

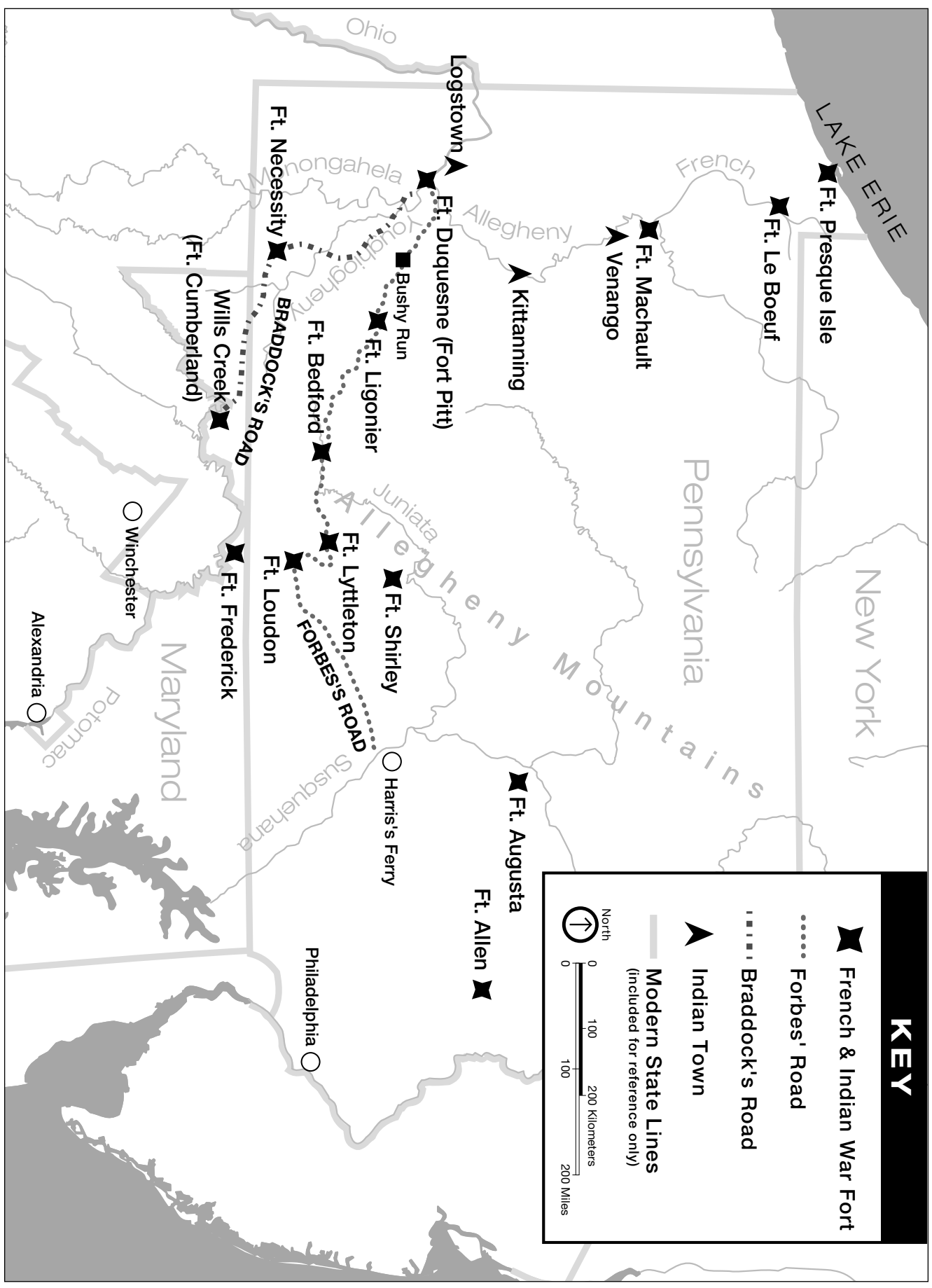


The
French
and
Indian
War
1754-1763

Teacher's Education Kit
Grades 4-6

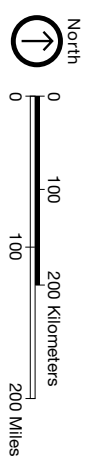


French and Indian War Forts and Roads in Pennsylvania



KEY

- ★ French & Indian War Fort
- Forbes' Road
- Braddock's Road
- ▲ Indian Town
- Modern State Lines
(included for reference only)



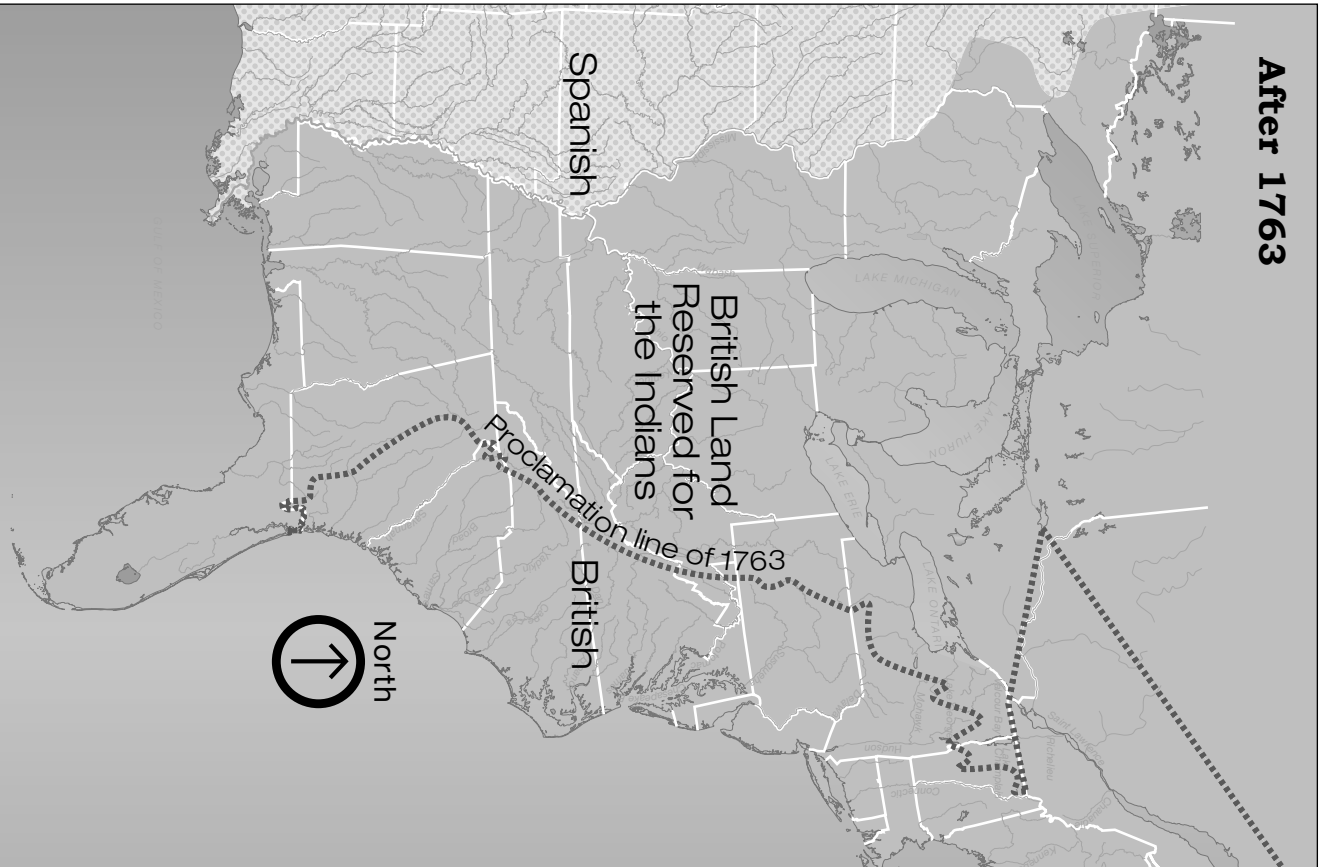


Treaty of Paris 1763

Before 1763



After 1763





Teacher Background on the French and Indian War

Who Were the People Involved?

The French and Indian War started as a struggle for control of the land west of the Allegheny Mountains in the Ohio River Valley. As the conflict spread, European powers began to fight in their colonies throughout the world. It became a war fought on four continents: North America, Europe, Asia, and Africa.

