O BRAVE NEW WORLD!  
_Shakespeare and the Tempest That Saved America_

FOUNDING INVENTORS 
_7 Colonial Inventions You Didn’t Learn About in School_

KING PHILIP’S WAR 
_New England Burning_

Where Loyalist and Patriot History Meet

American Spirit
Daughters of the American Revolution

January/February 2014

THE OAKS

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JENN OWEN

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Who is eligible for membership?
Any woman 18 years or older, regardless of race, religion or ethnic background, who can prove lineal descent from a Patriot of the American Revolution is eligible for membership. DAR volunteers are willing to provide guidance and assistance with your first step into the world of genealogy.

How is Patriot defined?
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How many members does the National Society have?
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Preserving the American Spirit
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From the President General

Gracing our cover is The Oaks, a Worcester, Mass., home finished at the end of the Revolution by Judge Timothy Paine and later occupied by his son, Dr. William Paine. Both Paines were Tories, but, ironically, the home is now owned and preserved by the Colonel Timothy Bigelow DAR Chapter, named for the Revolutionary minuteman, prisoner of war and military commander.

Another feature honors the French-born Patriot Comte de Rochambeau. He forged an effective partnership with George Washington and played an integral role in the British defeat at the Siege of Yorktown.

We salute a modern patriot in the Today’s Daughters department. Ariel Batunghcal, a White House Fellow for 2012–2013, is a major in the U.S. Air Force and has received the Defense Meritorious Service Medal and two Air Force Meritorious Service Medals for her work in overseas assignments. In volunteer work for the Doolittle Foundation, the DAR member spends much of her free time encouraging veterans to record their personal histories. Thanks to her and all Daughters who support veterans and active-duty service men and women in such creative ways.

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Lynn Forney Young

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Aimng High

She’s barely into her 30s, but Ariel Batungbacal already has a globe-spanning résumé.

By Lena Anthony | Photography courtesy of Ariel Batungbacal

NOW A MAJOR in the U.S. Air Force, she has served more than five years in overseas assignments, supporting military intelligence operations in Asia, Europe and the Middle East, including three deployments supporting Operation Iraqi Freedom and Operation Enduring Freedom. For her work in the Air Force, she received the Defense Meritorious Service Medal and two Air Force Meritorious Service Medals, among others. She also worked for the Joint Chiefs of Staff at the Pentagon.

In 2012, Maj. Batungbacal was appointed to the 2012–2013 class of White House Fellows. One of America’s most prestigious programs for leadership and public service, the White House Fellowship was created by President Lyndon B. Johnson to give a select number of young leaders the opportunity to contribute meaningfully at senior levels of the federal government.

As a fellow, she got to meet President Obama, have lunch with cabinet secretaries and lead important initiatives. She calls the experience “truly remarkable” because of the other fellows. “They come from diverse backgrounds, making amazing impacts in unique fields, like climate science, computer science, justice and medicine, but are all driven to improve the world using their talents,” says the member of Margaret Whetten Chapter, Washington, D.C.

Maj. Batungbacal’s fellowship finished in September, and she already has settled into her latest Air Force assignment—providing direction on missions around the world from her post in Florida.

Growing up in Marietta, Ga., Maj. Batungbacal knew she wanted to work in international affairs, but she saw her future in the Peace Corps or the Foreign Service. It was during college—at the University of Maryland, College Park, where she studied government, politics and Chinese—that she looked into a military career path and “found a new, challenging way to serve” that she had never considered.

“My personal experience in the military has been tremendous,” Maj. Batungbacal says. “I appreciate the opportunity to serve, learn and lead within this organization because its values align with my personal values: integrity, excellence and service. I also appreciate the opportunity and challenge to work in this world-class organization that is a global leader in innovation.”

Her résumé also includes thousands of hours of volunteer work—with organizations like the DAR, the Junior League, Hermandad de Sigma Iota Alpha, Inc., and most recently, the Doolittle Foundation, a nonprofit that encourages veterans to record their personal histories and links existing veterans groups to local schools so they can share those stories as lesson plans.

“I am passionate about the Doolittle Foundation’s mission. By teaching our youth about our nation’s great warriors, their service and sacrifice are never forgotten,” Maj. Batungbacal says.

She also was drawn to the foundation, named after the World War II General Jimmy Doolittle who led the Tokyo Raiders, because of the family stories she and her sister heard growing up.

“All of our ancestors journeyed across oceans for a better life: from our Filipino great-grandmother Carmen, who immigrated here in 1910, or my ancestor John Hazleton, who was a surgeon in the American Revolution eight generations ago,” she says. “My parents instilled a sense of pride and commitment to honoring our family history to both understand where we came from, and to give us a sense of foundation to make an influence going forward. I feel a deep sense of gratitude and responsibility to those who have come before me, and those who are neighbors today.”

Her rich family history also is what drew her to DAR. “I remember visiting my grandparents in Vermont every summer and hearing stories about our family history going back to the beginning of this country,” she says. “When I learned about the DAR, I knew it was an amazing way to honor our family’s history.”

Maj. Batungbacal says that she stays busy, between the Air Force and her various volunteer commitments, but that’s her goal. “My mother always talked to us about taking care of our corner of the earth,” she says. “Ultimately, I want to earn each day.”
National Treasures
Step inside the DAR Museum for a closer look at its fascinating collection.

Sitting Pretty

IMAGINATIVE DECORATION and vibrant color transform simple wooden boards into a memorable example of American folk art. Standing a mere 9 inches on its sturdy legs, this small bench commands attention.

The seat’s central motif features a scarlet flower resting against layered white and black circles with scalloped edging. Calligraphic hearts flank the design, while gilded borders define and complement the crimson seat. A leafy vine extends the length of the supporting structure. Construction and decoration suggest that the unidentified craftsman who made this bench probably worked in Pennsylvania in the mid-19th century.

This bench is part of the DAR Museum’s Mount Walla Collection, named after a historic Virginia house thought to have been built by John Scott, whose extensive property holdings included Scott’s Landing Ferry on the James River. (Peter Field Jefferson, grand-nephew of Thomas Jefferson, was among the home’s later owners.) In 1966 Mildred C. Brown, a longtime Illinois collector and dealer of antiques and a member of the Albemarle DAR Chapter, Charlottesville, Va., purchased Mount Walla. At her death in 1984 she left her home and its furnishings to the chapter, which invited the DAR Museum to select historic objects for its permanent collection. These 304 objects donated in Mrs. Brown’s memory comprise the Mount Walla Collection. The Albemarle Chapter continues to sponsor this important collection’s conservation needs.

Daughters of the American Revolution
Something to Smile About
New Ways to Update Your Family Photo Albums

Photo albums have come a long way from your great-grandmother’s velvet-covered tomes kept in dusty stacks in the guest bedroom. Now you can choose from websites like Pinterest, Flickr or SmugMug to post your photo albums online, allowing you to selectively share images and provide viewers with a way to comment. Two genealogical giants, MyHeritage and FamilySearch, make it easy for family historians to share photos in online albums and collaborate with relatives to identify images and collect important genealogical information. Try using the following sites to modernize your family history scrapbook.

MyHeritage
www.myheritage.com

MyHeritage members can create a private photo album website and add images in a wide variety of formats. Start by adding names and dates to a family tree on your site, then upload photos, write a description and tag people in the images. The face-tagging feature is a great tool for identifying people in large group portraits. Add images to your tree using Picasa, Flickr or Facebook, or from your computer or mobile phone.

A dashboard for each image lets you keep track of all the information on each picture, such as file size, notes, tags and keywords. You can display your pictures in a slide show or enlarge them to full size. You can even see and track which of your cousins has been peeking at your site and commenting on images.

For more fun, try the site’s Look-a-Like Meter to find out your celebrity doppelgänger. While your images are private, you have the option of sharing them publicly through Facebook.

Cost: A basic site with up to 500MB of storage and 250 people on your family tree is free. Additional plans are available for a fee.

FamilySearch
www.familysearch.org/photos

Since it launched a new photo site in April 2013, FamilySearch, a site run by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints, has helped its members upload more than 1 million photos, creating one of the largest online family photo albums in the world. The site makes it easy to upload photos from your computer, smartphone or tablet, and it encourages you to add captions and stories to accompany your images. It also allows you to tag
subjects and link to their FamilySearch family tree. Before you upload photos, read the site’s guidelines to ensure your images comply with the rules. Each upload is screened before it appears on the site for the general public. The site allows you to share your album with a direct link through Facebook, Twitter, Google+, Pinterest and email.

Cost: It’s free to create a family tree and post an unlimited number of photos. The site also promises free online storage of your digital images.

Pinterest
www.pinterest.com

While Pinterest serves as a scrapbook of images found on the web, you also can create boards, or themed webpages, from your own images. Locate a photo online or upload one from your computer, then pin it to a board and add comments. You can use it to post your family photos grouped by an individual or family surname and add details about the images. A social media aspect allows users to “like” a person’s photos or subscribe to his or her Pinterest posts.

Cost: Free.

