For example, Laura's motorcycle will not start (effect), so she decides it must be out of gas (proposed cause).

Causation is very complex—so complex that some historians feel that they do not really understand the causes of an event even after years of study. Other historians do not even use the word cause; instead they talk about change. Please keep a sense of humility when you study causation. When you finish your course, you are not going to know all the causes of complex events. Rather, you are going to know a little bit more about how to sort out causes.

Historians believe in **multiple causation**, that is, that every event has several or many causes. This belief does not, however, relieve us of the responsibility of trying to figure out which are the most important causes. Indeed, one of the most frequent sources of debate among historians stems from disagreements over the main causes of events.

IDENTIFYING CAUSE-AND-EFFECT REASONING

One way to identify cause-and-effect reasoning is to watch for such cue words as "caused," "led to," "forced," "because," "brought about," "resulted in," or "reason for." You can also identify it by asking, "Is the author arguing that one thing resulted from another?"

EVALUATING CAUSE-AND-EFFECT REASONING

Several important questions may be used to evaluate the strength of a causal explanation.

REMARKS

- Is there a **reasonable connection** between the cause and the effect? Does the arguer state the connection?
In the motorcycle example, for instance, there is a reasonable connection between the motorcycle being out of gas and not starting. Lack of gasoline would cause a motorcycle not to start.
- Might there be **other possible causes** for this effect? Has the arguer eliminated these as possible causes?
There are also, however, other possible causes for a motorcycle failing to start. Maybe the starter isn't working. Other possible causes have not been eliminated.
- Might there be **important previous causes** that led to the proposed cause?
In some cases a previous cause might be more important than the proposed cause; e.g., a leak in the gasoline tank might cause a motorcycle to be out of gasoline. In this case simply putting gasoline in the tank will not make the engine run again.

Cause-and-Effect Fallacies

Single Cause

Any conclusion that a historical event had but one cause commits the single-cause fallacy. For example, the statements “Eloise married Jon because he’s handsome” and “Antiwar protests caused the United States to pull out of the Vietnam War” both make use of the single-cause fallacy.

In both cases there are likely to be other factors, or causes, involved. The fallacy can be avoided by carefully investigating and explaining the complexity of causes. Be careful, however. Historians may sometimes assert that something “caused” an event when they really mean it was the main, not the only, cause.

Preceding event as cause

A Latin phrase (*Post hoc, ergo propter hoc*), meaning “after this, therefore because of this,” is the technical name of a fallacy that occurs when someone assumes that because event B happened after event A, A caused B. “I washed my car, so naturally it rained” and “Since the Depression followed the stock market crash of 1929, the stock market crash must have caused it” are both examples of this fallacy. To avoid the error, the author of the argument must explain how A caused B.

8th hour
3/21

Correlation as cause

This fallacy occurs when a conclusion is reached that because A and B occurred at the same time or occur regularly at the same time (the correlation), then one caused the other.

Some correlations, such as cigarette smoking and increased incidence of heart disease, are very strong. Others are not as strong. In some correlations where A is argued to cause B, ask yourself if B could instead have caused A. For example, “Students who have fewer absences (A) achieve higher grades in school (B).” In this case, consideration might also be given to the correlation that “Students who achieve higher grades in school (B) have fewer absences (A).”

Again, the fallacy might be avoided by an explanation of how A caused B. Since, however, a connection cannot always be shown, people are frequently forced to rely on correlations. For example, you don’t have to know, mechanically, how a car works to know that turning the ignition should cause it to start.

False scenario

This fallacy uses the argument that if something had happened, then something else would have happened (or if something had not happened, then something else would not have happened). “If you hadn’t told Mother on me, I wouldn’t be in trouble” is an example of false-scenario reasoning. “If we had not built railroads in the late 1800s, the United States would not have had as much economic growth as it did with the railroads” is another.

5/18

Reasoning by Comparison*Alike comparison**Difference comparison*

Although some of this kind of predicting can occur when we have a great deal of evidence regarding what might have happened, it is generally much less certain than causal reasoning about what actually did happen. To avoid this fallacy, concern yourself with what actually happened rather than what might have happened.

This type of reasoning, sometimes called "reasoning by analogy," consists of two basic types, both of which involve drawing comparisons between two cases.

The first type of comparison chooses two cases (people, events, objects, etc.) and reasons that since they are alike in some ways, they will be alike in some other way. For example, Joe might reason that Fernandez did all of his homework and got an "A" in geometry, so if Joe does all of his homework he can also get an "A." Joe is reasoning that since the two cases (his and Fernandez's) are similar in terms of homework (doing it all), they will be similar in terms of outcome (an "A").

The second type compares two cases and reasons that since they are different in some respect, something must be true. For example, Juan might reason that his baseball team is better than Cleon's, since Juan's team won more games. Juan is concluding that since the two cases (teams) are different in some respect (one team won more games), it is true that the team that won the most games is a better team.

If Joe and Fernandez are taking the same course (geometry), and have the same mathematical ability and the same teacher, then the conclusion that the outcome would be the same is stronger than it would be if they were different in any or all of these areas. If the two baseball teams played the same opponents and the same number of games, then the conclusion that one team is better (different) than the other is stronger than it would be if they were different in any of these ways.

*Stronger Argument =
more similarities*

*Weaker Argument =
more similarities in
an argument of
difference*

* Usually, more similarities make a stronger argument. A similarity found in an argument of difference, however, will weaken the argument. If the two baseball teams had the same winning percentage, then the conclusion that one was better (different) than the other would be weakened by this similarity.

As another example of a difference comparison, examine the argument: "The federal budget deficit increased from \$800 billion three years ago to \$912 billion this year. We've got to do something about it before it destroys our economy." What if the federal budget deficit were 4% of the Gross National Product (the measure of goods and services produced in a year)

IDENTIFYING
COMPARISON
REASONING

three years ago and 4% this year also? Here, a similarity found between the deficits of the two years being compared weakens the conclusion that the federal budget deficit is getting worse. Thus, differences weaken arguments comparing similarities, and similarities weaken arguments comparing differences.

Cue words can help identify comparisons. Watch for such comparative terms as “like,” “similar to,” “same as,” “greater (or less) than,” “better (or worse) than,” and “increased (or decreased).” Some comparisons, however, are implied rather than stated. For example, someone might say, “Oh, I wouldn’t travel by plane. It’s too dangerous.” You might ask “dangerous compared to what?” If a higher percentage of people are injured or killed using alternate methods of travel (automobiles, trains), then the statement is weakened considerably.

In examining comparisons, ask yourself:

- How are the cases similar; how are they different?

EVALUATING
COMPARISON
REASONING

This skill involves *evaluating comparison arguments*. It is not the same activity as “compare and contrast,” where you are asked to find the similarities and differences between two items; i.e., “Compare and contrast the American and French Revolutions.” In evaluating comparison arguments you, on your own, are to recognize that a comparison argument is being made and, without being told, ask about the similarities and differences of the two cases being compared.

5/20
8-11 by self
~~GOOD~~

Reasoning by Generalization

This kind of reasoning includes both definitional and statistical generalizations. The generalization, “No U.S. senator is under 30 years of age,” is an example of a *definitional generalization*, since by legal definition, a United States senator must be at least 30 years of age.

Statistical generalization is important to evaluating historical arguments. Statistical generalizations argue that what is true for some (part or sample) of a group (such as wars, women, or songs) will be true in roughly the same way for all of the group. For example, Maribeth might argue that since the bite of pizza she took (sample) is cold, the whole pizza (the whole group) is cold.

Statistical generalizations can be further subdivided into two types. *Hard generalizations* are those applied to all (or none) of the members of a group, e.g., the whole cold pizza above, or a statement like “All the apples have fallen off the tree.” A hard generalization is disproved by one counterexample (contrary case). For example, if there is one apple still on the tree, the

generalization is disproved.

Soft generalizations are those applied to most (or few) members of a group, e.g., “Most people remember the Vietnam War.” A soft generalization is not disproved by one—or even several—contrary cases, but the generalization is weakened as the contrary cases add up. For example, if someone says that Luis does not remember the Vietnam War, the generalization is not disproved. If, however, that person cites fifty people who do not remember the Vietnam War, the generalization is getting shaky.

The probability that a statistical generalization is correct increases with the size of the sample and the degree to which a sample is representative of the whole group. Your generalization that “Nella is prompt,” is more likely to be accurate if she was on time on all twenty occasions when she was supposed to meet you than if she was on time the only time she was supposed to meet you.

Representativeness is even more important than size in generalizations. In the pizza example, the sample is quite small (only one bite from the whole pizza) but very representative—if one part of the pizza is cold, it is highly likely that the whole pizza is cold. Similarly, presidential election polls are small (about 1200 people polled) but usually very accurate, since those sampled are quite representative of the whole electorate. If you think of the whole group of voters as a circle, a presidential election poll might look like Figure 1.

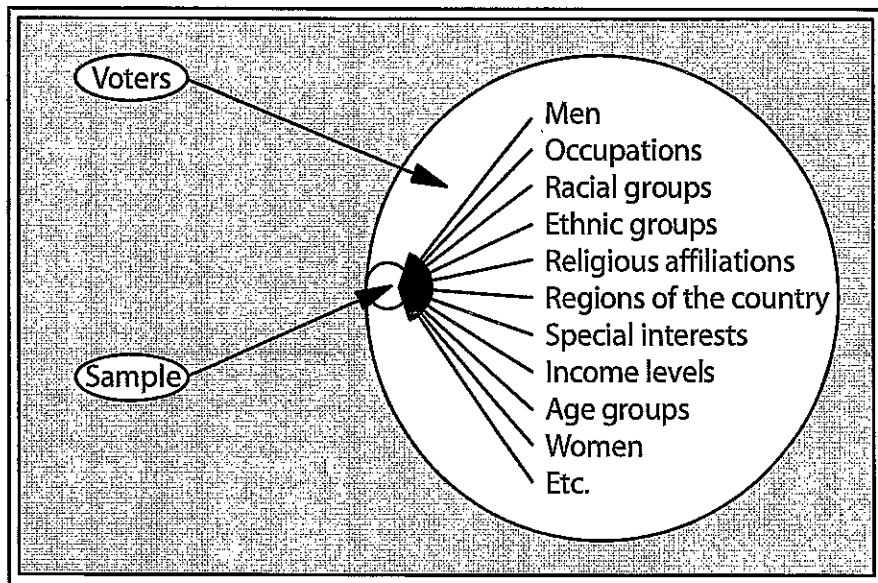


Figure 1. The sample should represent all these groups of voters (and many more) in the same proportion as they make up the whole electorate.