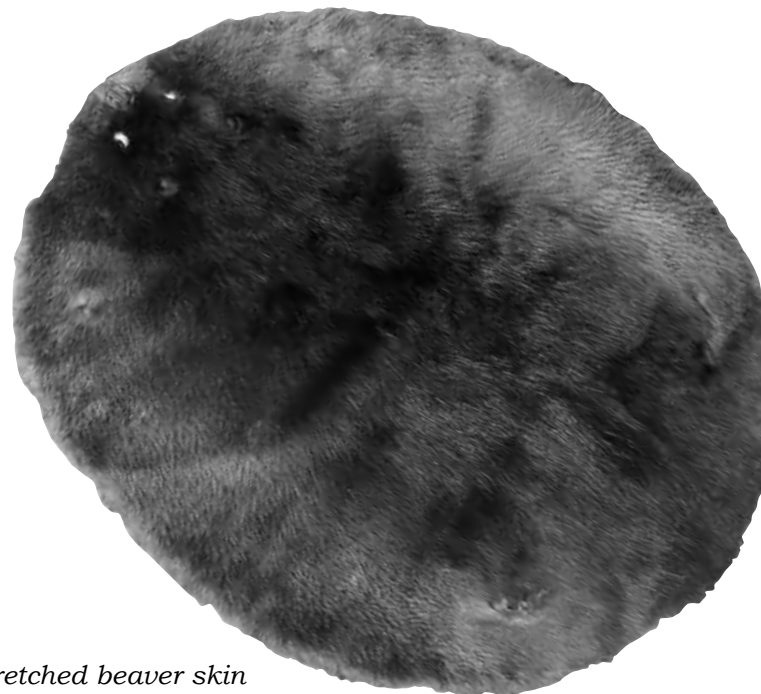
In the 1750s, the area west of the Allegheny Mountains was a vast forest. American Indians primarily from three nations – the Seneca, the Lenape (LEN-ah-pay) or Delaware, and the Shawnee – inhabited the upper Ohio River Valley. About 3,000 to 4,000 American Indians were living there. Their economy was based upon hunting, fishing, and agriculture. With enough land they were self-sufficient. They hunted beaver and other animals for trade. A few French and British traders traveled through the area. The American Indians traded furs and food for metal products, cloth, firearms, and other products. The American Indians were excellent warriors and scouts. During battles in the French and Indian War, their presence often made the difference between winning and losing. (For more on the American Indians please see the Teacher Background on Eastern Woodland American Indian Life, pages 28-33).

Northeast of the Ohio River Valley, in what is now western New York, was the home of the Haudenosaunee (hou-DE-noh-saw-nee) or Iroquois Confederacy. To form the confederacy, six nations had come together

to coordinate their actions, policy, and trade. The confederacy was extremely powerful and often dominated neighboring nations. The Seneca in the Ohio River Valley were members of the Iroquois Confederacy. The Iroquois Confederacy would send representatives to the Delaware and Shawnee to advise them and let them know the Iroquois position on political matters.

Beyond the Ohio River Valley were the nations around the Great Lakes. These nations were traditionally French allies. The French called these nations the “far Indians” and often called on these warriors to assist them in defending their colony. The French also relied on the American Indian nations along the St. Lawrence River for assistance.

The population of all the Indian nations in northeastern North America was about 175,000.



Stretched beaver skin

Teacher Background on the French and Indian War

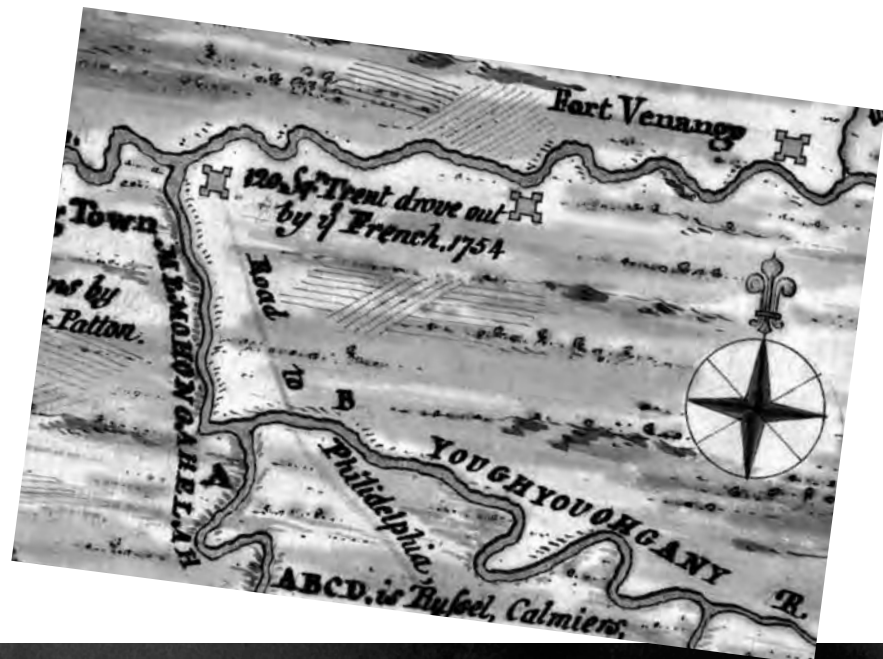
New France had three colonies: Canada (along the St. Lawrence River), the Illinois country (the mid-Mississippi Valley), and Louisiana (New Orleans and west of the Mississippi). There were about 70,000 colonists throughout the French settlements. Their economy was based on trade with the American Indians. It was a weak economic system, and the colonies were not self-sustaining. They needed to purchase food from the Indians or import it. The French colonists had a much different relationship with the American Indians than the British did. They viewed the Indians as trade partners and established personal relationships with the nations they traded with. They became members of the native communities and often inter-married and had children. Rivers and waterways were the best means of transportation through the interior of the continent. The French had a series of forts and trading posts along their main travel and trading route, west of the Ohio River Valley. The Ohio River Valley was an alternate transportation route. Even though the French did not have trading posts or settlements in the Ohio River Valley, they claimed the land as theirs.

To the east of the Allegheny Mountains lived more than 1 million colonists in the 13 British colonies. They had a strong economy based on farming. Their population was expanding rapidly, both through immigration and population growth. Although they had no settlers in the Ohio River Valley in 1750, the British colonies claimed the land. Virginia, in fact, claimed this land and all the lands as far west as the “islands of California.”

Although their economy did not depend on it, many Pennsylvania and Virginia traders traveled to the Ohio River Valley to trade. They did not have river access to the valley, and there were no roads for wagons. To get their goods across the mountains they used packhorses.

The British colonists generally did not mix with the American Indian societies. However, the two cultures needed to deal with each other. They needed people who could interpret the languages and also understand the different cultural customs and manners. The people who did this were called “Go Betweens.” They were more than translators, they were also diplomats.

Map of the Forks of the Ohio, 1754



What Were They Fighting For?

The Ohio River Valley Indians wanted to maintain their land, their lifestyle, and control of their future. They sought to trade with the Europeans but prevent settlement. By this time the American Indians depended on European goods. Guns, gunpowder, knives, lead for musket balls, rum, and cloth were a few of the items they did not want to live without. They were excellent hunters and were able to kill the game and beavers the Europeans sought. Most of the Shawnee and Delaware living in the Ohio River Valley had only started living there in the 1720s. They had moved to the region from their homes in eastern Pennsylvania. As the British colonists settled that land, the Indians moved west. The Shawnee and Delaware in the Ohio River Valley were under the political influence of the Iroquois Confederacy. They didn't like this and wanted to speak for themselves. The Iroquois Confederacy wanted to maintain control of the Ohio River Valley to improve its negotiating position with the French and British.

The French depended on the Indian trade as the basis of their economy. They were upset when Pennsylvania and Virginia started trading with the Ohio River Valley Indians. This area was on the eastern edge of their main trading routes, and they did not want to lose control of any of the trade. Also, they used the Ohio River Valley and its river systems as a transportation route. They wanted their traders, priests, and soldiers to be able to travel freely through

the region. The French were not interested in settling the area. However, they were determined to maintain authority over it.