Flickr
www.flickr.com

Flickr, which started as an online photo community in 2004, recently announced big news for its users: The site offers 1 terabyte of storage for free. One terabyte equals close to half a million 8 megapixel images, which is probably enough to upload all of your family photos—and your neighbor’s, too. There are many things to like about Flickr—features like face tagging, geo-tagging and basic photo editing. It’s easy to organize all your uploaded images into digital albums called sets. When you upload, you can add details about the image and what kind of license you want to apply to the photos. “All Rights Reserved” is the default setting, or you can select from several choices of Creative Commons licenses that would grant copyright permission to a wider group of people.

Cost: Free, unless you have more than 1 terabyte’s worth of photos, which is unlikely.

SmugMug.com
www.smugmug.com

While SmugMug is used by professional photographers, it offers several options that are useful for the average family photographer. Its customizable website format allows you to choose your own domain name, and the site features helpful video tutorials that give advice on becoming a better photographer. The photo organizer also is intuitive, helping you sort images by date, caption or keyword, and making it easy to drag or drop images into albums. You can upload images from your computer or from applications like Adobe Photoshop Lightroom and Aperture iPhoto. The disadvantages to the site, at least for now, are a lack of facial tagging or social media sharing.

Cost: Membership starts at $40 a year.

It’s important to follow a few rules when posting and uploading images. Make sure you own the image or have permission to post a picture. Take time to study the pros and cons of public posting. Try out different sites to see which one best fits your family.

—Maureen Taylor is the author of The Last Muster series, which features photography of individuals who lived during the Revolution.

In the Galleries

“Georgia O’Keeffe and Ansel Adams: the Hawaii Pictures”
The Georgia O’Keeffe Museum, Santa Fe, N.M., February 7–September 14, 2014

The “Georgia O’Keeffe and Ansel Adams: The Hawaii Pictures” exhibition opening in February at the Georgia O’Keeffe Museum in Santa Fe will bring together works inspired by the natural beauty of Hawaii as uniquely experienced by each of these modern masters.

O’Keeffe and Adams met in 1929 in Taos, N.M., and developed a lifelong friendship built on a shared admiration and devotion to the natural world. O’Keeffe was celebrated for the way she interpreted the American Southwest, and Adams was saluted for his visionary photography of Yosemite National Park. The artists brought these signature styles to their renderings of Hawaii.

The exhibition includes works from O’Keeffe’s trip to Honolulu and neighboring islands in 1939. “O’Keeffe was an experienced colorist; she also deployed a dramatic palette to intensify the exotic beauty of specific landscapes and flowers she encountered in the islands,” says Carolyn Kastner, curator of the museum. Like O’Keeffe, Adams illustrated a nontraditional view of the islands, showing the viewer the connection between the land and its inhabitants.

For more information, visit www.okeeffemuseum.org.
The U.S. Constitution’s limited definition of the vice president’s role names him first in line of succession in case of the president’s death, resignation or removal, as well as president of the Senate. Each of the 47 vice presidents throughout our nation’s history have defined the role in his own way. Use this brief quiz to prepare for the next time “veep” is a category on trivia night.

1. **Who was the first vice president?**
   John Adams was the first vice president, serving under George Washington from 1789–1797. Adams’ prior offices were envoy to France, minister to Great Britain and minister to the Netherlands. His thoughts on the office of the vice presidency often are quoted: “My country has in its wisdom contrived for me the most insignificant office that ever the invention of man contrived or his imagination conceived.”

2. **Which vice president wrote the influential *Manual of Parliamentary Practice* for his role as the Senate’s presiding officer?**
   Thomas Jefferson, who served under second president John Adams from 1797–1801, wrote the manual, which emphasized order, decorum and deliberation. Compiled during his vice presidency, the manual changed the way the Senate operated.

3. **Which vice president killed a political opponent in a duel?**
   Aaron Burr, who served under Thomas Jefferson from 1801–1805, was challenged to a duel in 1804 by Alexander Hamilton. Though he was never charged with a crime after he killed Hamilton at the Heights of Weehawken in New Jersey, Burr’s political career ended shortly thereafter.

4. **Who was the longest-serving governor to serve as vice president?**
   George Clinton, who served under Jefferson and James Madison from 1805–1812, was governor of New York for 21 years and six terms. He remains the longest-serving governor in the history of the state.

5. **Besides George Clinton, which other vice president served under two different presidents?**
   John C. Calhoun served under John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson. Calhoun also was the first vice president to resign from office, which he did on December 28, 1832, after several major political conflicts with Jackson.

6. **Which vice president inspired the term “gerrymander”?**
   Prior to serving under James Madison from 1813–1814, Elbridge Thomas Gerry was governor of Massachusetts and a member of the Democratic-Republican Party. He lost re-election in 1812 over his support for a bill that created district boundaries that benefited his party. The new boundaries led to some strangely shaped legislative districts, including one that a Boston newspaper cartoonist thought looked like a salamander. Pairing the name Gerry with the amphibian created the term “gerrymander,” or the process of manipulating district boundaries to political gain.

7. **Which vice president had the shortest term before becoming president?**
   John Tyler was sworn in as vice president under William Henry Harrison on March 4, 1841. He became president on April 5, 1841, after Harrison died of pneumonia the day before.
Benjamin Franklin’s London Legacy

LONDON’S BENJAMIN FRANKLIN House recently was awarded a $10,000 NSDAR Special Project Grant to expand its outreach to inner-city schoolchildren. Between 1757 and 1775, the scientist, diplomat, philosopher, inventor and Founding Father made his home on Craven Street in London. Built circa 1730 and opened to the public in 2006, the Benjamin Franklin House is the last remaining home in which Franklin lived and worked.

Through its Student Science Centre (SSC), Historical Experience and Scholarship Centre, the house immerses visitors in the life and work of one of the primary figures during the era of Enlightenment and the American Revolution. SSC workshops support elements of the national curriculum by offering simple, structured and stimulating activities designed to capture children’s imaginations, enhance their historical knowledge and satisfy their scientific curiosity. Two workshops per day, serving a total of 60 students, are offered free of charge to local school groups.

In one activity area, children use hands-on experiments and videos to explore how Franklin’s scientific inquiries led to discoveries in fields such as electricity and hydrodynamics. Another learning station features interactive games that encourage students to explore the form and function of objects such as a washboard and an inkwell in both historical and scientific contexts. The medical history room offers insight into how the human body works with activities based on the pioneering work of William Hewson, son-in-law of Franklin’s landlady, who ran an anatomy school from the house between 1772 and 1774.

The grant, sponsored by St. James DAR Chapter, London, England, allowed the SSC’s programs to reach an additional 1,400 children in 2013. For a virtual look at the Benjamin Franklin house, visit www.benjaminfranklinhouse.org.

The NSDAR Special Projects Grants program invites nonprofit organizations to apply for matching-fund grants to support local projects related to historic preservation, education and patriotism. Visit www.dar.org/grants to learn more.
The Celebrate America! Committee spotlights DAR members providing meaningful service to their communities in creative ways. To see your chapter or state featured in an upcoming issue, please send entries and photos of members in action to americanspirit@dar.org.

Rediscovering Williamsburg’s First Black Schoolhouse

All around us, hidden pieces of history await discovery—even at a place as comprehensively studied as Williamsburg, Va. Just 10 years ago, an investigation initiated by College of William and Mary English Professor Terry Myers uncovered evidence indicating that a small house that had been relocated to Prince George Street near the edge of the campus may be the nation’s oldest remaining African-American school. From 1760–1765, the home served as the original location of the Bray School, which provided religious and trade instruction for free and enslaved blacks. High-profile advocates of the Bray School included William and Mary presidents and professors, as well as Benjamin Franklin.

Among those helping to examine this forgotten historic site is Julia Maria Gibson, a College of William and Mary senior and a member of Lynnhaven Parish DAR Chapter, Virginia Beach, Va., who spent the summer of 2013 taking part in an on-site excavation at the Bray School. The excavation, which is jointly funded by the College of William and Mary and the Colonial Williamsburg Foundation, is being conducted as part of the Lemon Project, a William and Mary initiative to investigate the college’s involvement in slavery. Among other things, students and archaeologists have found slate pencils, toys, ceramics, eyeglass and bottle glass, pipe stems, pocket watch mechanisms, buttons, livestock bones, fence and house nails, remnants of fence and house posts, a fireplace, and a well, all dating to the 17th and 18th centuries. These artifacts will enable archaeologists to form an understanding of what black education was like for students of the Bray School before the Revolution.

For more information on the Lemon Project and the Bray School, visit www.wm.edu/sites/lemonproject.

A Captive’s Tale

The terror, grief and destruction of King Philip’s War (see page 42) also produced one of America’s earliest bestsellers—The Sovereignty and Goodness of God: A True History of the Captivity and Restoration of Mrs. Mary Rowlandson, who was captured by Narragansett warriors on February 10, 1676, and remained a captive for three months.

The wife of minister John Rowlandson of Lancaster, Mass., Mary was home with their three children when her house was attacked. Warriors set fire to the house, forcing out Mary and her family, as well neighbors who had taken refuge there.

Continued on next page.
Mary was shot in the side as she left the house, carrying her 6-year-old daughter, Sarah. The bullet went through Mary and into the child. The warriors indiscriminately killed Mary’s friends and family—men, women and children. “Thus were we butchered by those merciless heathen, standing amazed, with the blood running down to our heels,” she wrote later.

Mary, still holding Sarah, and her other two children were captured, separated from each other and hauled away by their attackers.