IDENTIFYING
GENERALIZATIONS

EVALUATING
GENERALIZATIONS

You can recognize statistical generalizations by watching for their cue words (“all,” “none,” “some,” “most,” “a majority,” “few”) or plural nouns (“women,” “farmers,” or “people”).

Questions you should ask when evaluating generalizations include the following.

- How large is the sample?
The strength of a statistical generalization is improved by larger sized sampling.
- How representative is the sample?
If you picture the generalization as a little circle and a big circle, as in Figure 1, the question becomes: Does the little circle have all the same subgroups in the same proportion as the big circle?

You should not, however, be concerned only with evaluating generalizations that other people make. You should also be concerned with how far you can legitimately generalize from what you know.

For example, if you learned that slaves on ten large cotton plantations in Maryland in the 1850s were brutally treated, you might generalize that slaves on most large cotton plantations in Maryland at that time were brutally treated. You would be on much shakier ground, however, to generalize that slaves on most plantations were brutally treated at all times. You really have no information about slaves on, say, small Virginia tobacco plantations in the 1720s, so you shouldn’t make such a broad generalization. The warning is, “Do not overgeneralize.”

**Generalization
Fallacies** *Hasty
generalization*

This fallacy consists of a general conclusion based on an inappropriately small or unrepresentative sample. For example, suppose a reporter polls three people in Illinois, all of whom say they support gun control. If the reporter concludes that all (or even most) people in Illinois support gun control, then he or she is making a hasty generalization.

This fallacy includes such oversimplifications as “If it weren’t for bankers, we wouldn’t have wars.” To avoid such fallacies, remember that any group (such as people, wars, or depressions) is quite complex and must be carefully sampled to take those complexities into account.

*Composition and
division
(stereotyping)*

These two related fallacies confuse the characteristics of the group and the characteristics of the individuals within that group. In composition, the characteristics of the individual(s) within the group are ascribed (given) to the whole group. (“She’s a good lawyer, so the law firm she is a member of must be a good firm.”) In division, characteristics that belong to the group as a

whole are assumed to belong to each of the individuals. (“She’s a member of a good law firm, so she must be a good lawyer.”)

These fallacies are commonly referred to as *stereotyping*, which is defined as “applying preconceived ideas to a group or members of a group.” This results in the groups or individuals being judged before we really know them. This act of prejudging is where we derive the word *prejudice*. “You’re Jewish, so you must be well educated” and “Of course he’s a drinker, he’s Irish!” are examples of stereotype statements.

Special pleading

In this fallacy the arguer presents a conclusion based on information favorable to the argument while ignoring unfavorable information. (“Mom, I should be able to go to the dance. I passed my history test and got an ‘A’ in math.” ...omitting the information that I failed science and English.) A good argument avoids this fallacy by including unfavorable information and overcoming it with compelling reasons for accepting the thesis or conclusion.

Reasoning by Proof (Evidence, Example, or Authority)

These types of reasoning concern whether or not the evidence or authority used supports the point being argued. It does not concern the strengths and weakness of the evidence itself (see the **Evidence** section of the Guide). Similarly, the word “proof” as used here does not mean absolute proof—as in mathematics—but rather refers to methods used to support an argument or interpretation.

This is generally a legitimate method of supporting an argument. For example, a doctor might be called to testify in court to support the argument that a claimant had certain injuries (proof by authority). A biologist might explain the results of several investigations (example), cite evidence gathered (evidence), and quote the written opinions of several experts (authority) to support an argument on the effects of toxic waste.

IDENTIFYING PROOF REASONING

Proof reasoning can be identified by cue words such as “for example,” “for instance,” “according to,” “authority,” and “expert.” When evaluating argument by proof, you should look at the answers to several questions:

EVALUATING PROOF
Evidence
Examples
Authority

- Does the evidence prove the point being argued? Does it support the point under consideration?
- Are the examples pertinent to the argument?
- Is this person an expert on this particular topic? What are the qualifications of the authority? Are they presented?
- Do other authorities agree with these conclusions? Are there any authorities who disagree with the conclusion? Are counterarguments acknowledged and/or refuted?

END 

**Fallacies
of Proof**

*Irrelevant
proof*

Arguments which present compelling evidence that does not apply to the argument in question are fallacies of irrelevant proof. For example, “If you flunk me, I’ll lose my scholarship” and “Everyone else does it” are fallacies of irrelevant proof. As a further example, suppose Senator Smith is accused of taking bribes to vote for certain laws and, in his defense, presents a great deal of evidence that shows he is a good family man. This evidence does not concern his actions as a senator and is thus irrelevant to the charges. Good arguments avoid this fallacy by sticking to the issue under question.

*Negative
proof*

This fallacy type presents a conclusion based on the lack or absence of evidence to the contrary. For example, “There is no evidence that Senator Macklem is an honest woman, so it’s obvious she is a crook” or “Since you haven’t proven that there is no Santa Claus, there must be one.” Remember that you must present evidence to **support** your conclusions when you are making a case.

*Prevalent
proof*

Related to the fallacy of negative proof, this fallacy concludes that something must be the case because “everyone knows” it is the case. Such arguments as “Everyone knows she’s a winner” and “Politicians can’t be trusted; everyone knows that” are examples of the prevalent proof fallacy. Remember, in previous times “everyone knew” that the sun revolved around the earth! The critical thinker sometimes asks questions even about things which everyone knows.

Numbers

A conclusion that the argument is right solely because of the great amount of evidence gathered commits the fallacy of numbers. For example, “We checked hundreds of thousands of government records, so our theory must be right.”

Notice that no mention is made of what the “government records” contained—the argument only states that they were “checked.” A great deal of evidence can be amassed to support a slanted perspective or an argument using poor reasoning or faulty assumptions. When constructing arguments, check them not only for strong evidence but also for sound reasoning and assumptions.

*Appeal-
to-authority*

A conclusion that is based only on the statement of an expert commits the appeal-to-authority fallacy. Such arguments conclude, “I’m right because I’m an expert” and lack additional supporting evidence. For example, the argument “It must be true because it says so right here in the book” is based only on the “authority” of the book’s author. Arguments must be judged on the strength of their evidence and their reasoning rather than solely on the authority of their authors.

Appeal to the golden mean

This logical fallacy is committed when the argument is made that the conclusion is right because it is moderate (between the extreme views). If someone argued, "Some people say Adolf Hitler was right in what he did, while others say he was one of the most evil leaders in history." These views are so extreme that a more moderate view must be right. "He must have been an average leader," he or she would be appealing to the golden mean. (Of course, the "extreme" view that Hitler was evil is right in this case.)

This fallacy can be avoided by realizing that there is no reason for an extreme view to be wrong simply because it is extreme. At one time it was considered "extreme" to think that women should vote or that people would fly.

**Reasoning by Debate
(eliminating alternatives)**

Reasoning by debate helps a person see why one interpretation should be believed over other interpretations and puts an interpretation into a context. It is not surprising, therefore, that articles in historical journals frequently begin by a survey of other interpretations of the topic under study and an attempt to refute opposing interpretations.

This type of reasoning advances an argument by referring to and attempting to show the weaknesses of alternative interpretations. This attempt to disprove, called debating, is not only acceptable, but desirable. For example, someone might argue, "Peter thinks Mi-Ling will get the lead role in the play, but he's wrong. Lucetta has a better voice and more acting experience, so she'll get the lead." A historian might argue, "Although the traditional view is that slavery is the main cause of the Civil War, people who hold that view are wrong. Economic problems, especially over the tariff, were the main cause of the bloody war." Both are applying reasoning by debate.

IDENTIFYING DEBATES

Cue words for this type of reasoning include "other people believe," "the traditional view is," "other views are wrong because," "older interpretations," and "other viewpoints are."

EVALUATING DEBATES

To help evaluate debate reasoning, ask questions like the following.

- Have all reasonable alternatives been considered? Have they all been eliminated as possibilities?
- Does this author attack the other views in a fair way?
- What might the authors of the other views say in response to this argument?

In eliminating possible alternatives, the author must be careful to attack the argument rather than the arguer, to present reasoned evidence against the argument, and to fairly

**Fallacies
of Debate** *Either-or*

interpret the alternative argument under consideration. This form of questioning can also be helpful when there is a lack of information.

This fallacy presents a conclusion that since A and B were the only possible explanations—and since A was not possible, B is proven to be the explanation. For example, “Only Willis and Cross were around, but Willis was swimming so Cross must have done it.” What if someone else was actually around but no one saw him or her?

Of course, eliminating alternatives can be very important to reasoning a problem through, as Sherlock Holmes demonstrates so well. But one must be careful to ask: Have all alternatives been eliminated? Could it be both alternatives? Don’t let yourself be “boxed in” by this type of reasoning.

*Attacking
the arguer*

(In logical terminology, this is called *ad hominem*—Latin for “to the man.”) This fallacy occurs when statements are directed at the person making the argument rather than at the arguments presented. For example, the statement “No one should listen to what Mrs. Rouge says. She’s a Communist” is an attack on Mrs. Rouge personally rather than on the statement she made.

Sometimes the attack is more subtle, such as a look of disgust, a negative comment (“I don’t believe you just said that”), or sarcastic laughter. Good arguments avoid this fallacy by refuting the argument, not the person.

Straw man

This is the technique of attacking the opponents’ argument by adding to or changing what a person said, then attacking the additions or changes. For example, Johannas says he’s opposed to capital punishment, and Thibedeau replies, “People like you who oppose punishing criminals make me sick.” (Johannas did not say he opposed punishing criminals.) When constructing an argument, remember to be fair and argue against what your opponents said, not your version of what they said.