By the 1750s British colonial settlement had reached the eastern base of the Allegheny Mountains. They saw wealth and opportunity in the vast lands west of the mountains. Many settlers hoped to own their own property. Wealthy colonists sought land grants in the hopes of securing lands that they could sell to settlers at a profit – land speculation. However, to get land speculation profits they needed more land, and the Ohio River Valley looked like a perfect place to get it. The British colonial traders involved with Indian fur trade were already making money in the region. None of these colonists wanted to see the French control the Ohio River Valley. The British saw many opportunities, and they did not intend to lose them to their enemies, the French.

The goals and economies of the three nations also affected how they viewed and interacted with each other. The British emphasis on farming and owning land often put them in competition with the American Indians. The French were more likely to view the Indians as allies since their economy depended so heavily on the Indian trade. The preservation of trade was important to the American Indian nations and often influenced which alliances they made.



Barrels of gunpowder

How Did the Conflict Begin?

In 1749 the French were becoming concerned with the Pennsylvania and Virginia traders in the Ohio River Valley. That summer they sent an expedition of 247 men under the command of **Captain Pierre-Joseph Céloron** (SEL-or-ohn) **de Blainville*** down the Ohio River.

Céloron buried lead plates in the ground stating the French claim to the land. He made speeches to the Ohio River Valley Indians warning them not to trade with the British and expelled the traders he found. In Logstown (near present day Ambridge, Pennsylvania) he found 10 British traders with 50 packhorses and 150 packs of fur. When he returned to Canada he had a bleak report. The Ohio River Valley Indians “are very badly disposed towards the French.” In order to keep the valley he recommended that the French build a fortified military route through the area.

In 1752, the **Marquis Duquesne*** (dyoo-KAYN) was named Governor of Canada. His instructions were “to make every possible effort to drive the English from our lands... and to prevent their coming there to trade.” The next year he began building a series of forts along the waterways in the Ohio River Valley. The first two forts were at Presque Isle (presk eye), on the south shore of Lake Erie, and Fort LeBoeuf (luh-BOOF) on French Creek, a tributary of the Allegheny River.

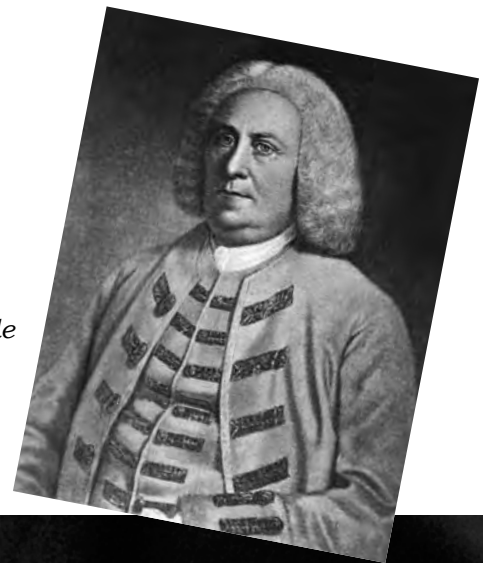
Meanwhile, Robert Dinwiddie (DIN-wid-dee), the Governor of Virginia, was granting land in the Ohio River Valley to citizens of his

colony. In 1753, he received instructions from the King of England “for erecting forts within the king’s own territory.” Dinwiddie was very upset about all the French activity in the Ohio River Valley. He sent a young volunteer, George Washington, to deliver a letter to the French demanding that they leave the region.

Not surprisingly, the French refused to leave. While Washington made the arduous 900 mile winter trip from Williamsburg to Fort LeBoeuf and back again, he noted that the point of land at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela (meh-NON-gah-HAY-lah) Rivers, called the “Forks of the Ohio,” would be an excellent place for a fort.

In the spring of 1754 the French had a post at Venango, near where French Creek and the Allegheny River meet. At the same time the British started to build a fort at the Forks of the Ohio. They had just hung the gate when 360 French canoes and over 500 French troops, with eight cannons, appeared. The British commander, Ensign Edward Ward, quickly realized that he was badly outnumbered. He and his soldiers left the fort to the French, who began building a much stronger fortification that they named Fort Duquesne.

Governor Robert Dinwiddie



**Names in bold print indicate a biography card on that person.*

Teacher Background on the French and Indian War

Many of the Ohio River Valley Indians were concerned with the large number of troops and their fort building activities. Since the British traders had been forced to leave, the Indians in the region now traded with the French. They found the French trade goods to be more expensive and of a poorer quality than those of the British.

Later the same year Washington was sent to the Ohio River Valley with the Virginia militia. He and his troops were told to take the “Lands on the Ohio; & the Waters thereof.” Their orders specified that they were to widen the packhorse trail into a road wide enough for wagons. While at Will’s Creek (what is today Cumberland, Maryland), Washington learned that the French were in control of the Forks of the Ohio and the fort the British had built there. Washington proceeded forward with the construction of a road across the mountains. The British hoped to use this road to retake control of the Ohio River Valley.

Over 50 miles west of Will’s Creek, Washington stopped to rest his men and horses in an open meadow called the Great Meadows. While camped in the meadow, Washington received a message from **Tanaghrisson*** (tan-ah-GRIS-suhn). Tanaghrisson was a Seneca sent by the Iroquois Confederacy to govern the Delaware and Iroquois in the Ohio River Valley. His position was given the title “the Half King.” The Half King sided with the British. His message to Washington stated that there was a band of French soldiers camped only a few miles from the Great Meadows. On the night of May 27, 1754, Washington and 40 soldiers began a dark

and wet overnight march. It was morning before they arrived at the Half King’s camp. Together they decided to surround the French.

Unaware, the French under the command of **Ensign Joseph Coulon de Villiers de Jumonville*** (joo-MON-vil) were just waking up. A French soldier spotted the British and yelled. They all ran for their muskets. A shot was fired. Then Washington ordered his troops to fire. The French were in a bad position at the bottom of a ravine. They tried to escape down the ravine but met the Half King and his warriors. They came back and surrendered.

The whole skirmish lasted only 15 minutes. One Frenchman escaped and 21 were captured. Jumonville lay wounded and 12 others were dead. The Half King approached the wounded Jumonville and said, “Thou art not yet dead, my father.” Then he raised his tomahawk and killed him. It was both a horrifying and a symbolic act. To the Half King and his people Jumonville represented the French in the Ohio River Valley and his death clearly showed the Half King’s desire to have them leave. These were the first shots of what was to become the French and Indian War. Shortly after the incident, the British historian Horace Walpole noted, “The volley fired by a young Virginian in the backwoods of America set the world on fire.”

This skirmish invited retaliation from the French and their American Indian allies. Washington returned to the Great Meadows where his troops built a small fort they named Fort Necessity. Washington was joined by more troops bringing the total number of British to nearly 400.

On July 3, 1754, about 600 French and 100 of their American Indian allies arrived in the Great Meadows just beyond Washington's fort. Jumonville's brother **Captain Louis Coulon de Villiers*** (duh VIL-yay) commanded the French army. They quickly found a weakness in the fort: in one area the trees were within firing range of the fort. The French and their allies concentrated their troops behind those trees. Then the weather turned against the British. It began to rain. The gunpowder that fired the muskets would not ignite. As night approached the British were in a bad position. They had been fighting all day and had many dead and wounded. About 8:00 in the evening the French called and asked if they would like to negotiate a surrender. Realizing their poor situation, the British agreed to negotiate.

Washington sent Captain Jacob Van Braam to negotiate. Although he was a Dutchman, he spoke French and English. After four hours of negotiating, the final surrender document was ready and Washington signed it. The document was written in French and contained many provisions. One provision, as Washington understood the translation, held the British responsible for the death of Jumonville. Later Washington learned that the document, actually twice mentions the assassination of Jumonville. This was a surprise and a humiliation for Washington. It also gave the French a document pinning the blame for the fighting on the British.

When Washington and his troops departed, the French again controlled the land west of the Allegheny Mountains.

The Ohio River Valley Indians who felt more comfortable dealing with the British than the French moved from the area. Many of them moved east to central Pennsylvania.

Although officially not at war, both France and Britain supported the fighting by sending troops and supplies. Early the next year, **Major General Edward Braddock*** arrived to take command of all the British forces in North America. Braddock invited George Washington to join him as a volunteer. Washington eagerly accepted and went along as his aide. Braddock would personally command the troops that set out to capture the Forks of the Ohio. They would march to Will's Creek, where over the previous winter Fort Cumberland had been built. From there they would cut a road through the forested mountains to Fort Duquesne at the Forks of the Ohio.