The first few weeks of her captivity were painful. Mary’s wound festered, and Sarah weakened and died. Taken to a village, she was allowed to search for her other children and found them, though their captors permitted only a brief visit.

Mary remained a prisoner while the Narragansetts moved about seeking food and launching occasional attacks. The band linked up with Philip’s troop, and she met him several times—she even knitted a cap and shirt for his son.

Mary was hungry nearly all of the time. She was invited to eat with Philip and his family and recalled “that he gave me a pancake about as big as two fingers. It was made of parched wheat, beaten and fried in bear’s grease, but I thought I never tasted pleasanter meat in my life.”

By April 1676, the war had begun to go badly for the American Indians, and they began to negotiate with the colonists for Mary’s release. On May 2, she was released near a place now called Redemption Rock for a ransom of 20 pounds. Her two remaining children were released a few months later.

In 1677 Rowlandson and her reunited family moved to Wethersfield, Conn. Though she wrote her narrative in either 1677 or 1678, it wasn’t published until March 1682. It quickly went through several printings in America and then in England, and became a model for future captivity narratives. It remains popular for students of the era.

“Today, The Sovereignty and Goodness of God is considered a foundational work in American literature; it is better remembered than any other account of King Philip’s War and is more widely read than any other Indian captivity narrative,” writes Jill Lepore in The Name of War: King Philip’s War and the Origins of American Identity (Vintage, 1998).

Fort Loudoun Chapter, Winchester, Va. adopted the name of a structure designed and built by George Washington during the French and Indian War. Originally, the site was part of the Lord Fairfax land grant Washington surveyed as a 16-year-old in 1748. Washington established his command center at Fort Loudoun, the largest and most formidable in a chain of several dozen frontier Virginia forts. It was named in honor of John Campbell, the fourth Earl of Loudoun, commander in chief of the British armies in the Colonies and governor of Virginia from 1756–1759. Today only the well and portions of the southwest bastion remain.

Through Oliver Pollock Chapter, Kenner, La., the name of a forgotten Founding Father endures. Born in Ireland, Pollock came to America as a boy and settled in Pennsylvania. When General Alejandro O’Reilly, whom Pollock had met in Havana, Cuba, was appointed Spanish governor of Louisiana in the 1760s, Pollock joined him there, becoming the commercial agent of the United States at New Orleans. Pollock used his personal wealth to help the Spanish furnish supplies to the Continental Army. He also funded George Rogers Clark’s 1778 expedition to the region that became the Northwest Territory. When his money ran out, Pollock went into debt to continue funding the war.

According to the New Hampshire State History of the Daughters of the American Revolution, the namesake of Reprisal Chapter, Newport, N.H., was “the first ship-of-war to carry the flag of the United States into European waters after the immortal Declaration and as such her name stands forth in our naval annals with signal luster and enduring fame.” In early 1776, the merchant ship Molly was purchased by the Continental Congress, outfitted as an 18-gun brig, renamed Reprisal and placed under the command of Captain Lambert Wickes. That fall the Reprisal departed for France, carrying Benjamin Franklin, the newly appointed Commissioner to France, to his post. En route, the Reprisal captured two brigs. A year later the ship went down off the coast of Newfoundland.

The namesake of Stephen Heard Chapter, Elberton, Ga., received a land grant in Georgia for his service in the French and Indian War. In 1774 Heard and his brother built Heard’s Fort, which became the foundation for the town of Washington, Ga. Heard took part in the Battle of Kettle Creek in 1779 and shortly thereafter was captured by Tories and threatened with hanging. According to local legend, his female slave Mammy Kate convinced guards to let her visit Heard bearing food and clean clothes, then smuggled him out of his cell hidden in a laundry basket. Heard served as governor of Georgia from 1780–1781. He is buried in the cemetery at Heardmont, his family home, where Mammy Kate and her husband, Daddy Jack, also are buried.

If your chapter has an interesting story, send it to americanspirit@dar.org.
Register of Historic Places, and a cabin once belonging to Mark Twain’s parents that Irwin relocated to the property from Fentress County, Tenn. An Appalachian Hall of Fame building preserves items connected to local legends and celebrates the music of the region. (Look out for the museum’s story of the "murder banjo.") The surrounding acres feature a working pioneer farm with crops and roaming animals such as goats, chickens, turkeys and peacocks.

The museum is located in Norris, Tenn., about 20 miles north of Knoxville. For more information, visit http://museumofappalachia.org/index.html.

Irwin’s Vision:
One Man’s Faithful Preservation of Southern Appalachian Folk Culture

The Museum of Appalachia, founded in 1969 by East Tennessee educator and businessman John Rice Irwin, encourages a greater knowledge of and appreciation for Appalachian heritage. For more than 50 years Irwin roamed Southern Appalachia’s remote communities in search of everyday pioneer artifacts, collecting thousands of items that eventually overran his home, yard and garage. Many of those objects are now featured in the 63-acre living history museum that interprets the region’s frontier and early 20th-century periods. Associated with the Smithsonian Institution’s Affiliations Program, the museum holds one of the nation’s largest folk art collections, hosts performances of traditional Appalachian music and demonstrates the work of hundreds of regional craftsmen.

The 30 buildings in the museum complex include the Arnwine Cabin, a rare cantilever log barn built between 1795 and 1820 and now on the National
The exact founding date of the Ste. Geneviève settlement is unknown, though it is generally accepted as prior to 1735, with the earliest arrivals possibly dating back to around 1732. From the very early 1700s up until the establishment of the Ste. Geneviève village, furriers, miners, salt makers and traders who worked in the area preferred to live across the river in the Illinois Country. This was a vast area owned by France that spanned from the mouth of the Ohio River north to the Great Lakes, and included the valleys of the Mississippi, Missouri and Ohio rivers. Eventually, what is now Missouri became part of Upper Louisiana Territory, with New Orleans as the seat of government.

The mining potential of the original Ste. Geneviève settlement was the initial draw for settlers, but it was agriculture that kept them there. Most of the habitants of the village were farmers, growing corn, wheat, oats, barley, vegetables, cotton and tobacco, as well as raising livestock, to support their community. The farmlands that they cleared along the riverbanks proved fertile and excellent for production. The area’s other natural resources—salt and lead, as well as animals prized for their furs—appealed to the French and French Canadians who chose Ste. Geneviève as home.

However, the settlement’s location on a flood plain earned the village the French nickname of Misère, which translates to “misery.” Frequent water damage and muddy terrain wreaked havoc on farms and homes. After major flooding in 1785 destroyed most of the homes and structures on the original site, the approximately 600 villagers were forced to move about two miles back from the river.

Ste. Geneviève’s new location boosted the wealth of the town and its farms, giving it the status of the largest and most profitable Missouri settlement until the end of the 19th century. St. Louis would begin to rival it in size and in wealth, eventually overtaking it. St. Louis’ economy was built more uniformly on trade rather than agriculture, causing it to prosper even while remaining dependent on Ste. Geneviève for flour and other agricultural products.
Following the initial settling of both St. Louis and Ste. Geneviève, the Louisiana Territory found itself being passed between colonial powers. The French, unable to afford the territory because of expenses connected to the French and Indian War, ceded it to the Spanish in 1762. However, the Spanish didn’t send authorities to govern the territory until 1766. During Spain’s control of the Louisiana Territory, disagreement and strife were constant between the colonial powers and, occasionally, with the American Indians.

The 1800 Treaty of Ildefonso between France and Spain restored the Louisiana Territory to the French. Napoleon’s satisfaction with this arrangement was short-lived, as France only ceremonially gained control of Louisiana long enough to transfer it to the United States, as per the Louisiana Purchase agreement of 1803.

By 1820, St. Louis’ prime location on the river made it the government seat and the hub of the Mississippi River Valley. Though still a regionally important location for agricultural production, Ste. Geneviève’s population, then around 1,500 to 2,000, leveled off. Even today, the town’s population is barely more than double the 1820 count, with a population of slightly more than 4,500 recorded in the 2010 Census.

Spotlighting Architecture And Culture

Contemporary Ste. Geneviève honors its origins with a well-preserved National Historic Landmark District. Visitors can see several examples of the original settlement’s French Colonial style, including three of the United States’ remaining five poteaux-en-terre buildings, featuring upright cedar log walls set directly on the earth or in the ground, as well as many poteaux-sur-solle structures, in which posts sit on a sill or rock foundation. Many of these historic homes are open to visitors.

The Bolduc House Museum is one of the town’s oldest historic homes, dating back to the years immediately following Ste. Geneviève’s 1785 relocation. It survived the series of earthquakes that plagued the region in 1811–1812 (www.bolduchouse.org; (573) 883–3105).

Other house museums include the Jacques Guibourd Historic House, named after a Frenchman who escaped the slave rebellion in Saint Domingue (later called Haiti) in 1791 by allowing his slave, Moros, to seal him in a cargo barrel and load it on a ship headed back to France. He later fled the French Revolution and moved to the French-speaking village of Ste. Geneviève, where he acquired land and built his family home in 1806.