There are many methods of trying to prove something. The types of reasoning explained above (cause-and-effect; comparisons; generalizations; proof by evidence, example, or authority; and debate) are all methods of proof to be considered when evaluating historical arguments. The next section examines assumptions, which are like reasoning in that they lead to conclusions (assertions). They are different from reasoning, however, in that they are not always consciously argued. Authors frequently do not realize the assumptions they are making.

Assumptions

An assumption is the part of an argument containing the ideas or opinions that the arguer takes for granted. Stated assumptions are not of concern for the purposes of this Guide. When authors say they are assuming something, all you decide is whether you

GENERAL UNSTATED
ASSUMPTIONS

Part of the
argument as a
whole, where certain
over-arching assumptions
are made.

agree with the stated assumption.

Unstated assumptions are more difficult to recognize. There are two types of unstated assumptions: the general, more encompassing type and the specific type.

These assumptions are part of the argument as a whole and, as such, cannot be identified by rewriting particular arguments. In any argument there are an infinite number of such assumptions. For example, if you say you are going to the store to buy a TV, you are making the general assumptions that the store will be there, that you won't die on the way, that they'll have televisions in stock, and so forth. Some assumptions are trivial or unlikely, but others are very important. For example, if the President of the United States says, "We want North Korea to allow American inspectors to check that they really do not have nuclear weapons," he is assuming that the North Koreans cannot be trusted.

If, on the other hand, the President allowed the North Koreans to say they didn't have nuclear weapons without a means of verifying the North Korean statement, he would then be assuming the North Koreans can be trusted. He might or might not be right in either case. The important point is that we should recognize his assumption.

8th
Hour

SPECIFIC UNSTATED
ASSUMPTIONS

General assumptions shape historical interpretations. A historian who assumes that economics drives people's behavior will select economic information and write from that perspective; a historian who assumes that politics, in the form of power and compromise, shapes society will focus on that area in both research and writing.

To understand specific unstated assumptions you need to know something about the form of arguments. As was explained in the section on **Assertions**, arguments are made up of the conclusion and the rest of the argument, which is designed to prove the conclusion. The sentences that comprise the rest of the argument are called premises.

Short arguments take the form of *premise, premise, conclusion*. A well-known example is: "Socrates is a man. All men are mortal. Therefore, Socrates is mortal." In premise, premise, conclusion format, this would be:

Premise: Socrates is a man.

Premise: All men are mortal.

Conclusion: Therefore, Socrates is mortal.

If the above argument "looks funny," it's because people rarely talk this way. In normal speech, we often state the conclusion first: "I should be able to go outside now. My homework is

done.” It is also common to not state one of the premises or the conclusion at all. For example, if we are trying to decide who should pay for the broken vase, you might say, “Well, Joaquin pushed me into it.” Your point (although you did not state it) is that Joaquin should pay.

When you leave out a premise, you are making an assumption. For example, the argument, “We should spend our vacation in the mountains because we need a rest,” can be rewritten this way:

Premise: We need a rest.

Premise: ??

Conclusion: (Therefore) we should spend our vacation in the mountains.

The missing premise is the assumption.

You can figure out what the assumption is by asking, “What has to be true for this conclusion to be true?” In the above case, the missing premise (assumption) is: “The mountains are a good place to rest.”

When you have identified an assumption, evaluate it by asking if the assumption is correct. Assumptions are frequently related to the beliefs and values of the author, as explained in the next section.

Values are conditions that the person making an argument believes are important, worthwhile, or intrinsically good for themselves, their family, their country, and their world. Money, success, friendship, love, health, peace, power, freedom, and equality are examples of things people may value.

It is often important to discover the underlying values of the author of an argument, since assumptions made by an author are often related to the author’s beliefs and values. This will help you understand why the viewpoint is argued the way it is, and in cases where your values may be different from the author’s values, it will help you understand why you might disagree with the argument. For example, if you believe that peace is more important than demonstrating power, then you are going to disagree with an argument which says that since Country A increased its power by attacking Country B; it was right to attack.

Clues to an author’s value judgments are found in sentences containing words such as “good,” “bad,” “right,” “wrong,” “justified,” “should,” or “should not.” For example, if someone says, “The United States was wrong (value judgment) to drop the atomic bomb on Hiroshima because so many people were killed,” that person is saying that life (value) is more important

IDENTIFYING
ASSUMPTIONS

EVALUATING
ASSUMPTIONS

Values

IDENTIFYING VALUE
STATEMENTS

than the other conditions or values involved (power, peace vs. war, etc.).

To help identify an author's values, ask:

- Who wrote this?
- What beliefs does this person hold?

When you have identified a value judgment in an argument, you can then examine it. For example, consider the argument, "We should have capital punishment because criminals will commit

Evaluating Value Statements

1. *Separate the argument into its factual and value parts*

Factual part:

Capital punishment will make criminals commit fewer crimes. (Notice that this could be investigated by examining statistics on the number of crimes with and without capital punishment.)

Value assumption:

Fewer crimes is good (a desirable outcome).

2. *Rephrase the value statement into general terms.*

Anything (general term) which causes fewer crimes is good (value judgment).

3. *Ask yourself if the value statement is right in all instances.*

Is the statement, "Anything which causes fewer crimes is good" true? Can you think of cases in which you might not agree? Substitute some specific situations and see if the statement is still right. For example, "Jailing all people accused of a crime, whether found guilty or not would also cause fewer crimes to be committed. Should we do this?"

fewer crimes if they think they might be executed."

This kind of questioning will help both you and the person who originally made the claim think more fully about the value(s) behind the claim.

Three general questions can be used to test the worthiness of value claims.

- Are you willing to use this value in all situations?
- What would society be like if everyone believed and acted on this value?
- Would you want the value applied to you?

The next page contains two charts you may find helpful for reminding you of methods you can use to analyze the viewpoints presented in this book. As you proceed, refer to this "Guide to Critical Thinking" to help you with the lessons.

A MODEL FOR ANALYZING ARGUMENTS

A model is a way of organizing information. One type of model is an acronym where each letter in the model stands for a word. The model outlined here is **ARMEAR**. Each letter will remind you of a part of arguments to examine.

A Author

R Relevant Information

M Main Point

E Evidence

A Assumptions

R Reasoning

- Who wrote this interpretation and why?
- What are the author's values or beliefs?
- What can you learn about the author?
- What do you know about the topic being argued or topics related to it?
- What is the main point or thesis of the argument?
- What evidence is presented to support the argument?
- How reliable is it?
- What are the sources of the evidence?
- What assumptions does the author make?
- What reasoning is used in the argument? Cause and effect? Comparison? Generalization? Proof? Debate?
- How strong is the reasoning?

FIVE MAIN PARTS OF AN ARGUMENT

Assertion, main point, or thesis
Evidence

Reasoning

Assumptions
Values

- What is the author trying to prove?
- Is the source given for information?
- How strong is it? Primary? Reason to distort? Other evidence to verify? Public or private? (**PROP**).
- Cause-and-Effect — Is the connection shown? Are there other possible causes? Is there an important cause previous to the one proposed?
- Comparisons — How are the two cases different and how are they similar?
- Generalizations — How large and representative is the sample?
- Proof — Does the evidence support the point being made? How many examples are given? Is this authority an expert on this topic?
- Debate — Does the author attack other views in a fair way? Have all possible alternatives been eliminated?
- What must be true if the thesis is true (acceptable)?
- Do I agree with these values?
- Is this value position right in all instances?

SOL Gym Class Guide – Week of April 20th-24th

Do 20 minutes of exercise 3 times a week, or every day if you want. Exercise will help manage stress and is a great way to take a break.

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1. Stretch/Warm up for 5 minutes using our daily stretching routine. Include push-ups, sit-ups, planks to challenge yourself!	1. Stretch/Warm up for 5 minutes using our daily stretching routine. Include push-ups, sit-ups, planks to challenge yourself.	1. Stretch/Warm up for 5 minutes using our daily stretching routine. Include push-ups, sit-ups, planks to challenge yourself.	1. Stretch/Warm up for 5 minutes using our daily stretching routine. Include push-ups, sit-ups, planks to challenge yourself.	1. Stretch/Warm up for 5 minutes using our daily stretching routine. Include push-ups, sit-ups, planks to challenge yourself.
2. Do 15 minutes of continuous exercise. Choose from the list below.	2. Do 15 minutes of continuous exercise. Choose from the list below.	2. Do 15 minutes of continuous exercise. Choose from the list below.	2. Do 15 minutes of continuous exercise. Choose from the list below.	2. Do 15 minutes of continuous exercise. Choose from the list below.
3. Have a parent initial here after you complete your workout. _____	3. Have a parent initial here after you complete your workout. _____	3. Have a parent initial here after you complete your workout. _____	3. Have a parent initial here after you complete your workout. _____	3. Have a parent initial here after you complete your workout. _____

All 1L, 2L, 3L and 4L Students:

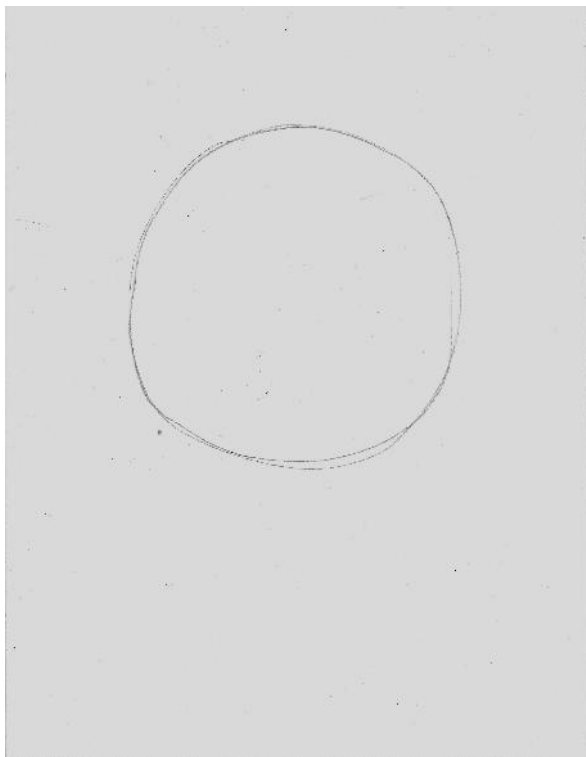
Complete #1-2 **THREE** times a week and have your parent’s initial box #3 when you finish each workout.