Braddock had trouble from the start locating horses and wagons to move the supplies for his army. Luckily, **Benjamin Franklin*** came to the rescue. He convinced farmers to rent their wagons and horses to Braddock. One hundred and fifty wagons and 259 packhorses arrived at Braddock's camp just when they were needed most.

By the time they reached Fort Cumberland, the British were well behind schedule. While preparing at Fort Cumberland, Braddock managed to anger and alienate almost all of the American Indians who had come to participate as allies. **Shingas*** (SHIN-gas), the leader of the Ohio River Valley Delaware, was so angry he left and immediately joined the French. **Scarouady*** (SCAR-roh-ah-dee) and seven other American Indians were the only ones

who assisted the British. The 2,400 troops began leaving Fort Cumberland May 29, 1755.

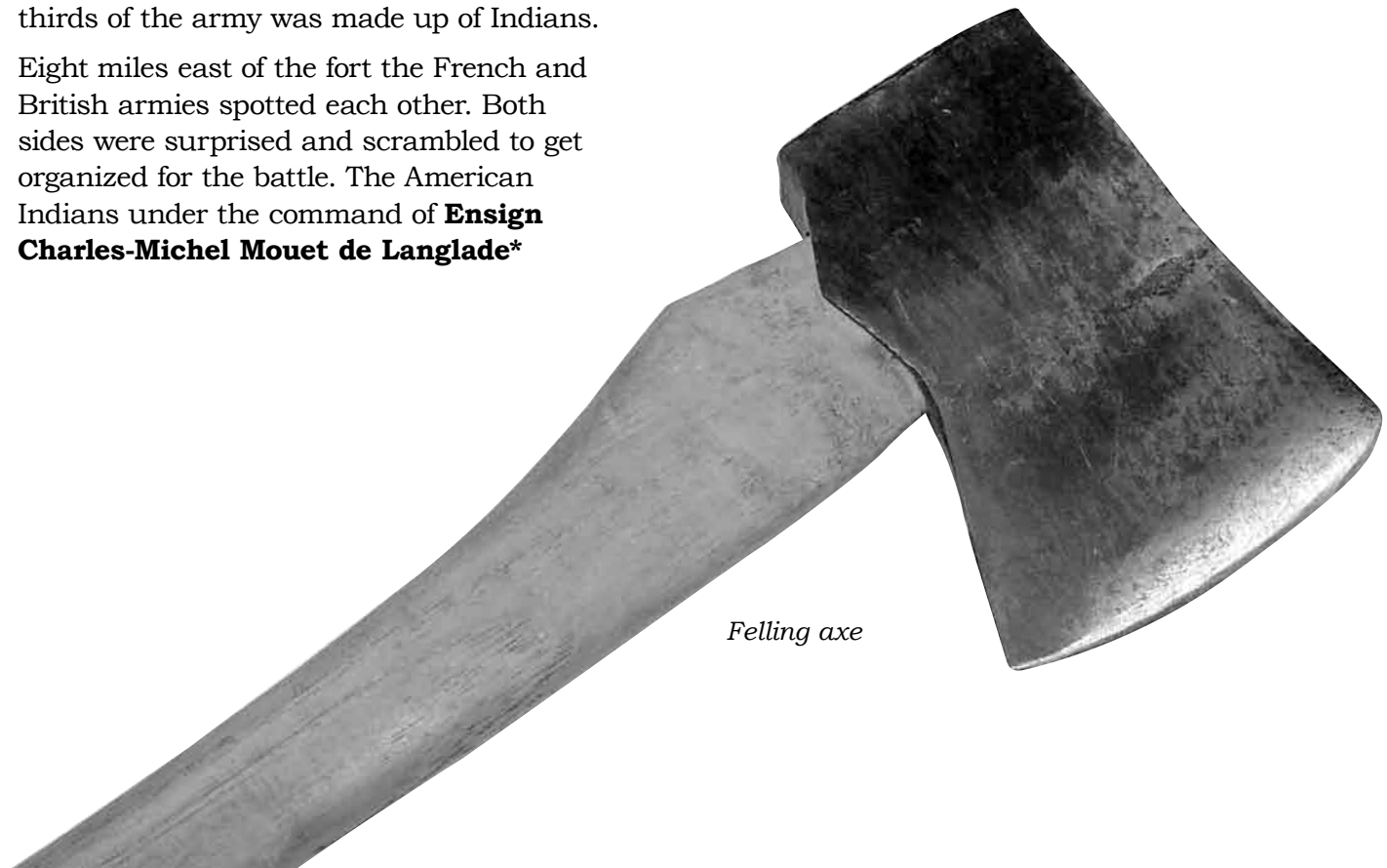
The uncut forests and mountainous terrain slowed the army's progress. Braddock decided to divide his army. A "flying column" was created. It consisted of 1,300 soldiers who would move ahead quickly without all the heavy baggage. The baggage would come up behind as fast as possible.

The French at Fort Duquesne were well informed by their American Indian scouts of Braddock's progress. There were hundreds of Indians around Fort Duquesne, mostly warriors from the Great Lakes region. They thought Braddock's army was too large and were unwilling to join the French. On the morning of July 9, **Captain Daniel-Hyacinthe-Marie Lienard de Beaujeu*** (BOH-joh) did the impossible. He convinced the American Indians to join the French. That morning 254 French and 637 Indians left Fort Duquesne. Over two-thirds of the army was made up of Indians.

Eight miles east of the fort the French and British armies spotted each other. Both sides were surprised and scrambled to get organized for the battle. The American Indians under the command of **Ensign Charles-Michel Mouet de Langlade***

(moo-ay duh LON-glyd) quickly took the high ground and were able to dominate the battle. The British suffered a terrible defeat. Two-thirds of the British troops and most of the officers were killed or wounded. Braddock received a serious wound before the British army retreated. Washington rode all night to reach the slow-moving part of the army that had not been in battle. He had supplies sent back to the retreating troops. Four days later, Braddock died of his wounds.

As a result of Braddock's defeat, many Ohio River Valley Indians decided to side with the French. For the next few years Fort Duquesne became the starting point for hundreds of French and Indian raids along the Pennsylvania and Virginia frontier.



Felling axe

How Did the War Progress?

It was not until May 1756, that Britain officially declared war on France and the two countries began fighting in Europe. French and British colonies in the West Indies, India, and Africa were also drawn into the conflict. In Europe the war became known as the Seven Years War.

That same year both French and British colonies got new commanders. The British commander-in-chief, Lord Loudoun, did not understand the American colonists. When he made requests of colonial governors, they sent the requests through their assemblies. Often the assemblies did not comply, and Lord Loudoun would threaten to use force against the colonies. Some colonists started to see Lord Loudoun as being as much of a threat to their freedom as the French and American Indians. Lord Loudoun's actions created resentment and resistance. Resentment of his policies did not help the British war effort.

The new military commander for the French colonies, **Major General Louis-Joseph de Montcalm*** (mon-KALHM) arrived in Canada in May of 1756. He was reluctant to use the American Indians to their full advantage and was disdainful of the Canadians. Although it took several years, his attitudes and actions eventually affected France's success.

In 1756, while the French were still successfully using their American Indian allies, the army continued to be victorious in North America. They defeated the British at Fort Oswego.

Lord Loudoun

The only British success in 1756 was at Kittanning. Colonel John Armstrong led a party of 300 against the Delaware town of Kittanning. They surprised the town at dawn; however, the Indians put up a strong fight. The British eventually set the town on fire. Delaware Chief "Captain" Jacobs was killed when the gunpowder stored in his house exploded after the house was set on fire. Armstrong left with 11 recovered British captives and about a dozen scalps. The Pennsylvanians viewed this as a victory while the French and Ohio River Valley Indians saw it as a massacre. To avenge the attack the French and Indians intensified their raids on the Pennsylvania frontier.

The French victory at Fort William Henry in 1757 ended in disaster for all. Montcalm had 1,800 American Indians with him. They fought with the French without pay in the hope of victory. Then they would get their compensation by taking captives, booty, and scalps. Many Indians had traveled hundreds of miles to participate in the battle.



When the British surrendered Fort William Henry, Montcalm did not consult his Indian allies when he drew up the surrender terms. The surrender terms denied the warriors the plunder they had fought for. The day after the surrender the American Indians decided to take what they saw as their due and on August 10 captured or killed hundreds of British, most of them colonists. The American Indians unknowingly took captives and clothing infected with smallpox. That winter many nations suffered heavy losses due to the disease. The Indian attack on the British colonists after the surrender intensified the colonists' hate for the French and their Indian allies. Although the surrender was a victory for the French, it was also a turning point. After the way the American Indians were treated by the French at Fort William Henry, many of them decided not to fight with the French again. The French were never able to ask for Indian assistance to the extent they had before. Loss of their American Indian allies was one of the factors that contributed to turning the tide of war against the French.