This 1924 mural by Oscar E. Berninghaus at the Missouri State Capitol Building in Jefferson City depicts the original village of Ste. Geneviève located on the banks of the Mississippi.
Today the 1818 Felix Vallé House State Historic Site is furnished with 1830s artifacts that show the American influence on the French community of Ste. Geneviève. (www.mostateparks.com/park/felix-valle-house-state-historic-site; (573) 883–7102). The historic site has several other homes on its grounds, including the Amoureux House. Built in 1792 in the poteaux-en-terre method of construction by Jean Baptiste St. Gemme Bauvais Jr., the house overlooks the agricultural fields of Ste. Geneviève. In 1852, the home was sold to Benjamin C. Amoureux, a white man. He married the slave Pelagie Vital in 1830, though their marriage wasn’t officially recognized until 1860. The home was owned by successive generations of their family, and today it offers exhibits remembering Pelagie’s remarkable life. A diorama depicting the village of Ste. Geneviève in 1832 and other exhibits featuring its architectural history also are on display (http://amoureuxhouse.org; (573) 883–7102).

The town commemorates its multiple heritages—French, German, American Indian, African-American and Colonial American—with sites, museums and traditional observances like La Gui-Année, a French medieval New Year’s tradition featuring roving troubadours, and the King’s Ball (or Queen’s Ball in leap years) held on the first Saturday of February and featuring townspeople in Colonial costumes dancing to traditional music. Another tradition of the original French settlers and the Germans, who came later in the 1800s, was the cultivation of grapes and wine-making. This area of Missouri has its own wine country, featured at Chaumette Vineyards and Winery (www.chaumette.com; (573) 747–1000), and Weingarten Vineyard (www.weingartenvineyard.com; (573) 883–2505).

An easy day trip from St. Louis, Ste. Geneviève is a prime destination for the Colonial history enthusiast, especially those interested in the legacies of the multiple colonies and heritages that built and defined it. For more information, visit http://visitstegen.com.
Preserve Our Nation's History

Your legacy can protect and preserve chapters of our American story.

CREATE YOUR LEGACY TODAY

More than 30,000 objects are conserved in the DAR Museum. Please fill out and return the enclosed postcard to learn how you can create your legacy by supporting one of the foremost collections of pre-Industrial American decorative arts for generations to come. Or visit us online today at www.mypatriotandme.org for more information.
O Brave New World!

Shakespeare and The Tempest that Saved America

By W. Barksdale Maynard
overs of history and literature alike are looking forward to April 2014. That month brings the 450th anniversary of the birth of William Shakespeare and the 400th anniversary of the marriage of John Rolfe and Pocahontas.

We may not immediately realize it, but these memorable events are, in fact, connected. The link involves Shakespeare’s last independently written play—and for centuries one of his most popular—“The Tempest,” which many scholars believe was based on a famous shipwreck that Rolfe and other New World-bound settlers survived.

Rolfe first sailed for America in May 1609 on the ship Sea Venture as part of the Virginia Company of London, a group of investors who intended to settle the coast of North America and reap a tidy profit. Before he reached his destination of Jamestown, which had been established in 1607, the ship was wrecked in a severe hurricane. Instead of sinking, however, Sea Venture washed up on the beaches of a strange, semitropical island—Bermuda, or what Shakespeare would call “the still-vexed Bermoothes” in “The Tempest.”

Miraculously, all 150 passengers and crew members survived. They found the archipelago to be a place of bounty with ample food, fresh water, a balmy climate and shelter. Many in England later regarded this as divine intervention, proof of God’s approval for British settlement in the Americas.

The survivors even found resources to build two small sailing ships to attempt a crossing to Jamestown. In their homemade ships, the castaways arrived on May 23, 1610, to find that most of the approximately 500 settlers had died in the terrible winter called the Starving Time. Weak from famine, disease and battles with American Indians, the approximately 60 remaining settlers were ready to give up the settlement. Both the colonists and castaways agreed to set sail for England. But before they could, they ran into an inbound relief fleet with plentiful provisions, which was seen as further evidence of Providence’s guiding hand on the Colony.

Rolfe helped to renew the colonists’ faith—and turn around the Virginia Colony’s fate. After many failed attempts at finding a lucrative export, he happened upon a winning cash crop, successfully cultivating a fragrant weed called tobacco. Permanent establishment of the Colony largely came as a result of Rolfe’s 1611–1612 discovery. Had Rolfe drowned at sea, Jamestown might have ended up an abysmal failure, like Roanoke before it. (Roanoke was a late-16th-century attempt by the British to colonize America. All its 100-something inhabitants mysteriously disappeared between 1587 and 1590, giving rise to the name “the Lost Colony.”)

Rolfe was crucial for another reason, too: His somewhat improbable marriage to an American Indian chieftain’s daughter brought a much-needed interlude of peace for the beleaguered Jamestown colonists. It’s likely that if Rolfe had not exchanged vows with Pocahontas on April 5, 1614, ongoing warfare with her fellow Algonquins might have snuffed out the Virginia experiment entirely, since it was always on the verge of failure.

Here, too, the wreck of Sea Venture played a role. Rolfe was free to marry Pocahontas only because his first wife Sarah Hacker had died—either during the almost 10 months that shipwreck survivors lived on Bermuda, or shortly after they managed to reach Virginia.

Recent years have seen a flurry of scholarly research and some heated debate regarding the Sea Venture episode and its importance to Shakespeare. Most investigators believe that “The Tempest” (first performed 1611) was inspired, at least in part, by the shipwreck, one of the most dramatic news stories of the time. Londoners shuddered to hear of the presumed death of the governor of Virginia, Sir Thomas Gates, and more than 100 other notables. Then, months later, they rejoiced at the astonishing report of their survival on an island that resembled an Edenic paradise.

The British were informed of every thrilling detail of the Sea Venture saga by the secretary of the Virginia Colony, William Strachey, who had been on board. His handwritten account seems to have been widely circulated and likely caught Shakespeare’s eye, although its print publication happened some years after the playwright’s death.

Scholars have compared every word of Strachey’s “A True Reportory of the Wracke, and Redemption of Sir Thomas Gates Knight; Upon, and From the Islands of the Bermudas” to the text of “The Tempest,” noting some striking similarities.

For example, Strachey describes the flickering light of St. Elmo’s fire, an electrical phenomenon, playing about Sea Venture. Similarly, Shakespeare has his sprite-like character Ariel say, “On the topmast, the yards, and bowsprit would I flame distinctly.”

Some go so far as to argue that the central themes of “The Tempest” come directly from the Sea Venture story:
High-ranking officials are thought to be drowned, but in fact find themselves safe on a delightful island. They rejoice in their salvation, but their stay is marred by infighting and dangerous intrigues—Strachey describes these happening among the Virginia Company men on Bermuda.

To some observers, Shakespeare’s “The Tempest” seems to include an American Indian, the menacing Caliban, who lived on the remote island before the European characters Prospero and Miranda arrived. His name may come from the word “Caribana” on contemporary maps of the New World, what we today call the Caribbean.

Perhaps Shakespeare thought the Globe Theater groundlings would enjoy seeing an American, albeit one he makes only quasi-human. American Indians seemed highly exotic to the English, who regarded them with a mixture of fear and fascination. Shakespeare has a character in “The Tempest” comment on Londoners’ willingness to pay money to see American Indians: “When they will not give a doit to relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out ten to see a dead Indian.”

Algonquin-speaking American Indians were sometimes brought back to London to be shown off to curious audiences. Pocahontas was marveled at when she accompanied her husband to London in spring 1616. Their arrival coincided with Shakespeare’s death. She was laid in an English grave a year later, a victim of disease at 22.

“Americans have a tendency to want ‘The Tempest’ to be Shakespeare’s ‘American’ play,” says Alden T. Vaughan, professor emeritus at Columbia University, who, along with his wife and fellow scholar Virginia Mason Vaughan, has studied the possible connections between Strachey’s letter and the play. Although there is no “smoking gun” to show definitively that Shakespeare borrowed from Strachey, it seems plausible that he did, they argue. In any case, as Virginia Mason Vaughan says, Shakespeare thoroughly transforms his source material to give us “an uncharted island of the imagination.”

In 1996, a team of archaeologists at Historic Jamestowne made a small but remarkable discovery: a brass signet ring engraved with the image of an eagle with a cross on its breast—the heraldic symbol of the Strachey family. Presumably William Strachey misplaced his ring during the few months that he spent at Jamestown after escaping from Bermuda.

So the same hand that wrote “A True Reportory of the Wracke” seems to have accidentally left behind a memento of those exciting days, in the form of a little ring, lying forgotten in the muddy soil of the New World.

W. Barksdale Maynard’s July/August 2013 story on D.W. Griffith’s 1924 film “America” told of the film’s surprising ties to the restoration of Colonial Williamsburg as well as to the NSDAR.
The Oaks, one of the oldest houses in Worcester, Mass., was once the home of two fervent Loyalists: Judge Timothy Paine and his son, Dr. William Paine, surgeon general of the British Army during the Revolution. Today descendants of Patriots have taken over:

It’s now the headquarters of the Colonel Timothy Bigelow DAR Chapter, Worcester, Mass.
The home boasts an outstanding collection of 18th- and 19th-century antiques and artifacts from the early American to early Victorian eras.