We want you to get moving! Here are some ideas for continuous exercise. You can choose one of these or come up with your own idea: Run, jump, juggle, lift weights, dance, do household chores like vacuuming, jump rope, bounce a ball, walk where you’re allowed, create a minute-2-win it challenge, throw a ball, play catch, climb, etc.

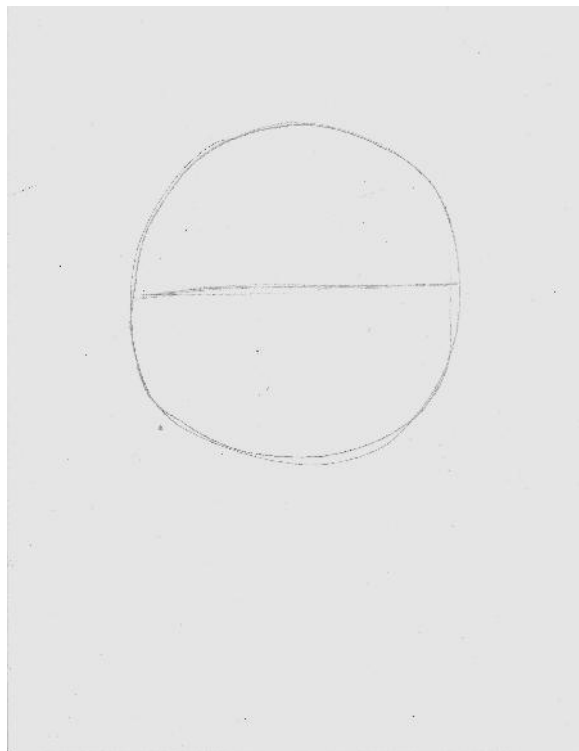
Step #1: making a map of the face (draw lightly)

Drawing the face map first will help you draw a more proportional face! Once you know how to lay out a face map, you know the basics for creating or drawing any face. Your assignment this week is to draw a detailed, and proportional face. Use this guide and Create any face or for a greater challenge, draw the face of someone you know!

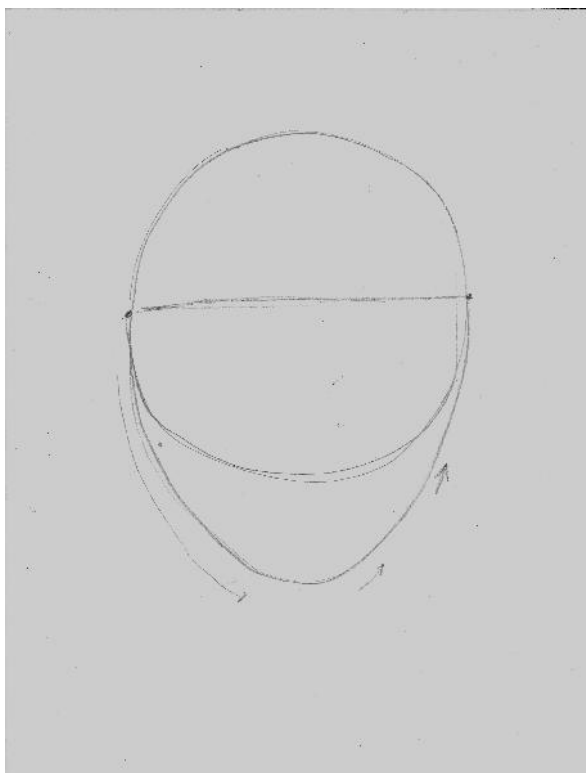
1. Draw a circle



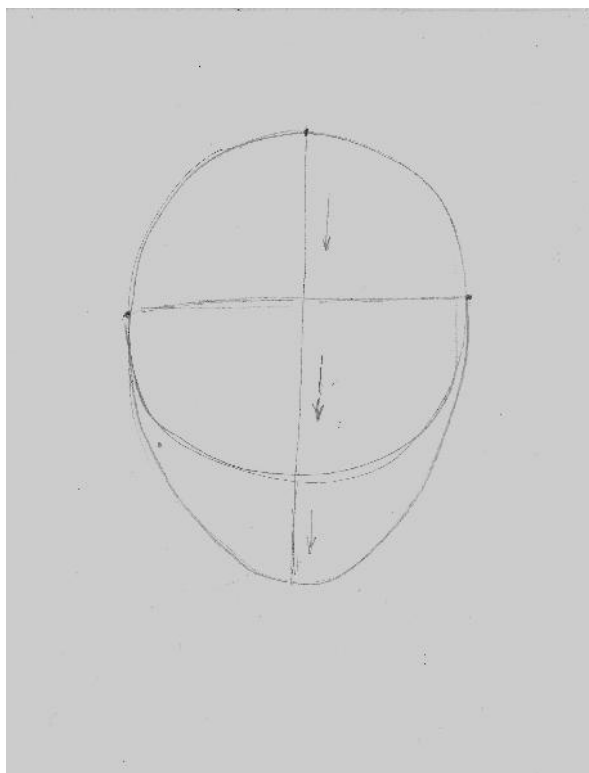
2. draw a line through the center of the circle



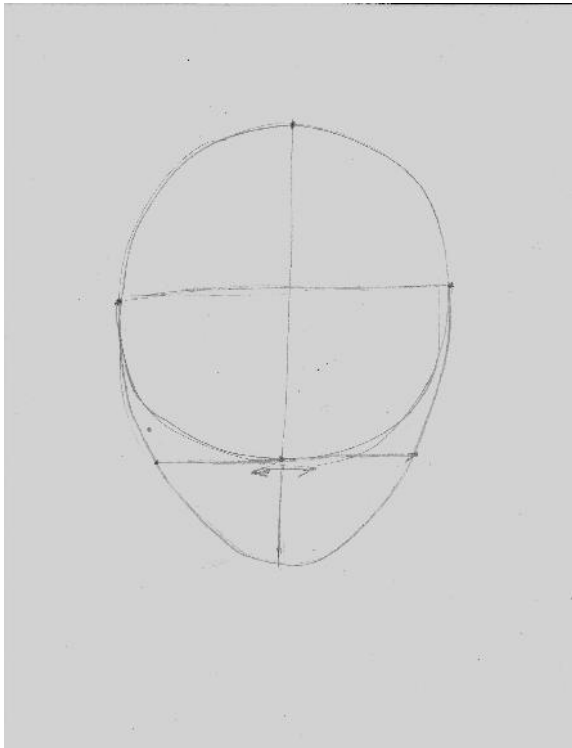
3. From the points where the line intersects the circle draw a U shape from side to side



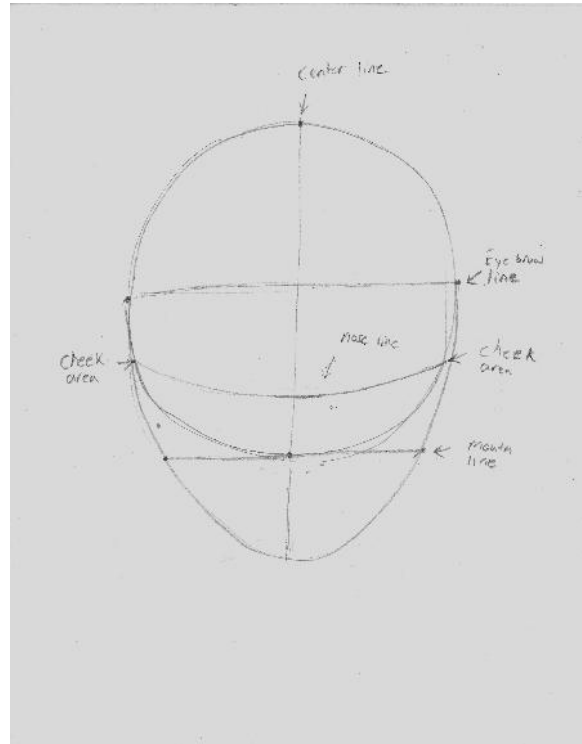
4. Draw a center line down the middle of you upside down egg shape.



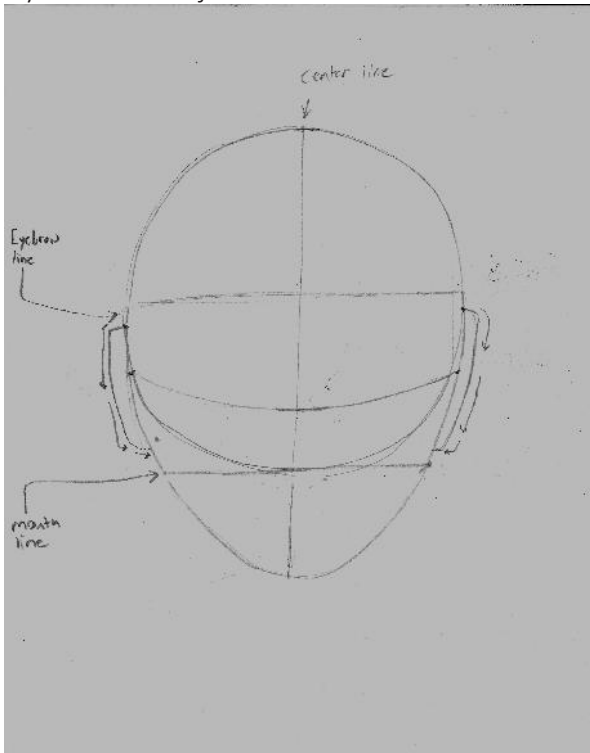
5. Find the bottom of your original circle, and draw lines straight out in either direction until they hit the U shape you drew.