In 1758, policy changes helped the British. William Pitt, Secretary of State in Britain, recalled Lord Loudoun and sent a new commander-in-chief. He repealed unpopular policies and enacted some that were very advantageous to the colonies. The colonies reacted with enthusiastic support of the war. For the first time colonial manpower and money were wholeheartedly put into the war. Pitt also sent many more troops to the colonies.

That year Pitt ordered a three-pronged attack on French strongholds. General Jeffery Amherst was to attack the fortress

at Louisbourg, which guarded the St. Lawrence River. General James Abercromby was assigned to take Fort Ticonderoga. **General John Forbes*** was given the task of capturing Fort Duquesne.

In July, Amherst captured Louisbourg, which opened the St. Lawrence River and a water route to Canada. Although not ordered in the plan, Lieutenant Colonel Bradstreet also successfully captured Fort Frontenac. This fort supplied the goods and ships for the entire western French army and the important French trade with the American Indians. Bradstreet reported that the French told him “their troops to the southward and western garrisons will suffer greatly, if not entirely starve, for want of the provisions and vessels we have destroyed.” Abercromby did not take Fort Ticonderoga.

Forbes believed in a strategy known as a “protected advance.” As the army moved forward, it would build forts or supply bases at regular intervals. He ordered construction of a new road across Pennsylvania, guarded by a chain of fortifications. The last fort built in September was the “Post at Loyalhanna,” Fort Ligonier (lig-oh-NIHR), about 50 miles from Fort Duquesne. It served as a supply depot and a staging area for a British-American army of 5,000 troops.

On September 14 the British made a foolish attempt to capture Fort Duquesne and were defeated with many casualties. On October 12 the French attacked Loyalhanna (Fort Ligonier), but the British successfully defended their position. Washington arrived at Loyalhanna in late October.

While Forbes was moving forward, an important conference was taking place in Easton, Pennsylvania. Representatives from the Iroquois Confederacy, the Shawnee, and the Delaware met to make peace with the British. The British made several promises to the American Indians in return for not fighting with the French. The treaty they signed promised that the British would prevent settlement on all of the lands west of the Allegheny Mountains after the war. The British also committed to regulating the rum trade and eliminating forts on Indian lands. The treaty was signed in October. “Go Betweens” brought news of the treaty to the Ohio River Valley Indian towns. This was bad news for the French.

By this time, it was so late in the fall that Forbes was considering ending the campaign for the winter. On November 12, near Loyalhanna, Washington captured a soldier from Fort Duquesne. The soldier confessed that the French were very weak. Forbes decided to continue his campaign against Fort Duquesne. The French were in a bad position. They could no longer count on help from the American Indians, and with the fall of Fort Frontenac, they had very few supplies. They decided to abandon Fort Duquesne. The French destroyed the fort before they left. Forbes occupied the ruined fort on November 25.

In 1759, the British continued their success in battle. The Iroquois Confederacy, which had remained politically neutral until this point, decided to side with the British. During the summer, the British captured Fort Niagara, Fort Ticonderoga, and Crown

Point. The opening of the St. Lawrence River allowed the British to sail to Quebec. All summer British Major General James Wolfe was unsuccessful in attacking the city situated on the top of a cliff. Finally in September, under the cover of darkness, Wolfe used a small footpath to get his troops up the cliff and onto a flat field outside the city. He might have learned of the footpath from **Major Robert Stobo*** who was with him that summer. Stobo had been a prisoner in Quebec and had just recently escaped. Wolfe’s troops fought the French under the command of General Montcalm and won. The British took control of Quebec. Both generals died from wounds they received during the battle. The French colonial government moved to Montreal.

The destruction of the French fleet in November 1759 was the final blow for the French. Without supplies the French army could not retake Quebec. In 1760 the British captured Montreal. The war between France and England ended in North America.

How Did the Conflict End? What Were the Consequences?

After the fall of Montreal, the warfare continued in other parts of the world. Spain entered the war when the British attacked and captured Havana, Cuba. The 1763 Treaty of Paris formally ended the war. France gave the British all of its land in North America east of the Mississippi River other than the city of New Orleans. The French land west of the Mississippi, called Louisiana, was given to Spain. The Spanish gave Florida to Britain and the British returned Havana. There were several other small exchanges and agreements. The end result was that the French no longer had territory in North America.

In 1759 the British began construction of Fort Pitt on the site of the French Fort Duquesne. The American Indians became concerned. The Treaty of Easton promised to eliminate forts on Indian land – yet this fort was much larger than a trading post. It was 10 times larger than Fort Duquesne. The barracks could shelter hundreds of men. Delaware Chief Pisquetomen wanted to know what “ye General meant by coming here with a great army.”

With the French gone, settlers began to move over the Allegheny Mountains. As always, they saw opportunity for profit and advancement in the Ohio River Valley. It was becoming clear the promises of the Treaty of Easton were not to be honored.

In the fall of 1761 commander-in-chief Jeffery Amherst made some well-intentioned but ignorant changes to the British–American Indian trade policies. The long-standing practice of gift giving was curtailed. Traders were forbidden from trading in the American Indian villages. This forced the Indians, who were often without horses, to carry their pelts into forts in small quantities. The traders were also required to limit the sale of lead and powder to five pounds at a time. This meant that the American Indians could not effectively carry out their fall and winter hunts and thus were unable to provide for their families and towns. Additionally, the new reforms forbade the sale of rum and liquor to the Indians, substances that had become part of their culture. These changes caused suffering and hardship in American Indian villages across the region. Many nations saw the benefits of allying with each other against their common enemy, the British, who were threatening their way of life.

In the spring of 1763 **Pontiac***, an Ottawa war chief, united warriors from many nations and on May 9 attacked Fort Detroit. American Indians had never before mounted a united and widespread attack on Europeans.



British belt axe

The uprising spread. Within two months eight British forts fell, and Fort Detroit and Fort Pitt were isolated and under siege. Other frontier forts and settlements experienced persistent attacks and raids.

British commander Captain Simeon Ecuyer realized Fort Pitt was in a dangerous situation. Right before it was attacked, two Delaware leaders came to the fort to negotiate. Ecuyer refused to surrender. When the chiefs departed he gave them gifts including two blankets and a handkerchief intentionally taken from the fort's smallpox hospital.

British **Colonel Henry Bouquet*** (Boo-KAY) undertook an expedition to relieve Fort Pitt. On August 4, Bouquet left Fort Ligonier with packhorses carrying bags of flour as well as some other provisions. The next day American Indian warriors attacked them at Bushy Run. Bouquet's troops suffered under fire from an unseen enemy and from thirst in the August sun. That night Bouquet, a commander who understood American Indian tactics, developed a clever plan. On the morning of August 6, Bouquet's troops pretended to be retreating. Instead, they circled around and attacked the warriors from another direction. Bouquet's plan succeeded. He drove off the American Indians. Although one-quarter of his men were dead or wounded and he had lost all his flour, four days later Bouquet arrived at Fort Pitt. His arrival allowed Fort Pitt to be relieved.

To settle the troubles with the American Indians, British policy makers in London decided to draw a line down the Allegheny

Mountains. Everything between the mountains and the Mississippi River was reserved for the American Indians. There would be no settlements, only trading posts. Signed in October of 1763, the act was called the Royal Proclamation of 1763. The proclamation angered settlers who had fought for land in the Ohio River Valley. Although military leaders at Fort Pitt and other forts were aware of the proclamation, they rarely enforced it and settlers continued to flock to the area.

Pontiac's War ended in 1765. The British changed their unfavorable trade policies with the American Indians. The French had not joined in fighting the British as the American Indians had hoped. The Indians were ready to resume trade. One of the conditions of peace at the end of Pontiac's War was that the American Indians were required to return their British captives.

The outcome of the French and Indian War affected all three powers. Before the French and Indian War, most wars between the old rivals France and Britain ended in a stalemate. The French and Indian War, however, had a decisive winner. Britain defeated France and became the most powerful European country. It now had a vast new empire to manage. The French were looking for an opportunity to avenge their defeat. The American Indians were faced with British rulers who were not going to stop the flow of settlers into the Ohio River Valley and other native lands. The Ohio River Valley Indians eventually lost their land. To keep their traditional lifestyle they moved further west.