"It is ironic that our chapter is named for a local Revolutionary War hero, and our chapter house belonged to a Loyalist, essentially a judge appointed by the governor," says Chapter Regent Elizabeth Tivnan. "When Worcester closed down the British courts forever on September 6, 1774, Timothy Bigelow and thousands of local farmers marched the magistrates, including Judge Paine, down Main Street and got them to renounce their positions, a year before Lexington and Concord." (See opposite page for more on Bigelow.)

Worcester, 48 miles west of Boston, was one of several rural towns that forced royal appointees to resign, a rebellion described in Ray Raphael's *The First American Revolution* (The New Press, 2002).

A Loyalist Stronghold

Timothy Paine, born in 1730 in Bristol, R.I., moved to Worcester with his family at age 9. A town clerk, selectman and representative to the General Court, he purchased about 230 acres in Worcester's North End, then called the “Great Road to Boston,” around 1767. Judge Paine began building The Oaks in 1774, but it wasn’t completed until after the war. (A soldier’s hat was discovered during a renovation, leading historians to believe Revolutionary soldiers once lived in the unfinished house.) Built as a two-story house in the Georgian style, with a flat front and central chimney, the home was later enlarged and renovated in the Greek Revival style by his grandson Frederick.

Though Judge Paine and his wife, Sarah Chandler Paine, sided with the British, they frequently hosted John Adams, who taught school in Worcester from 1756 to 1758, at dinner parties. According to Elizabeth Orne Paine Sturgis’ 1903 genealogy, *A Sketch of the Chandler Family in Worcester, Massachusetts* (Worcester Society of Antiquity), at one dinner, Judge Paine is said to have offered the traditional toast to the king. Some guests were about to refuse, but Adams urged them to go ahead, since, "We shall have an opportunity to return the compliment." He then proposed a toast to “the Devil.” Before Judge Paine could object, Sarah intervened, saying wittily, “My dear, as the gentleman has been so kind to drink to our king, let us by no means refuse on our turn to drink to his.”

Judge Paine’s son, William Paine, graduated from Harvard University and was an apprentice to a doctor in Salem, Mass., where he met his future wife, Lois Orne. (One of their many lavish wedding gifts was a silver tea set made by Paul Revere. It’s now in the Worcester Art Museum.) Dr. Paine co-founded an apothecary in Worcester in 1771. But after he and 50 other Worcester citizens signed the Worcester Protest in 1774, arguing that British rule was just, he and his wife left the country. He earned a medical degree and served as a doctor in Great Britain. He was appointed surgeon general for the British army in 1775, and was stationed in New York and Rhode Island in 1781. The next year, he was appointed Physician to His Majesty’s Hospital in the District of North America.

The couple lived in Nova Scotia, where many Loyalists settled after the Revolution. He returned to Salem in 1787 after the ban against Loyalists was lifted, and then lived in The Oaks after Judge Paine’s death in 1793. When the War of 1812 began, Dr. Paine, still a British army officer at half-pay, was ordered to report for duty. But he resigned his commission and asked the Massachusetts
WHAT’S IN A NAME?

The name of the DAR chapter in Worcester, Mass., was chosen to honor Colonel Timothy Bigelow, born there in 1739. The blacksmith led a group of Minutemen to Cambridge when he heard about the Battle of Lexington. As a major in the Continental Army, Bigelow joined Benedict Arnold’s ill-fated march through Maine to Canada and was taken prisoner in the Battle of Quebec in December 1775. After being released in March 1776, he was promoted to colonel and fought in the battles of Saratoga, Monmouth and Yorktown.

After the war, Bigelow was given 23,000 acres of Vermont land for his service, but he never claimed the grant and no one knows what happened to that fortune. He fell into debt after failing to revive his blacksmith business after the war, and he died in debtors’ prison in 1790. The Colonel Timothy Bigelow Chapter restored a statue of Bigelow located in Worcester Common.
legislature to become a naturalized U.S. citizen. In 1812, he became one of the founders of the American Antiquarian Society, serving as vice president from 1813–1816.

His son, Frederick W. Paine, married Ann Cushing Sturgis in 1822. The gardens he tended at The Oaks were renowned for their beauty. An early description notes: "Beds of larkspur, phlox, Canterbury bells, lemon verbena, primroses, dahlia, cinnamon pinks and cornflowers growing in sweet profusion running on either side of the house." Frederick helped found the Worcester County Horticultural Society and became its first treasurer. The society opened Tower Hill Botanic Garden in Boylston, Mass., in 1886.

"Under his taste and love for horticulture grew 'Paine's Garden,' renowned through all the country for its wealth of trees and flowers, making the south slope of Paine Hill a bright expanse of bloom, which old citizens lovingly remember," wrote The Evening Gazette, a Worcester newspaper, in 1982. He held numerous town offices and was in great esteem among our citizens for his judgment in real estate, his taste in gardening, and his love of books, the latter preserved in the treasures he contributed to the American Antiquarian Society’s collections, and the fine home library. Frederick died in 1869. His widow, The Oaks’ last occupant, lived there until her death in 1892.

A Wealth of Family Heirlooms and Local Artifacts

In 1836, Frederick Paine expanded The Oaks and changed its style to Greek Revival, adding a kitchen ell to the west, a main entrance and porch to the east, an extension to the north, and a curved staircase in the center. An 1822 wooden desk he used sits in the parlor. The room’s marble and slate fireplace is one of five in the house the chapter restored after it was painted over. Its needlepoint fire screen was sewn in 1832 by Emily Baker Paine, Frederick’s daughter-in-law. The red velvet sofa in dark-stained wood, with curved arms and legs and round bolsters, is Greek Revival style. The red velvet-upholstered rocking chairs are 19th-century Victorian Lincoln style. The Country Empire chairs, dating from 1840–1860, comfortable and without ornamentation, reflect the Paines’ preference for functional furnishings. A mid-19th-century wind instrument called a seraphine is also in the parlor.

The library, started by Frederick Paine, contains six double floor-to-ceiling bookcases that hold books on Massachusetts, DAR and Worcester history, genealogy, and early American works. The desk belonged to his family, while a box atop it was painted for his sister-in-law, Elizabeth Sturgis. English and Chinese porcelain dating from 1760–1900 is displayed in four glass-fronted cases.

The dining room is believed to have been part of the old kitchen before a new kitchen was added in 1836. It contains Judge Paine’s late 18th-century Hepplewhite dining table, a mortar and pestle his son probably used to prepare medicines, and a bottle from Joseph Burnett Co., a Boston-based 19th-century drug manufacturer that made the anesthetic thought to have been used in the first painless surgery in the United States. Also here are Revolutionary War guns—one used in the Battle of Lexington—and a banjo-style clock, first made during the Federal period.

An exhibit of Revolutionary War artifacts in the breakfast room includes ornate rhinstone shoe buckles worn by Samuel Breck, the fiscal agent for French forces during the Revolution, a flintlock horse pistol, a leather holster, a burlap saddlebag used to carry flintlock pistols and Colonial shoes.
The Paine Room, which the DAR uses as a meeting and dining room, contains a program from “Madam Paine,” a 1910 play in which Judge Paine’s wife was portrayed by her great-great-granddaughter, Mary Louisa Trumbull Cogswell. It also houses a leather fireman’s helmet and fire bucket used in the 1840s by a Worcester firefighter and copies of paintings of the Boston Harbor blockade.

Photographs of Dr. William Paine, his son Frederick and his grandson Rev. George Sturgis Paine are displayed in the garden entrance hallway. Silhouettes of Dr. Paine and his cousin Henry Sturgis can be seen in the DAR Boardroom, the former Paine dining room. The room also features two engravings of Washington, a circa-1840 mahogany shelf clock, two early 19th-century Empire-style sideboards and two bronze oil lamps, specially designed to produce a steady flame.

A Ballot Box: Pieces of State History

A ballot box is a significant artifact in the second floor’s former Ann Cushing Paine bedroom, now the Massachusetts DAR Museum room. Made from 280 historically important pieces of wood, its materials and labor were contributed by 60 DAR chapters and 10 individuals. It includes wood from John and Abigail Adams’ homestead in nearby Quincy, the Paul Revere House in Boston, the Daggett House in Boston (where Boston Tea Party preparations were plotted), the Old Belfry in Lexington (to which Minutemen were called on April 19, 1775), the First Parish Church of Concord (where the first Provincial Congress was held), and Harvard University’s Massachusetts Hall (used as barracks in 1775).

Pieces from magnolia trees planted by George Washington and the Marquis de Lafayette at Mount Vernon and from the Abraham Lincoln Home in Springfield, Ill., also were used to create the ballot box, according to a booklet that describes the heritage of each piece. Also here are historic gavels, including one from 1763 made with wood from Boston’s Faneuil Hall.

The second-floor guest bedroom contains a mahogany bed from the early Victorian period. The bed is topped by a mid-19th-century coverlet crocheted in a raised-leaf pattern with the initials of Abigail Taft, a descendant of President William H. Taft. The needlework seat on a mahogany bench was sewn in 1830 by Emily Baker Paine. A Victorian mourning wreath—crafted from human hair, a popular 19th-century art form—is placed on top of a walnut-inlaid polyphon music box. Its melodies resemble chiming bells.

In a second-floor meeting hall used by the DAR chapter sits a high-backed mahogany chair believed to have been owned by Washington, who gave it to his chaplain, Reverend Samuel West. West’s descendant willed it to the chapter.