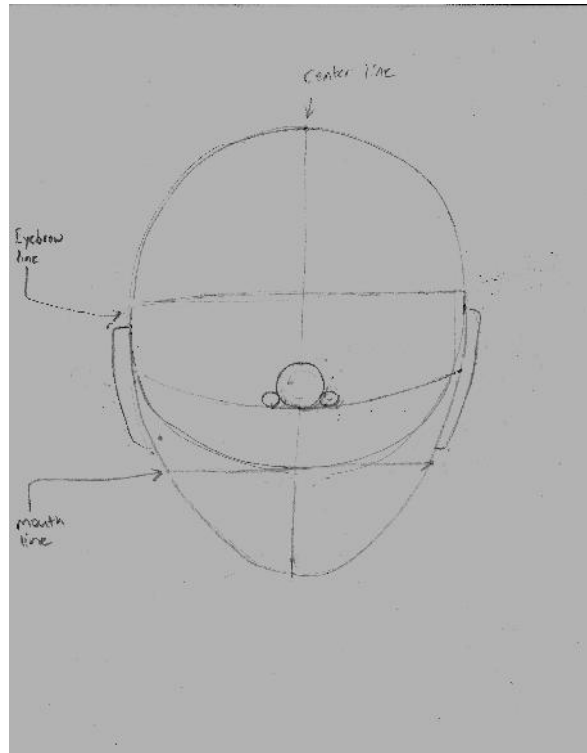
6. To find where our nose will go we will need to find the "cheek area" on both sides of the face. Then draw a slightly downward curved line from side to side. The nose line.



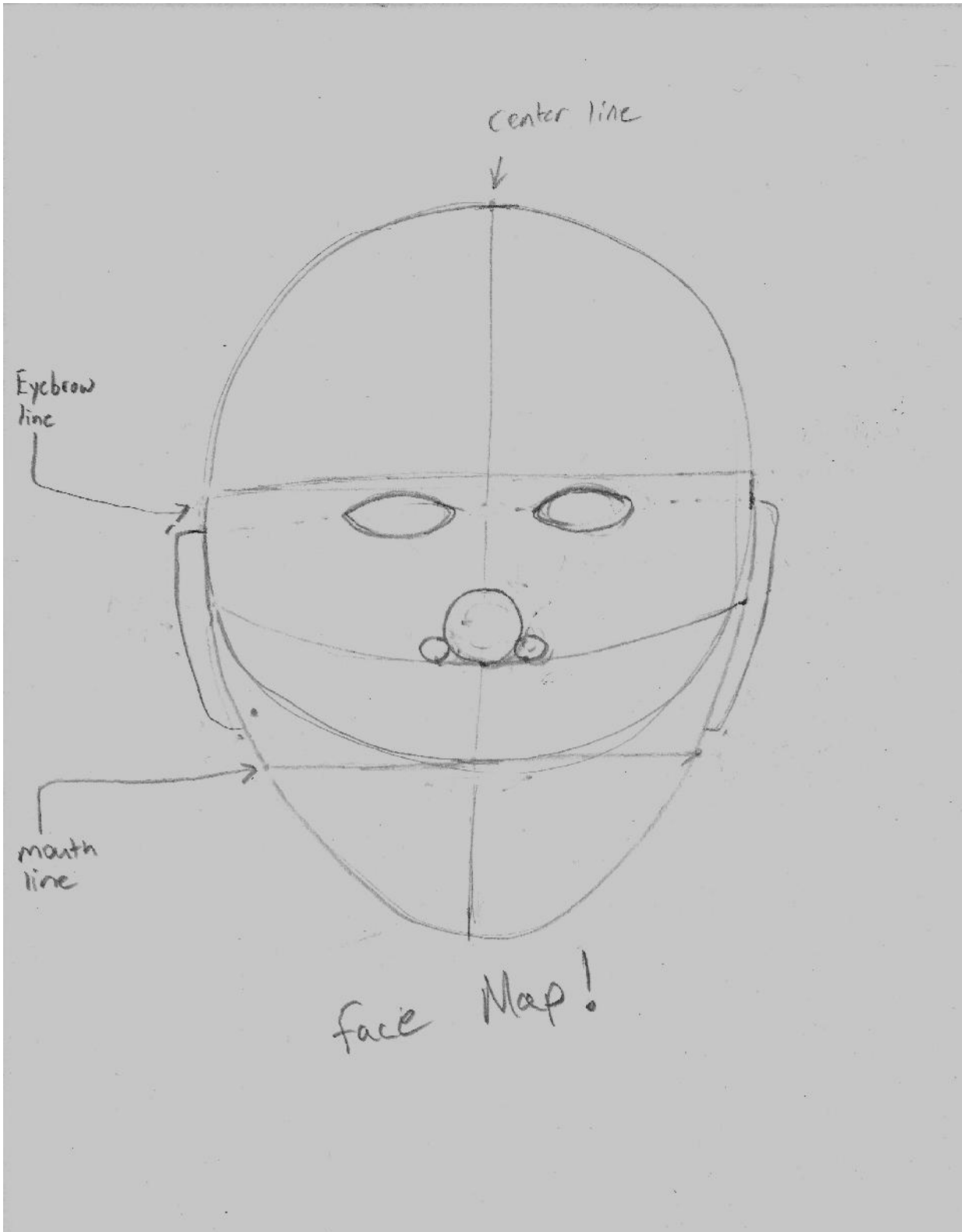
7. To place the ear shapes in, simply draw a C shape on both sides. Do this from just below the eyebrow line to just above the mouth line.



8. To place the nose shapes in, find where your nose line meets your center line and draw a **O**. Then place two smaller **o**'s on each side, creating a **ooO** shape



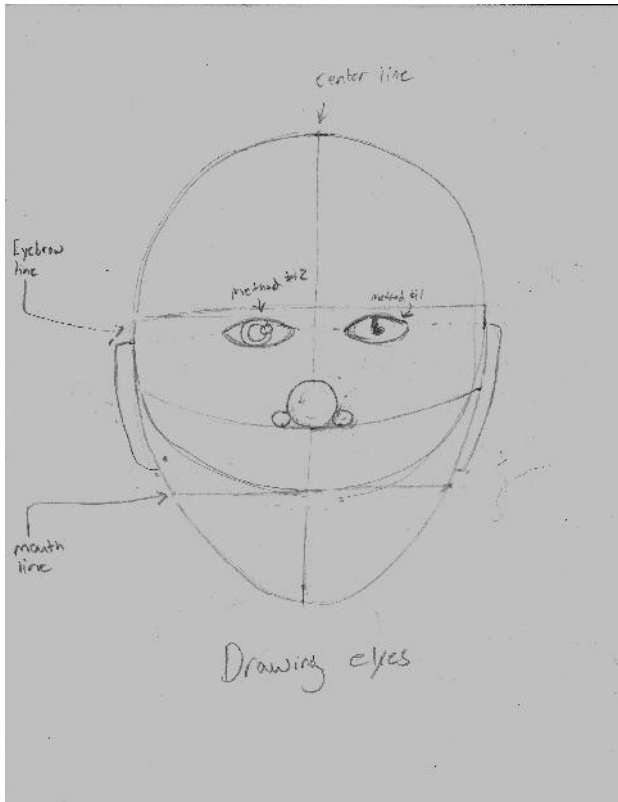
9. to place eye shapes in we simply draw in two football shapes. Try and make sure they are spaced away from your center line slightly. Also make sure to draw these football shapes below the eyebrow line. Once you have completed this you "FACE MAP" is complete. this will serve as a guild as we stat to build our face



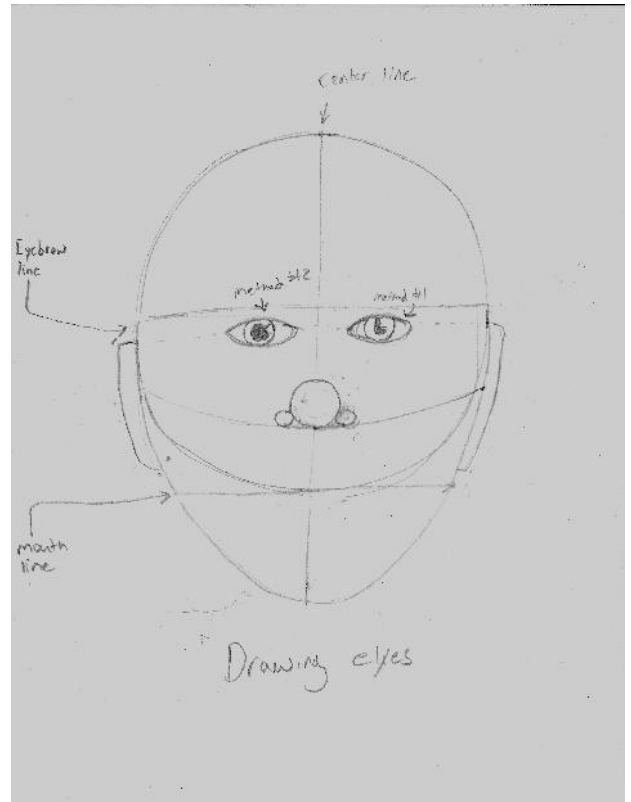
Step #2: Drawing in the facial features (Eyes, nose, mouth)

We are going to start with the eyes. there are 2 simple ways to finish a eye, for this I will call them method1 (M1) and method2 (M2). These are two methods, you only need to draw your face using one of them.