How Did the French and Indian War Set the Stage for the American Revolution?

After the French and Indian War the British colonies and the mother country entered into a new relationship. The British government went deeply into debt to pay for the French and Indian War. To help cover the cost of the army stationed in North America, for colonial defense, the British imposed a series of taxes on the colonists. These taxes sparked the colonists' complaints about "taxation without representation."

During the French and Indian War, the American colonists resented being treated like second-class citizens and threatened by Lord Loudoun. Soldiers had received poor treatment from British commanders. New policies, including the Royal Proclamation of 1763, angered the colonists. The new taxes and policies revived these old resentments.

The colonies had been forced to work together during the French and Indian War. They saw the strength of their troops and their economies.

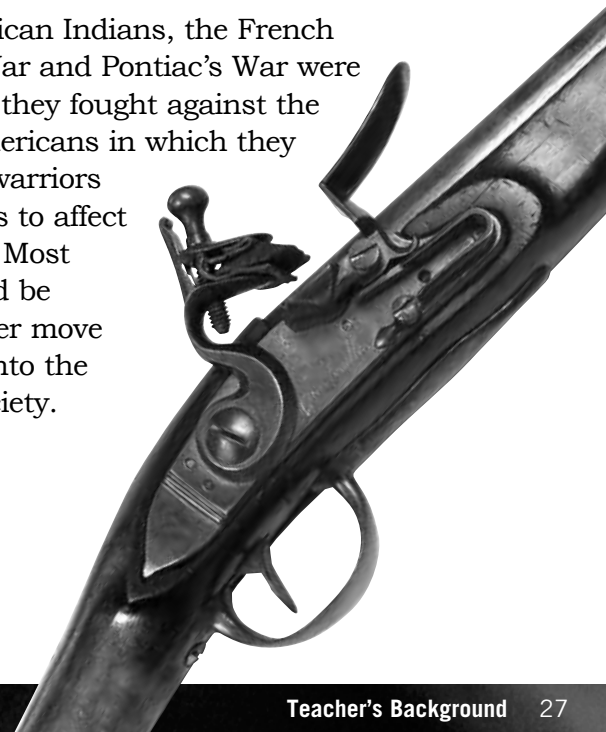
The colonists protested each new tax passed by parliament in the 1760s and 1770s. They asserted their "natural rights"—the right to life, liberty, and property—and their rights as British citizens were being violated. Parliament steadfastly maintained its right to pass laws governing the colonists. As the struggle continued, the colonists began to see the advantages of joining together. The "Join or Die"

snake, designed by Benjamin Franklin in 1754 as a way of rallying the colonists to work together during the French and Indian War now gained popularity.

Once hostilities broke out and the American Revolution began, two affects of the French and Indian War were evident. First, military officers and soldiers had gained military experience and knowledge during the French and Indian War. George Washington had clearly learned many important lessons and developed military leadership skills. The colonists had also seen that the British army was not invincible. Second, France was very upset about losing the French and Indian War. The desire for revenge influenced France's decision to ally with Americans during the American Revolution. That aid was instrumental in defeating the British.

Many of the colonial grievances before the American Revolution had their roots in the French and Indian War. Although the French and Indian War did not directly cause the American Revolution, it did set the stage for what was to come.

For the American Indians, the French and Indian War and Pontiac's War were the last wars they fought against the British or Americans in which they had enough warriors and resources to affect the outcome. Most nations would be forced to either move or integrate into the dominant society.



Teacher Background on Eastern Woodland American Indian Life

At the start of the French and Indian War, there were about 175,000 American Indians in the Great Lakes and northeastern regions of North America. They were from different nations and did not all speak the same language, wear the same style clothes, or hold the same beliefs. However, they did have similar lifestyles. Today anthropologists call these nations collectively the Eastern Woodland American Indians.

Language

There were two main language groups, the Algonkian and the Iroquoian. An Algonkian speaking Shawnee warrior would have difficulty communicating with an Iroquoian speaking Seneca, just as today an English speaker would have difficulty understanding a person speaking French.

Towns

In summer many families lived together in towns. The Eastern Woodland towns were usually located on good farmland near a river. The river was used both for water and for transportation. Generally the Eastern Woodland people made their houses with a frame of bent saplings covered with bark. In winter, family groups moved to hunting camps.

Women's Duties

All the nations cultivated crops – typically corn, beans, and squash. Planted in a mound, the beans grew up the corn stalks and the squash acted as a ground cover. Women were responsible for planting and

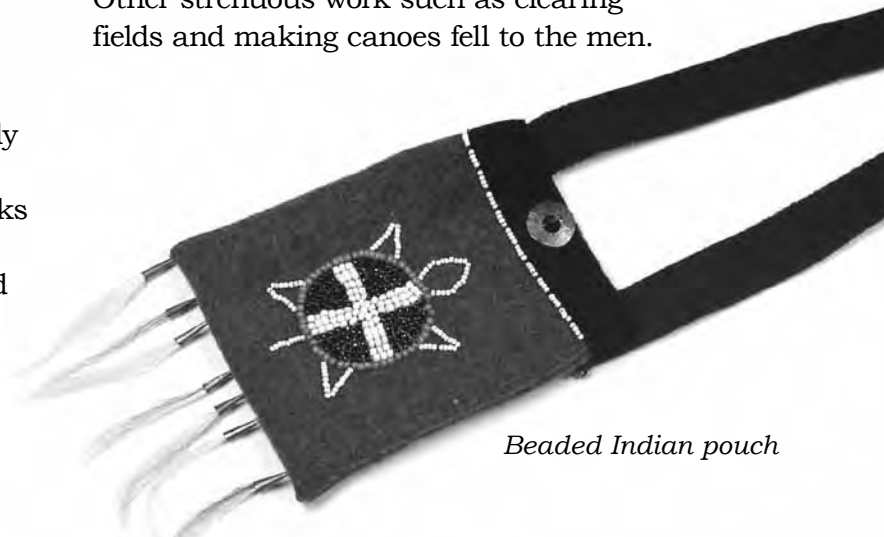
taking care of the crops. Women also gathered food such as berries and nuts. In the late winter, both men and women collected sap from sugar maple trees and boiled it down into sugar.

Women were responsible for food preparation and making the family's clothes. Before contact with Europeans, they used hides and furs decorated with bone, porcupine quills, and moose hair. After they began trading with the Europeans, they used cloth and purchased items such as beads and ribbon as decoration. A child's mother was responsible for his or her upbringing. Children were rarely scolded or punished and were almost never hit. If a child misbehaved, he or she might be splashed with cold water. A child's good behavior was praised.

Most Eastern Woodland societies had matrilineal descent. This meant that children belonged to their mother's clan, not their father's.

Men's Duties

The men did the hunting and fishing, and made tools. They were also responsible for protecting the town and were the warriors. Other strenuous work such as clearing fields and making canoes fell to the men.



Beaded Indian pouch

Property

Both men and women owned property. Items such as clothing, weapons, jewelry, and tools were individually owned. The Eastern Woodland societies did not recognize individual land ownership. The nations did have territories that they used and defended.

Leadership

When an important decision needed to be made, the women would discuss the matter and tell the men their opinions before the men met. The men would take the women's opinions into consideration. Both men and women were leaders. Some women, like **Queen Alliquippa*** (AL-uh-KWIP-uh), held considerable political power. **Scarouady*** (SCAR-roh-ah-dee) said "It is no new thing to take women into our councils, particularly amongst the Senecas." Leaders got their status because of their wisdom and skill. Although the Europeans gave them titles like "king," "half king," and "queen" the Eastern Woodland leaders did not have the power or wealth of European monarchs. **James Smith*** wrote that the chief "could neither make war nor peace, leagues nor treaties..." and "the chief of a nation has to hunt for his living, as any other citizen." Unlike monarchs, they needed to follow the suggestions of their council and the will of their community. The chief was the worker of the people. No one would follow a chief who was the only member of the community to live a certain lifestyle.

A chief would remain strong and have the support of his or her people only as long as the people prospered.