The Future of The Oaks

When the Colonel Timothy Bigelow Chapter purchased The Oaks and its grounds from the Paine family in 1914, the home had sat empty for more than 20 years. For the next few years, the chapter financed repairs to the deteriorating house with fundraising events. More than $150,000 in additional repairs were made from 1987 to 1989. A 2012 excavation found Revolutionary War-era items, including 19th-century coins and a soldier’s pewter coat button and brass buckles.

“One of the wonderful things about The Oaks is the fact that it is not simply an old house and museum; it’s alive with energy because our chapter uses it,” says Mrs. Tivnan. Currently, her chapter is reviewing its options for another restoration and has gathered extensive historic data about the gardens in an effort to return them to their former glory.

To mark a century of the chapter’s ownership in 2014, members will conduct tours of The Oaks and host other festivities. In September the chapter will commemorate the 1774 Worcester Revolution. For more information, call (508) 797–3530.

Sharon McDonnell wrote about Revolutionary spy techniques for the November/December 2013 issue.
Early Americans’ interest in experimentation is evident in the very country they established. A government for the people and by the people was a new invention all its own—just one of the many things first developed by the free-thinking, innovative colonists.

Many of the new inventions developed by early Americans remain important today. For instance, Benjamin Franklin, the most well-known of Colonial-era inventors, created the first lightning rod and bifocals, among numerous other gadgets and machines. But Franklin wasn’t the only colonist developing new objects.

“The most enduring inventions [from Colonial times] came from Franklin, who was clearly one of the great creative minds of his time,” says William Burns, a visiting professor of history at George Washington University in Washington, D.C. But it isn’t that surprising that there were a number of other active inventors at the time, Burns adds. In particular, that’s because London’s Society of Arts launched a program to recognize and reward inventors during the 18th century. Several American organizations followed suit.

That emphasis on innovation spurred a number of creative minds to develop inventions of their own. Here are some of the little-known but notable inventors of Colonial America.

Story by Nancy Mann Jackson
Illustration by Emily Edwards

Oliver Evans
Automatic Flour Mill

Born in Delaware in 1755, Oliver Evans spent much of his life inventing machines, applying for patents and enforcing his patents. One of his most important inventions was an automated flour mill, built in 1785, which operated continuously with the use of bucket elevators and conveyor belts. While the automatic mill was widely used, the system of bulk material handling devices that kept it running may have had more lasting importance.

In *The Young Mill-wright and Miller’s Guide*, Evans described his system this way: “These five machines … perform every necessary movement of the grain, and meal, from one part of the mill to another, and from one machine to another, through all the various operations, from the time the grain is emptied from the wagoner’s bag … until completely manufactured into flour … without the aid of manual labor, excepting to set the different machines in motion.”

Evans’ development of this system of bulk material handling devices was an important precursor to the assembly line, which eventually led to the Industrial Revolution. In addition to the automated flour mill, Evans also invented a high-pressure steam engine and a refrigeration machine.
Benjamin Banneker

America’s First Clock

Known as the first African-American scientist, Benjamin Banneker invented a wooden clock that struck on the hour. He built the clock in 1753 at the age of 22, and scholars believe he modeled it after a borrowed pocket watch, which he studied after taking it apart piece by piece. He built his wood clock entirely with indigenous American parts, with each wood part and pinion hand-carved to scale. It continued to work reliably until Banneker’s death in 1806.

In addition to inventing his clock, Banneker studied astronomy and made astronomical calculations to predict solar and lunar eclipses. In the early 1790s, he worked with a team of surveyors to plot the federal district that would become Washington, D.C.

John Pearson / Josiah Bent

Crackers

In 1792, John Pearson of Newburyport, Mass., wanted to make a biscuit that would last longer without spoiling than traditional sailor’s biscuits. After several tries, he eventually mixed flour and water and baked it into cracker-like “biscuits” now known as crackers. Pearson called his invention “Pearson’s Pilot Bread,” but it eventually became known as hardtack and seabiscuits, a staple part of the diet of sailors and sea voyagers.

Just nine years later, Josiah Bent, a Massachusetts baker, burned a batch of biscuits and became convinced that the crispy result would make a good snack. He called them “crackers” because of the crackling noise they made when broken and began selling them to Boston-area consumers. Years later, he sold his successful cracker company to the firm that would become Nabisco.

Sybilla Masters

Corn Mill

Sybilla Masters, credited as the first American woman inventor, also was one of the first people in America to be granted a British patent. In 1715, King George of England granted a patent for her corn mill, which used hammers instead of gears to grind corn.

The wife of a Pennsylvania planter, Masters was likely to have had plenty of experience grinding, curing and preserving corn. While she is widely accepted as the inventor of her corn mill, the patent had to be granted in the name of her husband, Thomas Masters, as only men were legally allowed to hold a patent at the time.
John Hobday  
Wheat-threshing machine

In 1772, John Hobday placed a notice in the Virginia Gazette seeking subscribers to finance the distribution of his invention—a machine for threshing wheat. At the June 1774 meeting of the “Virginian Society for the Promotion of Usefull Knowledge,” members gave Hobday a gold medal and monetary reward for his machine, which could thresh 120 bushels of wheat in three days with the aid of two to four horses and could be replicated cheaply. In his study Science in the Virginia Gazette, 1736–1780 (Kansas State Teachers College, 1968), Richard Overfield says this was the first medal awarded by an American scientific society for a practical invention. And according to Carl Bridenbaugh’s Colonial Craftsman (University of Chicago Press, 1961), Hobday’s was the first recorded invention of a thresher in the United States, manufactured before Cyrus McCormick invented the reaper in 1831.

Thomas Godfrey  
Octant

Born in Pennsylvania in 1704, Thomas Godfrey worked as a glazier and installed the windows in the Pennsylvania State House, now known as Independence Hall. An employer encouraged Godfrey to pursue his talents in math and science, and around 1730, Godfrey developed the octant, a navigational instrument for determining latitude.

Around the same time, Englishman James Hadley invented a similar instrument, known as a quadrant. As vice president of the Royal Society in London, Hadley was credited with the invention, and Godfrey’s claims as the original inventor were not recognized. This dispute about true ownership of the invention “led to some early demonstrations of American patriotism,” Burns says.

Jeremiah Wilkinson  
Cut Nails

For centuries, carpenters built houses with nails that were handmade from soft, malleable iron and hammered to a point on one end. But in 1775, Rhode Islander Jeremiah Wilkinson invented a process that cut tacks, and later nails, from sheets of metal. His invention was gradually refined, and by around 1800, nails were being mass-produced by feeding rolled iron plates into clipping machines that cut them at a fixed angle.

While numerous patents for nail cutting were issued from 1786 through the early 1800s, Wilkinson is credited with developing the first nail-cutting machine. The automatic nail-making process he pioneered streamlined the construction of houses, barns and commercial buildings. His early nails were precursors to those found in rows on the shelves of today’s home improvement and hardware stores.
Now at the DAR MUSEUM

Building a Better Castle

“Creating the Ideal Home, 1800–1939: Comfort and Convenience in America”

DAR Museum, Washington, D.C.
Now through August 30, 2014

The DAR Museum’s latest exhibit, “Creating the Ideal Home, 1800–1939: Comfort and Convenience in America,” explores the evolution of inventions dedicated to home convenience. During the late 18th to early 20th centuries, daily chores became easier, especially for the housewife, as American inventors patented labor-saving devices such as the vacuum cleaner and the washing machine. The exhibit shows more than 60 of these objects, including oil-burning lamps, cooking implements and electric appliances, all invented—and marketed—to bring greater comfort and ease to homemakers.

“We chose to open the exhibit in the year 1800 because the Industrial Revolution had just begun, and inventions for heating and cooking were already being developed,” says exhibit curator Patrick Sheary of the DAR Museum. “We end with the World’s Fair of 1939 in New York City. The fair, which celebrated a ‘Century of Progress,’ looked to the future with the debut of television and the beginning of the electronic age.”

Here are a few of Sheary’s favorite inventions in the exhibit. For more information, visit www.dar.org/museum.