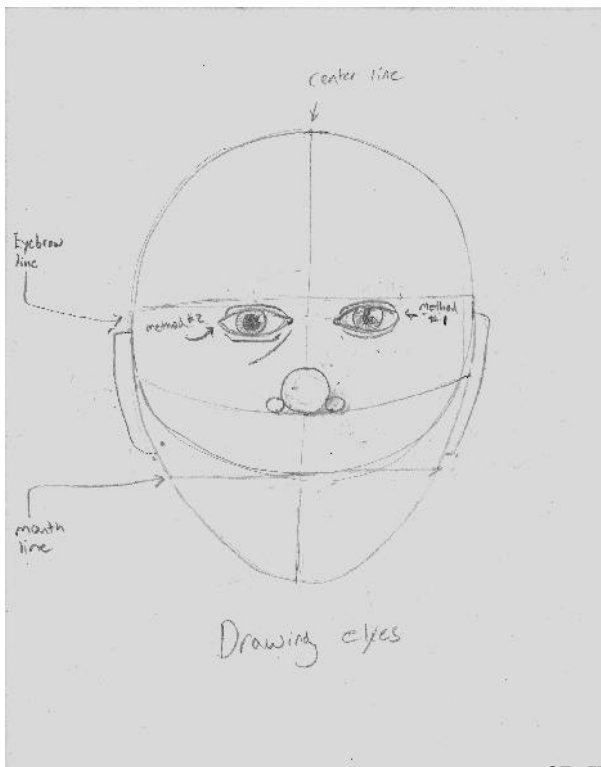
1. M1- Draw a rounded **L** as shown below on the right. M2- Draw 3 circles as shown below on the left



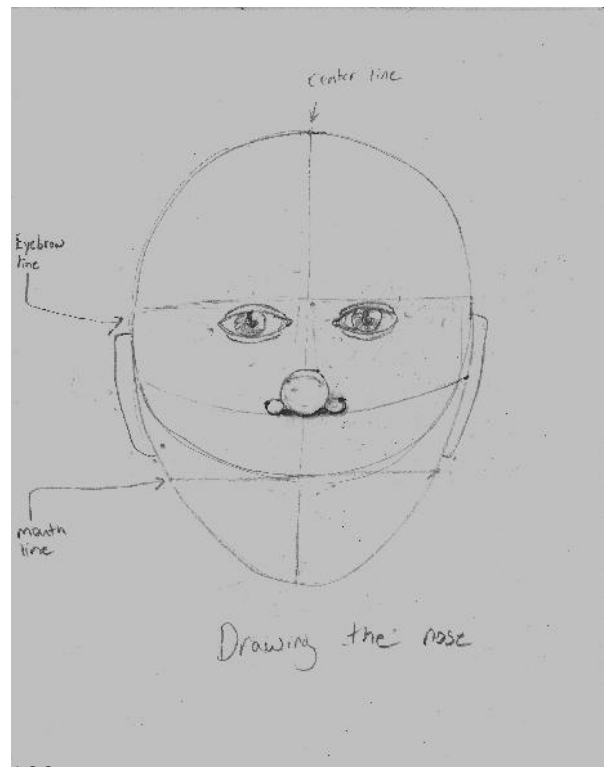
2. M1- draw a circle around you **L** shape. M2- shade in center circle and erase line inside off center circle.



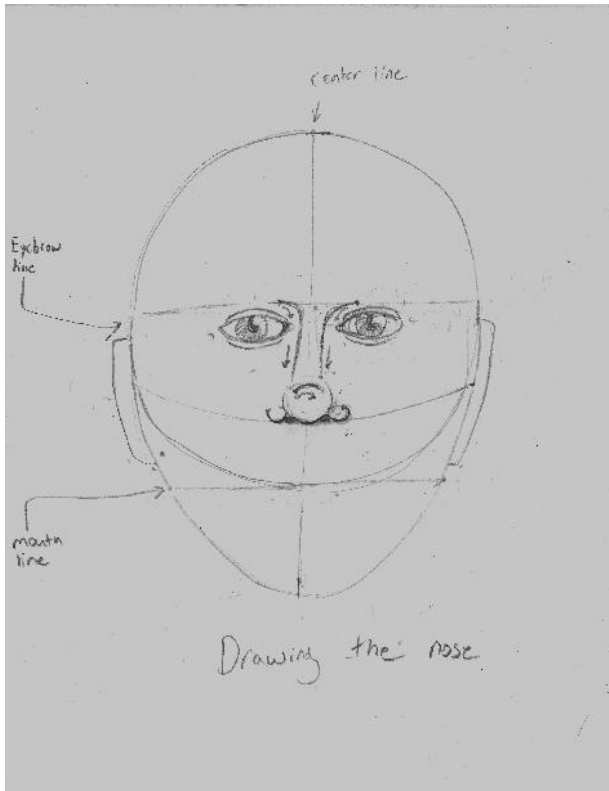
3. M1- shade outer circle leaving the highlight are white. M2- shade grey inside circle shown below. draw lines above and below the football shape to add eye lids, at this point your done with eyes.



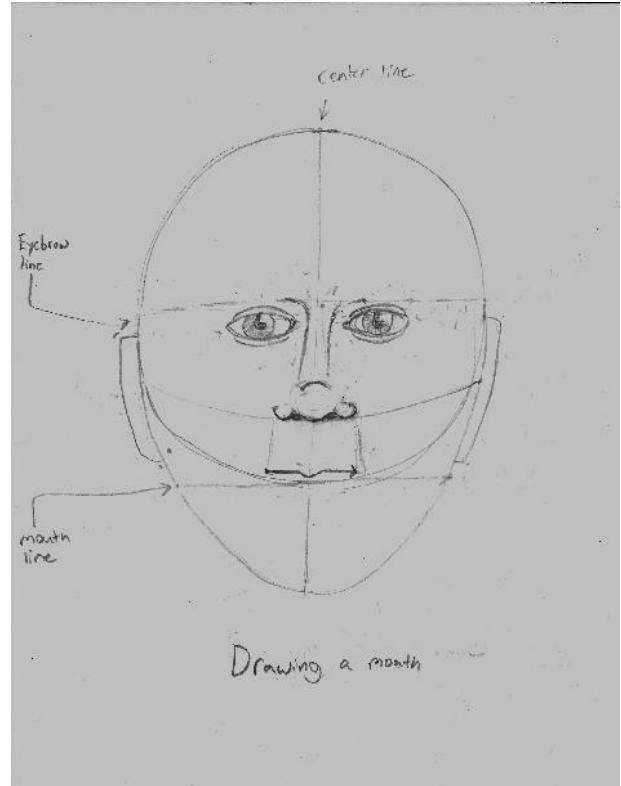
4. To begin to draw a nose I look at the "MAP" have made for it. I start a line in the middle of the far left little **o**. I trace that line along the bottom as shown.



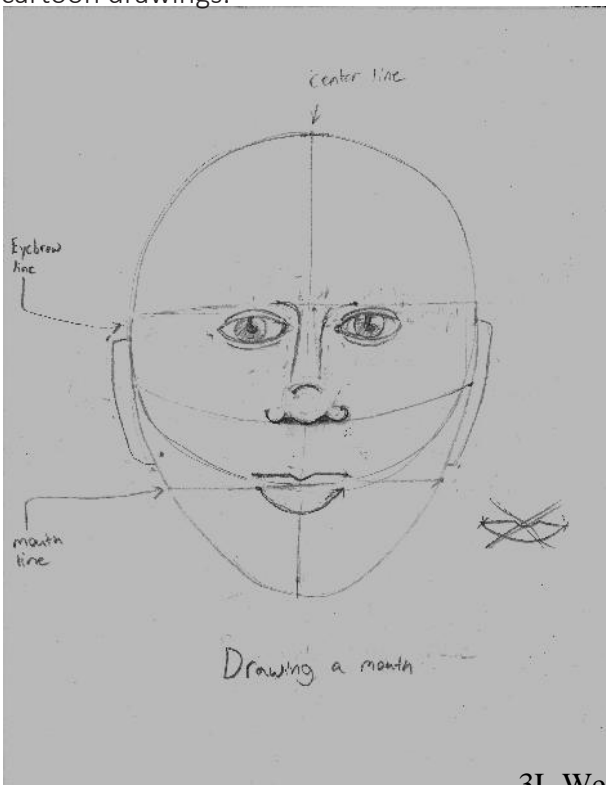
5. Draw a small line to define the round top of the nose. Then draw two lines down, from your eyebrow line to create the bridge of your nose



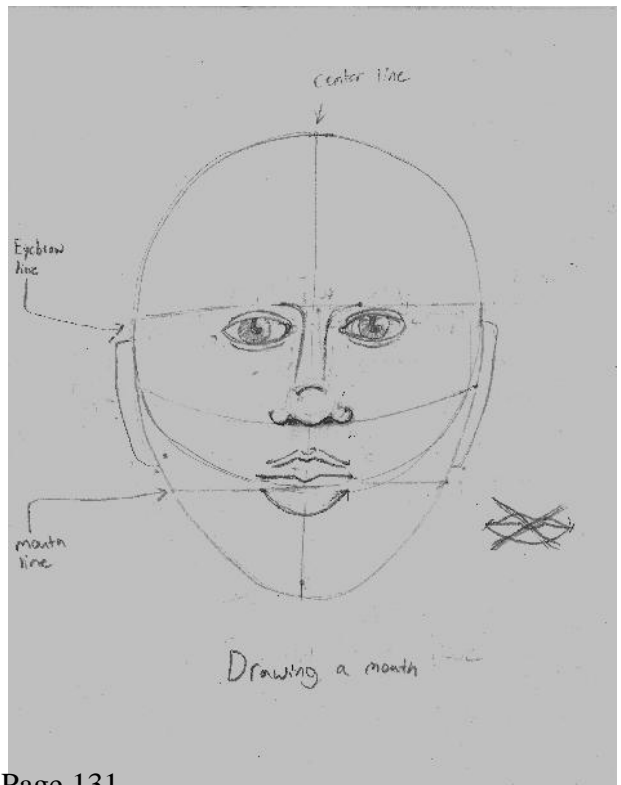
6. To begin the mouth I draw a line with a slight **U** shape in the middle of it over my existing mouth line. This creates the center line of my closed mouth.