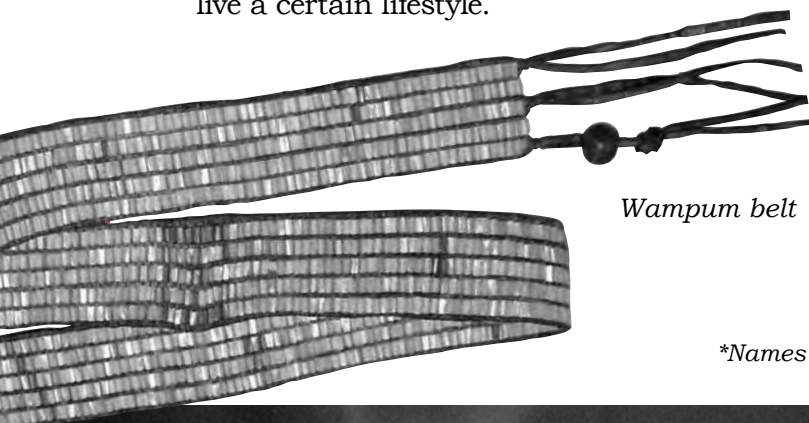
The structure of their society and government meant each individual American Indian had a high degree of freedom. The opinions and desires of individuals – men, woman, and children – were valued and taken into consideration.

Liberty in North America

The individuals in Eastern Woodland societies had a very high degree of freedom when compared with most other people in North American society. Enslaved Africans had no freedom or property. In the European colonies married woman didn't own property. The husband owned all the couple's land, buildings, furnishings, and money. The only members of society who were allowed to vote were white, male, land-owners.

Wampum

Wampum was very important in Eastern Woodland society. Strings and belts of shell beads called wampum helped with the nation's long-term memory of their history. Select members of a community were taught the history and memorized the facts and stories. The beads of wampum helped them remember and retell events. When used during council speeches, wampum showed the truth of the speaker's words. In making each point, the speaker would offer a different string of wampum.



Wampum belt

*Names in bold print indicate a biography card on that person.

This use of wampum was a sacred act, similar to a Christian swearing an oath on a Bible. A speaker presenting wampum would not break his word. Wampum was also used between communities and nations during any important event. The European colonists quickly realized the value of wampum and its importance to communication with Eastern Woodland nations. Without it the Indians would not believe the truth of the Europeans' statements. Because wampum was so valued by Eastern Woodland Indians it also became a medium that could be traded.

In the Eastern Woodland society when one individual or nation wanted to convince another person or nation of something, they would offer a gift. Often the gift would be wampum, but it could be many things. The Europeans followed this tradition. When asking favors of the Eastern Woodland people, Europeans gave them gifts of wampum and trade items.

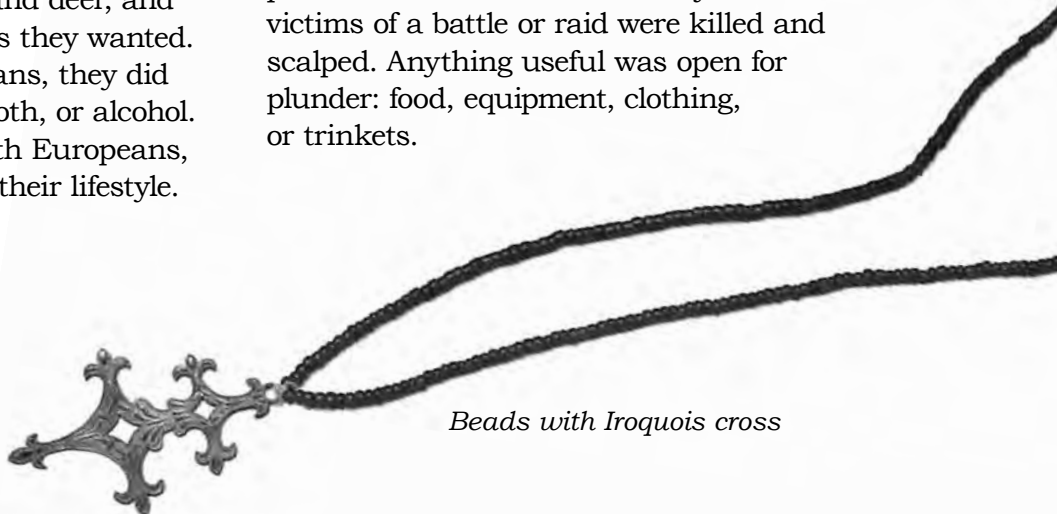
Trade

Trading was always important to the American Indians. Before European contact they traded with other Indian nations for items they didn't have access to such as flint and shells. When the Europeans arrived, the Indians traded with them for manufactured European goods. They traded furs, mostly beaver and deer, and sometimes food for the items they wanted. Before contact with Europeans, they did not have metal, firearms, cloth, or alcohol. After they began trading with Europeans, these items became part of their lifestyle.

Just as today we would find it hard to go without cars or electricity, the Eastern Woodland Indians in the 1700s would have found it hard to return to the days without trade items. The muskets became important tools in hunting and warfare. The most commonly traded items included scissors, knives, cooking pots, jewelry, muskets, lead for musket balls, gun powder, cloth, blankets, and manufactured clothing. As a result of trade, the Indians ended up with the same technology as Europeans.

Warfare

When one nation had a grievance against another they engaged in war. Typically, the village decided communally if the warriors could go to war. If it was decided they could go, it was expected that the warriors would return with something. The warriors sought plunder, captives, or scalps. Generally, captives were the most valuable trophies of war. A warrior displayed greater valor taking people alive, than killing them for their scalps. Many Eastern Woodland Indians valued the captives for adoption as a replacement for dead kin. Captives who were fit enough to march back to the warrior's village (especially young women and children) had a good chance of being taken alive. Scalps showed a warrior's prowess in battle. Most seriously wounded victims of a battle or raid were killed and scalped. Anything useful was open for plunder: food, equipment, clothing, or trinkets.



Beads with Iroquois cross

It was natural for the Indians to continue their warfare traditions when they began allying with Europeans during the French and Indian War. It is also logical that they did not understand some of the European ideas on war. In the Eastern Woodland Indian tradition, to the victor went the spoils of war. They did not understand when victorious European commanders were reluctant to allow them to plunder. It was also baffling when the winning army allowed the enemy to go, unharmed and with all its equipment. This did not reduce the enemy's strength. The European idea that if you put up a good fight, you might be rewarded with your weapons and freedom (even if you lost) was foreign to the Indians.

When making alliances, each nation acted individually and evaluated how it would benefit them. They weighed many factors such as how an alliance would affect their access to trade items, what kind of gifts their allies gave them, whether they would be victorious in their battles, and how well they had been treated in the past.

The colonial French Canadian commanders valued the Eastern Woodland warriors' skills and sought them as allies more aggressively than the British did. The French were more likely to understand the Eastern Woodland Indian traditions and motives. To secure allies, the French generally gave the Indians more gifts and gave more weight to their advice. The French were also long-time trading partners with many nations. For these reasons many Indian nations decided to

ally with the French. Warriors from the Great Lakes region often traveled hundreds of miles to participate in battles.

During the French and Indian War, the British and French offered bounties for enemy scalps. This encouraged the practice of scalping.

Changing Attitudes

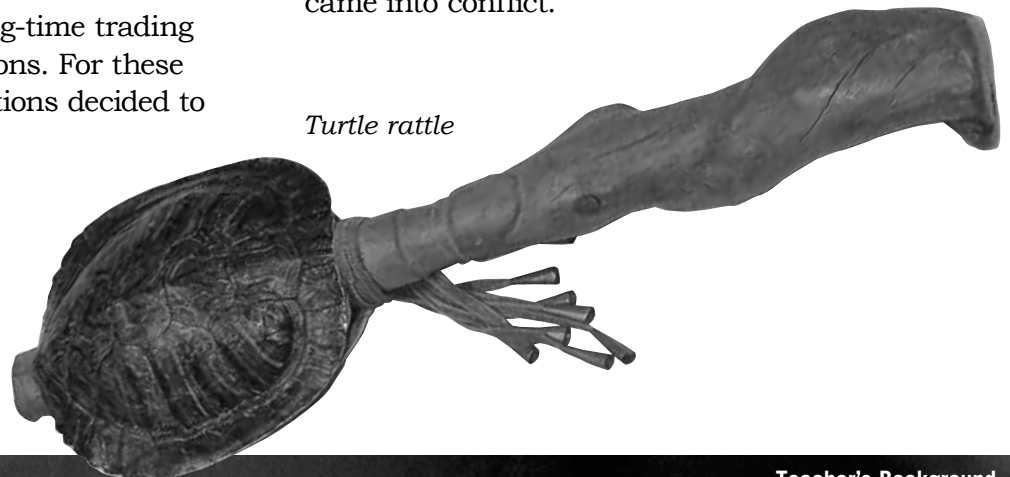
Today some activities that were practiced in the 1750s are considered objectionable, and people no longer participate in them. American Indians no longer practice scalping, just as British and Americans no longer practice slavery.