1. Cornelia & Co. of Philadelphia made this brass and cut-glass lamp between 1830 and 1840. Lamps of this type cast no offending shadow upon a surface being illuminated. Popularly called “sinumbra” (without shadow) lamps, these were originally patented in England around 1820. The shadow-less principle was accomplished by placing the fuel reservoir in a ring above the central burner. (Gift of Mrs. Elsie Viles and the Maine State Organization)

2. E. Remington & Sons of Ilion, N.Y., manufactured the first practical typewriter starting in 1874. Christopher Latham Sholes spent many years perfecting the mechanical writing machine. The typewriter eventually revolutionized the office, bringing women into that sphere. The first practical typewriter uses the familiar QWERTY layout (named for the first six letters in the top alphabet row, just below the numbers) still seen on today’s computer keyboards. The user could not see the letters being typed, which is why it was nicknamed the “blind writer.” (Private Collection)

3. One of the earliest known electric cooking appliances is this coffee pot made by the Carpenter Electric Heating Manufacturing Co. of St. Paul, Minn., between 1891 and 1896. Midwestern inventor Ralph Carpenter began making a variety of electric appliances around 1890 and is credited with inventing the first practical electric iron. (Private Collection)

4. Resembling the gas- or coal-powered variety, this stove was electrically powered. The knobs on the front, with low, medium and high settings, regulated the elevated burners, griddle and oven below. An early manufacturer of electric heating devices, the Simplex Electric Heating Company of Cambridge, Mass., made this stove between 1910 and 1912. (Loaned by Stefan Osdene)

5. Many people got their first look at RCA’s first television, the TRK-12, during the 1939 World’s Fair, where it was among the most popular items in the company’s impressive exhibit hall. The long picture tube meant that it had to be placed vertically in the cabinet. The mirror built into the lid allowed the picture to be seen by viewers, who, at that time, could enjoy only five channels. Even with those limited options and carrying a price tag of $600 (the cost of a modest car at the time), it was the best-selling model of the four introduced at the fair. (Loaned by Frank Heselton)

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Have you ever said to yourself “I’d love to get a computer, if only I could figure out how to use it.” Well, you’re not alone. Computers were supposed to make our lives simpler, but they’ve gotten so complicated that they are not worth the trouble. With all of the “pointing and clicking” and “dragging and dropping” you’re lucky if you can figure out where you are. Plus, you are constantly worrying about viruses and freeze-ups. If this sounds familiar, we have great news for you. There is finally a computer that’s designed for simplicity and ease of use. It’s the WOW Computer, and it was designed with you in mind. This computer is easy-to-use, worry-free and literally puts the world at your fingertips. From the moment you open the box, you’ll realize how different the WOW Computer is. The components are all connected; all you do is plug it into an outlet and your high-speed Internet connection. Then you’ll see the screen – it’s now 22 inches. This is a completely new touch screen system, without the cluttered look of the normal computer screen. The “buttons” on the screen are easy to see and easy to understand. All you do is touch one of them, from the Web, Email, Calendar to Games– you name it… and a new screen opens up. It’s so easy to use you won’t have to ask your children or grandchildren for help. Until now the very people who could benefit most from E-mail and the Internet are the ones that have had the hardest time accessing it. Now, thanks to the WOW Computer, countless older Americans are discovering the wonderful world of the Internet every day. Isn’t it time you took part? Call now, and a patient, knowledgeable product expert will tell you how you can try it in your home for 30 days. If you are not totally satisfied, simply return it within 30 days for a refund of the product purchase price. Call today.

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MEETING OF WASHINGTON AND ROCHAMBEAU.
ONE OF THE GREATEST FRENCH CONTRIBUTIONS to America’s independence was the decision by King Louis XVI to lend support to General George Washington by sending one of France’s most gallant and intelligent officers—Comte de Rochambeau—to America in 1780.

Some historians say that Washington would not have won the Battle of Yorktown without Rochambeau’s aid. Washington was set on attacking New York, but Rochambeau persuaded him that Yorktown was more achievable. The allies’ victory against General Charles Cornwallis weakened the political will in London, crippled the British war effort and ensured independence.

From the Library to the Battlefield

Born July 1, 1725, in Vendôme, France, Jean Baptiste Donatien de Vimeur, Comte de Rochambeau, had seemingly few aspirations of military glory; instead, the frail and sickly young boy trained for the clergy. When not at school at a Jesuit college, he was often in his father’s library reading about French history and the heroic service of his ancestors in foreign lands.

His elder brother’s unexpected death dramatically altered Rochambeau’s life. At the age of 15, he left religious training to carry on the family tradition of serving as a soldier, taking on the title of Chevalier de Saint-Georges, an honorary title from one of his father’s estates. He quickly climbed through the ranks, earning a promotion to captain at age 18. After serving in the War of the Austrian Succession he was promoted to colonel, and because of his bravery at the 1756 Battle of Minorca, which took place at the start of the Seven Years’ War, he became a brigadier general.

By the time America was fighting for its freedom from England, Rochambeau, a veteran of more than 30 sieges, had gained a reputation as a fine military strategist and a dynamic leader. Although hesitant at first to commit to the American cause with the relatively paltry force of 5,500 French troops at his disposal, he obeyed the orders of King Louis XVI, as well as the king’s Minister of Foreign Affairs Charles de Vergennes and Minister of War Prince de Montbarrey, to place himself under Washington’s command when he arrived in America.

“That set the tone of their relationship,” says Jini Jones Vail, author of Rochambeau: Washington’s Ideal Lieutenant (Word Association, 2011) and member of the Trumbull-Porter DAR Chapter, Watertown, Conn. “Rochambeau was seven years older than Washington and much more experienced, but he humbled himself in order to work smoothly with the commander in chief of the Continental Army.”

Now a lieutenant general, Rochambeau arrived in Newport, R.I., in July 1780. He stayed in Newport for a year, recovering from the trans-Atlantic journey, waiting out the winter and staying near the French fleet that was blockaded by the British in Narragansett Bay. Brown University, then named the College
in the Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, served as the
campsite for some French troops. When
Rochambeau needed more housing for
his men, he negotiated with Newport
town leaders to let them rebuild war-
damaged houses, which would belong
to the town when they left. Troops also constructed rooms for
dance floors at local Newport homes, as Rochambeau didn’t
want the winter weather to keep his men from exercise.

“During this year in Newport, Rochambeau met
with Washington three times to discuss strategy and get
acquainted,” Mrs. Vail says. “Rochambeau was patient and
willing to wait for the right moment to voice his opinion on
strategy; he was confident in his military expertise and knew
when to acquiesce to Washington and when to stand firm.”

Rochambeau was unsettled by his observations of the
Continental Army. The troops wore ragged, thin uniforms,
were hungry and often served without pay. To bolster his allies,
Rochambeau borrowed money from his king’s treasury in
order to pay Washington’s troops. One American soldier wrote
in his diary that it was the only time during his service that he
received real coinage.

A Winning Strategy

In July 1781, Rochambeau’s men left Newport, marched
across Connecticut and joined Washington at Dobbs Ferry, N.Y.
On August 17, the combined troops began the largest movement
of the war—through New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania,
Delaware, Maryland, the future site of Washington, D.C., and
Virginia. (Their path, named the Washington-Rochambeau
Revolutionary Route, was designated a National Historic Trail by
Congress in March 2009. Read more about the route in the July/
August 2006 issue or at www.nps.gov/waro/index.htm.) When
they were close to Mount Vernon, Washington made a brief
detour for his first visit home in six years, inviting Rochambeau
to be his guest from September 10–12. From there the combined
forces reached Williamsburg on the evening of September 14,
then met up with Marquis de Lafayette’s troops.

What Washington’s men lacked in supplies and combat
experience, the French troops provided in reinforcements and
training. Naval support was available as well; 29 French ships
made their way to the eastern shoreline to aid the Americans.
Admiral Francois-Joseph-Paul, Comte de Grasse, led the large
convoy of ships from their stations in the French Caribbean
islands. His arrival was a key element in Washington and
Rochambeau’s three-pronged plan. De Grasse’s naval victo-
ry at the September 5, 1781, Battle of the Chesapeake, also
called the Battle of the Capes, kept Cornwallis shut off from his
British support ships.

“Rochambeau brought with him the hard cash, the
heavy siege artillery and 5,500 well-disciplined soldiers, and
de Grasse brought even more currency, even more soldiers and
sailors, and a 29-ship convoy to fight on land and at sea and
block the British from escaping,” Mrs. Vail says. “We could not
have accomplished the Siege of Yorktown without them.”

Outnumbered by better-equipped and strategically placed
soldiers, Cornwallis faced an eight-day siege, and was finally
forced to surrender on October 19. He sent an officer to pres-
ent his sword to Rochambeau, who would not accept it, saying
that the offering should be made to Washington, the overall
commander in chief. Revolutionary War veteran Joseph Plumb
Martin, in his 1830 memoir, recounted the surrender of the
British: “We were marched on to the ground and paraded on
the right-hand side of the road, and the French forces on the
left. We waited two or three hours before the British made
their appearance; they were not always so dilatory, but they
were compelled at last, by necessity, to appear, all armed, with
bayonets fixed, drums beating, and faces lengthening.”

Honored By Two Nations

In recognition of his invaluable contributions, the Congress
of the Confederation (the immediate successor to the Second
Continental Congress) presented Rochambeau with two cannon
taken from the British. He also became one of the original mem-
ers of the Society of the Cincinnati (the subject of a feature
story in the May/June 2013 issue). Upon his return to France,
the hero was made Commander of the Army of the North. He
also was honored by King Louis XVI for his exemplary service
in America. “The king gave Rochambeau a bonus and assigned
him a prestigious military posting in Calais,” Mrs. Vail writes.
“Rochambeau would hold sway over three provinces in the
northwest of France: Flanders, Picardy and Artois.”

Rochambeau was named marshal of France in December
1791. He was arrested during the Reign of Terror and
narrowly escaped the guillotine. He died in 1807 in Thoré-la-
Rochette, France.

In a February 1, 1784, letter, Washington wrote to
Rochambeau: “We have been contemporaries and fellow
laborers in the cause of liberty, and we have lived together as brothers should do in harmonious friendship.” This quote was
later inscribed on a statue of Rochambeau—sculpted by Jean-
Jacques Hamar as a gift from France in 1902—now standing
in Washington, D.C.’s, Lafayette Park across Pennsylvania
Avenue from the White House.