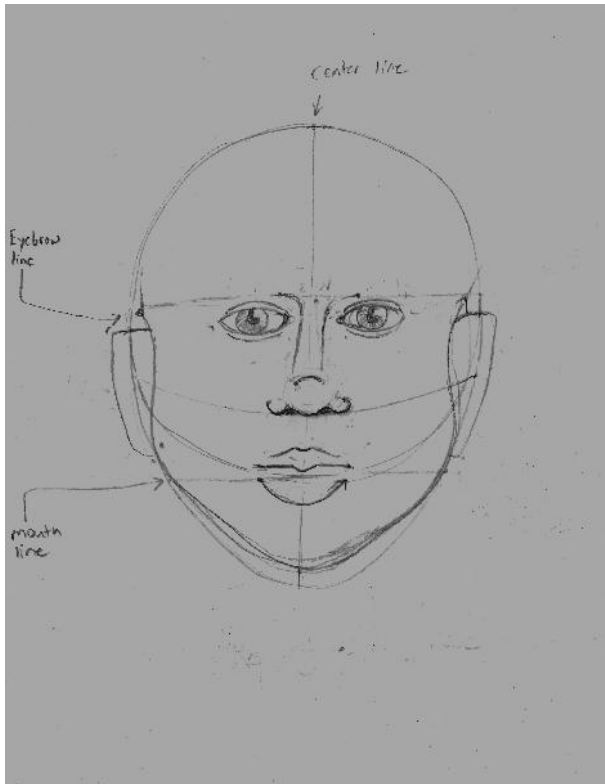
7. The next line we draw under the mouth line is the bottom lip. This line can be round or more square shape. Do not connect the lip line to the center mouth line, this makes mouths look like cartoon drawings.



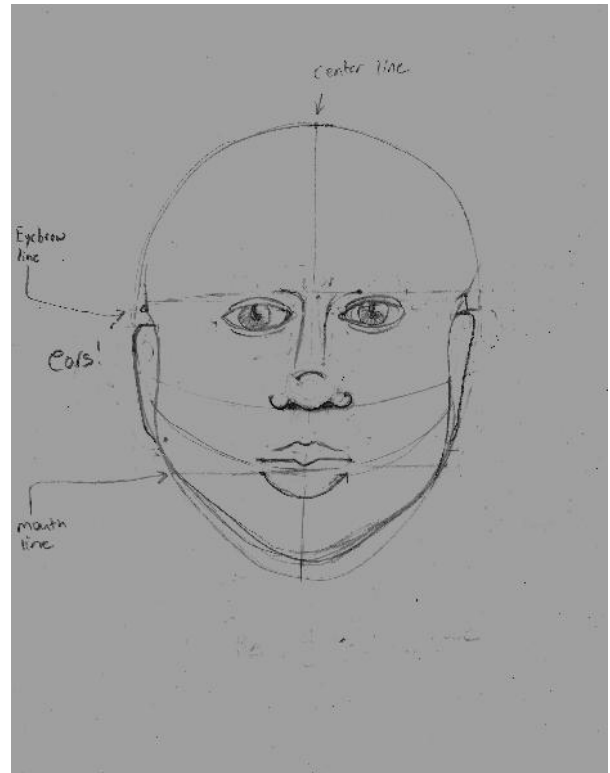
8. Last line you want to place is the upper lip line. You can place this line higher or lower to make a different looking lip.



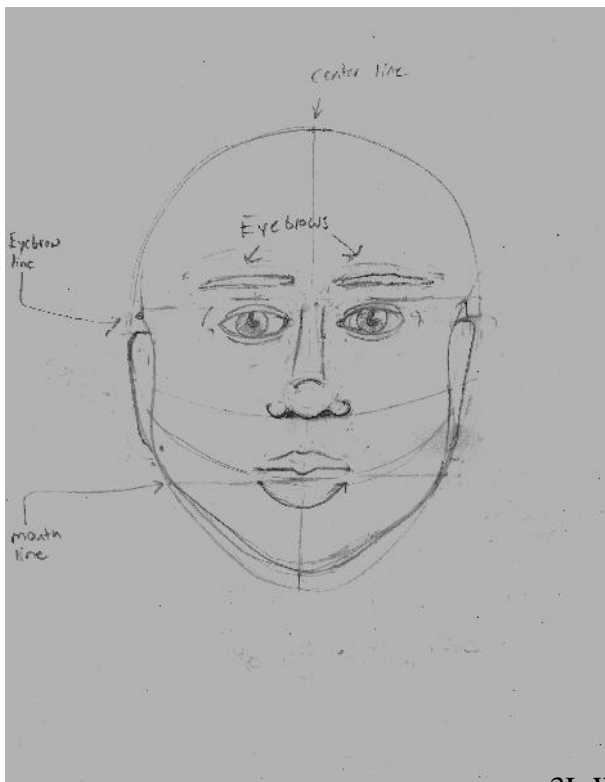
9. Now that you have the main facial features layed in. You can adjust your fave shape so your face doesn't look so "egg headed".



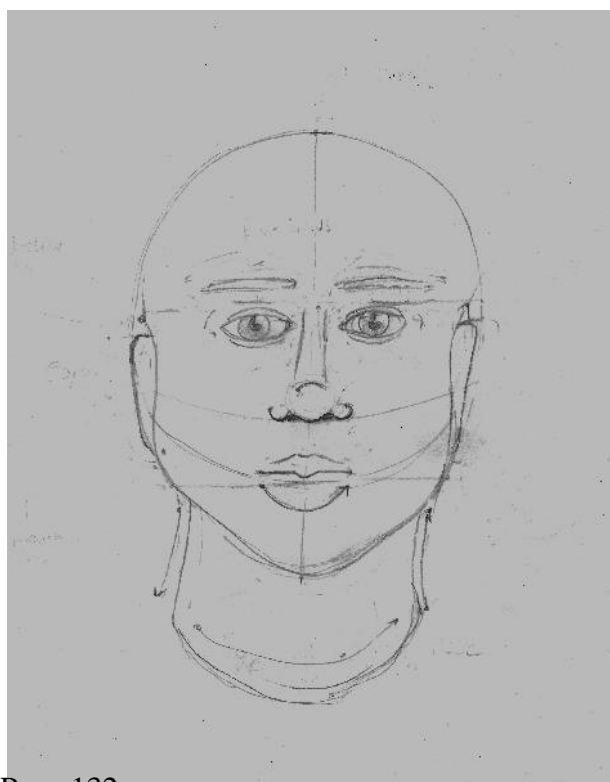
10. If you bring in the head size like I have here. Make sure to move in your ear shapes as well. Unless the face you are creating has large ears.



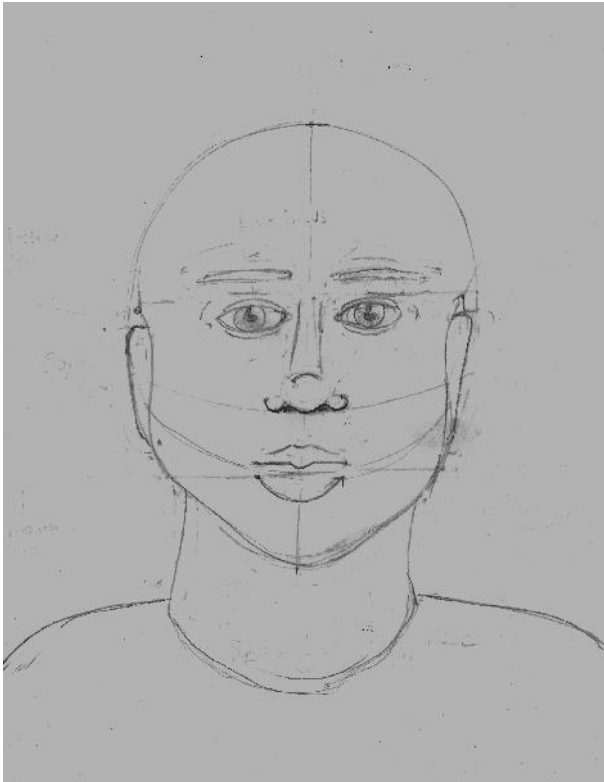
11. Above each eye you can draw the shape of your eye brow.



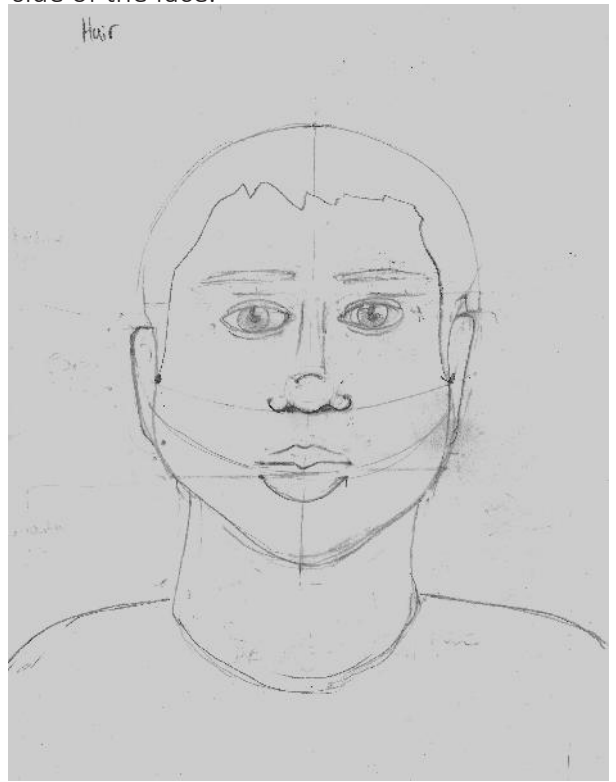
12. Next you will want to draw in a neck. Draw two lines down on either side of the chin. Then attach the two with a half circle line.



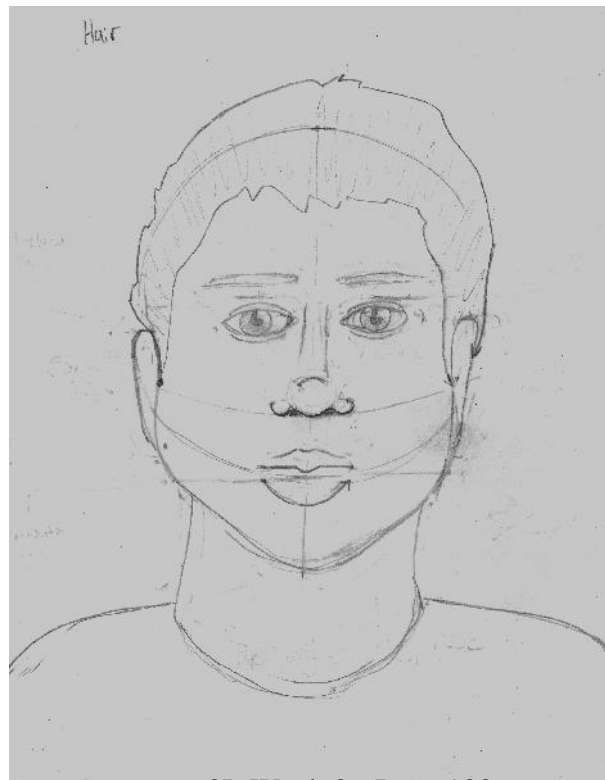
13. Draw in sholder lines from bottom corners of your kneck out to the edge of your paper.