Captives

People who were captured by American Indians during raids or battles were generally either tortured to death or adopted. If a captive was adopted, then he or she became part of the family and was treated the same as the other family members.

North Americans

All the people in North America were striving for the same thing. They were either trying to preserve a lifestyle or move toward a better life for themselves. As they sought their goals, they often came into conflict.



Turtle rattle

The Many Nations

Lenape or Delaware

The people of this nation called themselves Lenape (LEN-ah-pay). The British called them the “Delaware.” The Delaware were Algonkian speaking. Their traditional homeland was in what is now New Jersey and eastern Pennsylvania. It was a Delaware chief that met with William Penn in 1682 near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Penn was one of the few Europeans who believed in treating the American Indians well. By the 1750s many of the Delaware had moved from their traditional homes because of British settlement and settled in the Ohio River Valley.

Shawnee

The Shawnee were also Algonkian speaking. Although the Shawnee language was not the same as the Delaware or other Algonkian speaking nations, they could generally understand each other. The difference might be similar to present day English and Shakespearean English.

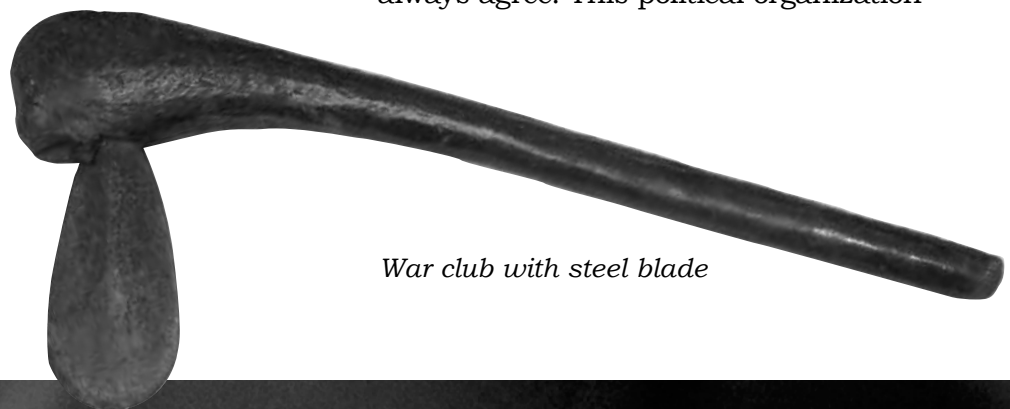
The Shawnee were in eastern Pennsylvania in the 1600s. Like the Delaware, by the 1750s they had moved from their former homelands further west, with many settling in the Ohio River Valley. Generally, the Shawnee were nationalistic and more hostile to the Europeans than other nations. The Shawnee were one of the few Eastern Woodland nations with patrilineal descent, whereby the children belonged to the father’s clan.

The Haudenosaunee or Iroquois-Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, Seneca, Tuscarora

Probably about three centuries before the French and Indian War, five nations – the Mohawks, the Oneidas, the Onondagas, the Cayugas, and the Senecas – united to form a confederacy. They called themselves the Haudenosaunee (hou-DE-no-saw-nee) or “People Building a Long House.” In 1722 the Tuscarora became a member of the confederacy. Together they became known as the Six Nations of the Iroquois or the Iroquois Confederacy. The Iroquois lived in what is now western and northern New York State. The Iroquois Confederacy was founded on the pledge that the nations would unite and not kill each other.

They wished that all nations would join in their league of peace. They used many methods to get other nations to ally with them. If a nation did not ally with the Iroquois, they were considered enemies. During the 1750s, the Delaware and Shawnee were under Iroquois political influence and not considered their enemies.

The confederacy consisted of six independent nations, each of which had its own council. Each nation elected representatives to the confederacy’s council, known as the Great Council or the Onondaga Council (since the meetings were held at Onondaga). The Great Council’s role was to come up with a unified policy, or action, for the confederacy, since all six nations did not always agree. This political organization



War club with steel blade

helped them successfully coordinate their wars, foreign policy, and trade policy. For internal communication, the confederacy developed a system of relay runners. At its maximum, the confederacy controlled territory from the Chesapeake Bay to the southern end of Lake Michigan, and north through southern Ontario and Quebec.

Most Eastern Woodland people built bark and wood houses for one family, but the Iroquois lived in longhouses, inhabited by several families. Each family had its own fireplace. The longhouse also symbolized their political system.

Each nation in the Iroquois Confederacy spoke its own dialect of a common Iroquoian language.

Great Lakes Eastern Woodland Indians

The Great Lakes Indians were traditional allies with the French. Most of these nations had been trading partners with the French for years. The majority spoke an Algonkian language, however, the Winnebagos spoke a Siouan language, and the Wyandot spoke an Iroquoian language.

- Fox
- Kickapoo (KI-ke-poo)
- Mascouten (MUHS-koo-tuhn)
- Menominee (MUH-nah-muh-nee)
- Miami (MAH-ya-mee)
- Ojibwa (oh-JIB-wuh) (also known as the Chippewa (CHIP-uh-wuh))
- Ottawa (ah-TUH-wuh)
- Potowantomi (PAH-tuh-WAH-tuh-mee)
- Sauk (souk)
- Winnebagos (winuh-BAY-goh)
- Wyandot (WEYE-yuhn-daht) (also known as the Huron)

St. Lawrence Eastern Woodland Indians

These nations also had traditional ties to the French. These nations were all Algonkian speaking.

- Abenaki (ahbuh-NAKEE)
- Algonquin (al-GAHNGK-win)
- Caughnawaga (CON-uh-WOG-uh)
- Maleseet (MALUH-seet)
- Micmac (MIK-mak)
- Nipissing (NIPI-sing)



Bear claw necklace

Teacher Background on Franklin and Braddock

In the winter of 1755, **General Braddock*** arrived in Virginia with two regiments of regular English troops. The army began its march to the frontier. They needed supplies and at least 150 wagons and hundreds of horses to move them.

Braddock sent officers into Maryland and Virginia to get what they needed. They returned with only 25 wagons. Braddock was very unhappy with the situation. This lack of wagons and horses could jeopardize the whole expedition.

By the end of April the army had made it as far as Frederick, Maryland. Braddock made his headquarters in the town's stone tavern, and it was there that **Benjamin Franklin*** met with Braddock. Franklin was serving as Postmaster General. It was his job to open the lines of communication between Braddock and the governors of the colonies where he would be operating. Realizing Braddock's desperate lack of transportation, Franklin offered to help the general secure horses and wagons. Braddock entrusted him with £800, and Franklin contributed £200 of his own money.

Franklin returned to Pennsylvania and on April 26, 1755, advertised in a Lancaster newspaper for 150 wagons and drivers with 4 horses per wagon, and 1,500 packhorses. Franklin included a letter at the end of the notice. In the letter he pointed out that the general and officers of the Army had been very upset about the lack of wagons and horses. They had threatened to send armed forces into the countryside to seize what

they needed. The ad suggested that it might be better to volunteer. Franklin pointed out to the readers that the providers would be well paid and the work would not be hard on the wagons or horses.

Within two weeks 150 wagons and nearly 300 horses joined Braddock's army. Pennsylvania also sent 20 extra packhorses with provisions as a gift to the junior officers with Braddock's army. In an enthusiastic thank you letter, Braddock told Franklin that Pennsylvania "had promised nothing and performed everything" while Virginia and Maryland "had promised everything and performed nothing."

Franklin found Braddock to be a brave man, but with "too high opinion" of the British troops and too low an opinion of the American and American Indian fighters. Franklin claims to have warned Braddock that the long line of troops marching through the woods would be exposed to surprise attacks. According to Franklin, "He [Braddock] smiled at my Ignorance," and pointed out that while the American Indians might "be a formidable enemy to your raw American militia, but upon the king's regular and disciplin'd troops it is impossible they should make any impression."



Gentleman's walking stick

**Names in bold print indicate a biography card on that person.*