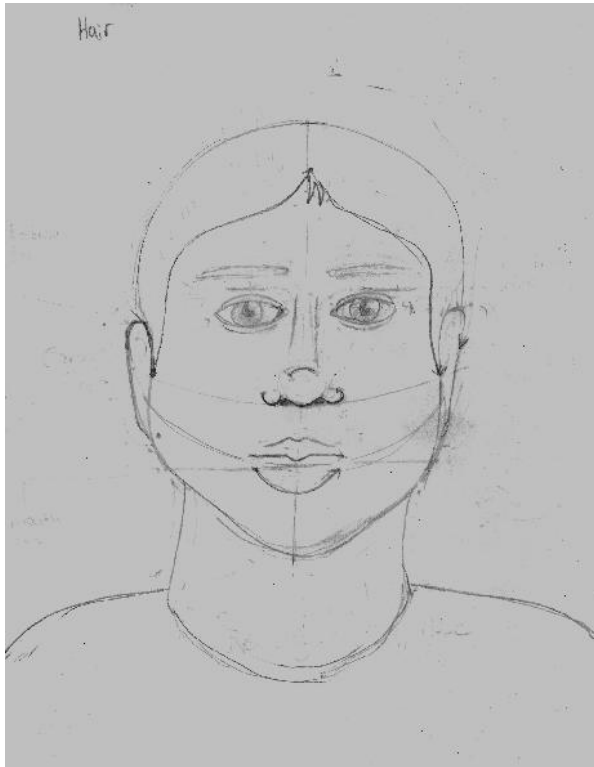
14. To draw short hair lay out the hairline first. I start this line near the middle of the ear and draw it around to the same place on the other side of the face.



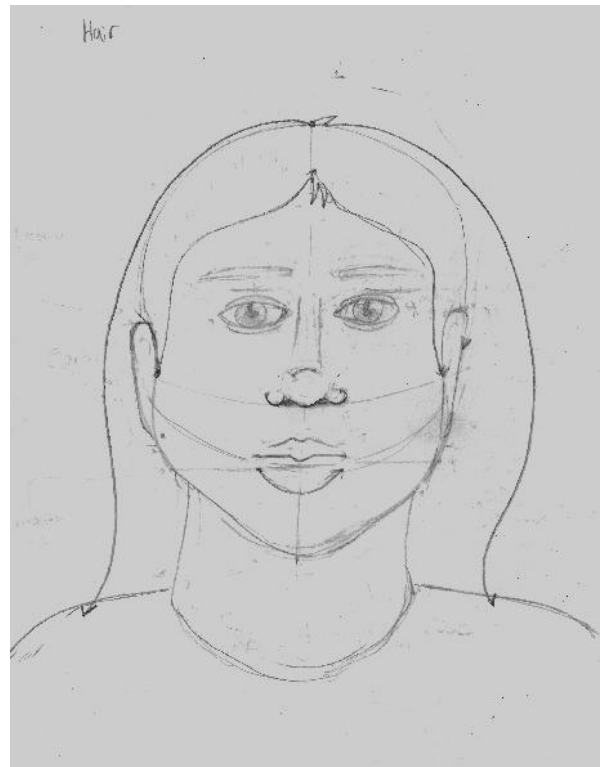
15. Next we draw the top of the hairline in. Notice this may go above the top of the head you originally mapped out. This would be because the hair may stick up a bit.



16. To make long hair also draw in your front hairline.



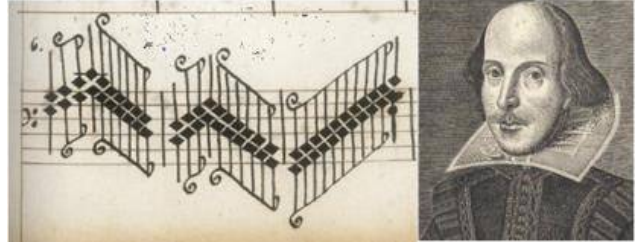
17. Next draw in the top hairlines, but this time run them down to the shoulder line.



18. To make the hair appear to flow you can erase a ear and have the hair run over the top. You can also draw in points where the hair may cross over the shoulders.



Scholar Name: _____



Music Lesson No. 2: Shakespeare and Music

This Thursday, April 23, we celebrate the birthday of the English poet and playwright, **William Shakespeare** (1564-1616).

Music plays many roles in Shakespeare’s works. Performances of his plays were full of song and dance scenes. They started with an overture performed by musicians playing the recorder, lute, sackbut, shawm, viol, small drums, and other late Renaissance instruments. At the end the cast would act out a comic dance, even after tragic plays such as *Hamlet* or *Julius Caesar*. “Kemp’s Jig” from 1599 is an example of the playful music for this final dance scene.

Shakespeare mentions more than 100 songs in his plays and sonnets. He often writes new words for melodies that were as popular at that time as today’s pop songs are now. Sometimes he gives stage directions telling what tune to use, such as “Greensleeves” or “Chi Passa.”

The round was a popular type of song in Shakespeare’s time. The melody of a round is repeated, literally going “round and round.” (Have you sung “Row, row, row your boat” or “Frere Jacques”? These are rounds.) Some of the most popular rounds during Shakespeare’s life were “Three Rounds in One,” “Three Ravens,” and “Three Blind Mice.”

Shakespeare was well-versed in the history of music. He refers to Orpheus, the most famous musician of Greek mythology, to show the power of music to affect our emotions and behavior. Shakespeare also mentions “the music of the spheres,” the name that the Greek philosopher Pythagoras gave to music coming from the outer reaches of the universe.

Shakespeare thought of music as a way to judge people’s characters. In *The Merchant of Venice*, he says that people who do not like music are not to be trusted. Shakespeare also used music as a metaphor. One famous example is from Shakespeare’s comedy *Twelfth Night*: “If music be the food of love, play on.”

Scholar Name _____

After reading the first page on “Shakespeare and Music,” please answer the following questions. As a reminder, answers such as “I don’t know” and “nothing” will not be accepted.

- If you attended a play during Shakespeare’s life, how would music be a part of your experience in the theatre?

- How many different songs are mentioned in Shakespeare’s writings? _____
- What type of song has one voice starting alone before the others join in with the same melody? _____
- Name a musician from Greek mythology that Shakespeare mentions in his plays.

- In two or more complete sentences, explain what you think Shakespeare means by, “If music be the food of love, play on.”

For Further Exploration

Music in Shakespeare's Writings. Read here:

<http://www.shakespeare-online.com/quotes/shakespearesongs.html> and here: <http://www.shakespeare-online.com/quotes/shakespeareonmusic.html>

Kemp's Jig. A dance by an unknown composer. It was popular in England at the beginning of the 1600s (17th century). Shakespeare used it in his play *The Tempest*.

Listen here: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pyTTCvgMNDE>

Chi Passa. A song by the 16th-century Italian composer Filippo Azzaiuolo, originally with Italian words. Shakespeare wrote new English verses to the Che Passa melody for his play *Pericles*. Listen here: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zgpKt8MNUFQ>

Greensleeves. Shakespeare wrote 18 (!) new verses to this tune for his play *The Merry Wives of Windsor*. The character John Falstaff says, "Let the sky rain potatoes; let it thunder to the tune of Green-sleeves...". Listen here:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qM36K0cmmU>

Three Blind Mice. A round in three voices by Thomas Ravenscroft, a musician who lived about the same time as Shakespeare. Ravenscroft published several books of rounds that were popular in the early 1600s. These are the original words:

Three Blinde Mice, Three Blinde Mice,
 Dame Iulian, Dame Iulian,
 The Miller and his merry olde Wife,
 She scrapte her tripe licke thou the knife.

1.

2.



Three blind mice. Three blind mice. See how they run. See how they



run. They all ran af-ter the far-mer's wife, who cut off their tails with a



car-ving knife, Did you e- ver see such a sight in your life, as three blind mice?

Instruments of Shakespeare's time. The left image below shows a **lute** (a pear-shaped plucked string instrument) and several sizes of **viol**, a bowed string instrument that was popular in the late Renaissance and early Baroque (about 1500-1700). The **shawm** (third instrument from left in right image) is an ancestor of the modern oboe. The telescopic slide mechanism of the trombone-like **sackbut** (far right) increases the tube length for lower tones.



Orpheus. Greek mythological figure. Son of Apollo, god of music. Orpheus could tame trees and animals with his singing and lyre-playing. Read more here:

<https://www.theoi.com/articles/the-tragic-myth-about-orpheus-and-eurydice/>

Shakespeare on Orpheus:

Orpheus with his lute made trees,
And the mountain tops that freeze,
Bow themselves, when he did sing:
To his music plants and flowers
Ever sprung; as sun and showers
There had made a lasting spring.

(from *Henry VIII*, 3.1.4-15)

Orpheus' lute was strung with poets' sinews,
Whose golden touch could soften steel and stones,
Make tigers tame and huge leviathans
Forsake unsounded deeps to dance on sands.

(from *The Two Gentlemen of Verona*, 3.2.79-82)

Later Music for Shakespeare Plays. Many composers of later times, especially in the 19th and 20th centuries, wrote music based on Shakespeare's plays. One example is Felix Mendelssohn's incidental music to *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. To listen, follow the link, and see if you hear the braying of Nick Bottom after Puck transforms him into a donkey! <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wlcImOYivDA>