Nancy Cooper has written about exemplary history teachers for
the Class Act column. Author Jini Jones Vail also was consulted for
this article. Visit her blog, www.revolutionaryrochambeau.com, for
more on the Patriot.
Over the years, digital electronic technology has made the way we live easier, safer and more convenient. In many cases, it’s even made many products more affordable... (remember how much the first VCRs used to cost?). Unfortunately, the cost of many digital products, including the hearing aid never seemed to come down. Now, a new option has been invented... it’s called Perfect Choice HD™.

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Though we're well-accustomed now to seeing this kind of sensational murder trial on cable news shows, Paul Collins’ *Duel With the Devil* (Crown, 2013) reveals that riveting courtroom dramas date back to the early days of the republic.

The 1800 trial of New York City carpenter Levi Weeks for the murder of his sweetheart, Gulielma “Elma” Elmore Sands, contained all the elements that we expect in such cases, and more:

- The defense team included arch political foes Aaron Burr and Alexander Hamilton. Others involved in the case, including the judge, the prosecutor, the defendant and members of the jury, had so many potential conflicts of interest that such a trial would be improper and probably wouldn’t take place today.
- The trial was framed against the backdrop of the highly contentious 1800 elections. Thomas Jefferson’s (and Burr’s) Republican Democrat Party was poised to claim the presidency, and Federalists like Hamilton feared the imminent dissolution of the Constitution and breakup of the new nation.
- Working from verbatim records of the trial, which Collins says was the first fully documented U.S. murder trial, and other contemporary sources, Collins painstakingly reconstructs the crime and its trial.
- Both Weeks and Sands lived in the same Greenwich Street boardinghouse. Sands left the house on the evening of December 22, 1799, and never returned. Her corpse was found 11 days later in the Manhattan Well, part of a municipal water venture headed by Burr.
- Suspicion quickly fell on Weeks, based on statements that he and Sands planned to marry. Anonymous handbills and pamphlets packed with scurrilous tales soon inflamed the city against the carpenter. The public’s anger raised fears of rioting, which had happened after other sensational crimes. Weeks was soon arrested and charged with the murder.
- Though much of the evidence against Weeks was circumstantial, prosecutor Cadwallader Colden proceeded with the trial. Held in March 1800, the “Manhattan Well Murder” trial occupied two very long days. The trial went beyond midnight both days, and Collins’ descriptions of the dimly lit courtroom add a macabre air to the grim proceedings.
- But the story doesn’t end with the verdict, which found the defendant Weeks not guilty. Collins looks at the aftermath—the fates of the major figures, including Burr and Hamilton, whose duel in July 1804 rocked the nation. And the author reopens the 214-year-old cold case to follow long-forgotten clues to a new resolution to the crime.

Though the account of the trial is fascinating, the glimpse of New York City at the beginning of the 1800s is even more interesting. Though already a major city, among its elites New York was still a small town, rife with personal enmities, political and financial ambition, and the outsized sense of personal honor and reputation that could—and did—lead to duels.

Collins takes us behind the public masks of figures such as Burr and Hamilton. As they had before the Revolution, these high-flying figures frequently lived far beyond their means, dodging creditors and cooking up schemes to avoid debtors’ prison.

For instance, New Yorkers wondered how Weeks could afford his defense “dream team.” The answer was later revealed: His brother, Ezra, one of the city’s most sought-after architects, had built homes for Burr and Hamilton. Both lawyers were deep in debt to Ezra, and neither billed for his services.

Moreover, the infamous well was more than a simple source of water: The water company was a pretext for founding a bank that Burr could control and use to his own financial and political advantage. So even while collaborating with Burr on the case, Hamilton worked desperately to undermine his rival’s political ambitions.

Speaking of the well: It was located in a then-rural area of Manhattan called Lipsenard’s Meadow, a swampy area long since covered over. But in 2010 it was rediscovered under a well-known eatery called the Manhattan Bistro, and its brick walls are on display in the restaurant’s basement.

—Bill Hudgins

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America’s First ‘Trial of the Century’

![DUEL WITH THE DEVIL](image)

**DUEL WITH THE DEVIL**

Paul Collins

36 Daughters of the American Revolution

—Bill Hudgins
The prominent Colonial Virginia statesman George Wythe (pronounced “with”) had a strange morning ritual, which he faithfully carried out into his 80s: After waking up at 5 a.m., he made his way to an outdoor shower stall where he soaked himself with a bucket of freezing well water. His student William Munford said, “Many a time have I heard him catching his breath and almost shouting with the shock. When he entered the breakfast room his face would be in a glow, and all his nerves were fully braced.”
It was with a similar spirit of discipline and order that the brilliant, largely self-taught Wythe became one of early America’s finest legal scholars and teachers. A vocal Patriot leader in Virginia, he signed the Declaration of Independence and served as a delegate to the Continental Congress.

Wythe was widely admired by other Founding Fathers, including George Washington, who advised colleagues confused by a legal point to simply: “Ask George Wythe.” Thomas Jefferson wrote, “No man ever left behind him a character more venerated than George Wythe … he might truly be called the Cato of his country.”

Even John Adams, who didn’t particularly care for Southerners, according to Bruce Chadwick in I Am Murdered: George Wythe, Thomas Jefferson and the Killing That Shocked a New Nation (John Wiley and Sons, 2009), became friends with Wythe. He called him “a lawyer of high rank at the bar, a great scholar, a most indefatigable man and a staunch Virginian.”

He was honored by older and younger generations alike. “Searching for a title for the distinguished octogenarian, who was still as feisty as ever, someone had nicknamed him the ‘American Aristides’ after Aristides the Just, the greatly respected ancient Athenian soldier and statesman. An intelligent man who spoke five languages, the judge had earned the nickname with his well-rounded sophistication,” writes Chadwick.

After a long life of such achievement, Wythe’s painful and drawn-out death, likely after being poisoned by a relative, is placed in even sharper relief. Though the crime went officially unsolved, Wythe died believing he knew who murdered him—but not before getting his own form of revenge.

An Early Start to a Learned Life

George Wythe was born in 1726 in Chesterville, Va., (now Hampton, Va.) to Thomas Wythe, a successful farmer, and Margaret Walker Wythe, a well-educated and well-read woman for her time. Wythe descended from a long line of Quakers, some of whom were early opponents of slavery.

After his father’s early death, Wythe’s mother tutored him, instilling a love of learning and helping him master Latin and Greek. He probably attended school in Williamsburg before he began reading law with his uncle Stephen Dewey in Prince George County.

The 20-year-old Wythe was admitted to the bar in 1746, and he started his legal practice in Elizabeth City County. Later he practiced with the prominent lawyer Zachary Lewis and married Lewis’ daughter Ann in 1747. She died in August of the following year.

Colonial Legislator, Law Professor And Beloved Mentor

The young widower moved back to Williamsburg, where he was appointed clerk to two powerful committees of the House of Burgesses, Virginia’s democratically elected legislative assembly. Thus started his long résumé as a Colonial representative: He served as one of Williamsburg’s aldermen, acted as Colonial attorney general for a time, and served as a delegate and a clerk in Virginia’s House of Burgesses from the mid-1750s until 1775.

In 1755, he married Elizabeth Taliaferro (pronounced “Tolliver”), the daughter of Williamsburg planter and architect Richard Taliaferro. The couple lived in a home that Wythe’s father-in-law built, now known as the George Wythe House. (See page 40.) Their only child died in infancy.

In 1768 he became mayor of Williamsburg and was appointed to the board of the College of William and Mary. In 1779, Wythe accepted an appointment as the college’s professor of law, becoming the nation’s first law professor in an institution for higher learning.

Wythe accepted law students as boarders in his home and treated them as sons. During his teaching tenure at William and Mary, he mentored young law scholars such as Thomas Jefferson, St. George Tucker, James Monroe and John Marshall, who later became chief justice of the United States and established the doctrine of judicial review in the landmark case Marbury vs. Madison.

Jefferson, who served as his law clerk for five years, called Wythe, “my faithful and beloved mentor in youth, and my most affectionate friend through life.” Henry Clay, a law student he taught later in life, shared with Wythe an aversion to slavery. While Wythe had been born into a slaveholding society, it was likely his Quaker roots that compelled him to work to abolish the practice throughout his long legislative and judicial career.
“Chancellor Wythe seized the opportunity of one of his cases to try to cripple the institution of slavery,” writes Colonial Williamsburg in its online biography of Wythe. “He ruled that Virginia’s Declaration of Rights—written by [George] Mason and adopted in 1776—included African-Americans among the ‘all men’ born free and equally independent. ‘They should,’ Wythe said, ‘be considered free until proven otherwise.’”

Wythe’s ruling did not make it through appeals. Wythe freed some of his slaves during his lifetime, taught at least two to read and freed the rest in his will.

Vocal Supporter of Revolution

Wythe was an early opponent of the Stamp Act, and in 1764, the experienced legislator drafted a remonstrance to the House of Commons protesting the tax.

When the Revolution began, Wythe volunteered to serve in the army but, at 50, he was too old. He served the Patriot cause in other ways—as a delegate to Continental Congress from 1775 through 1776, and as a signer of the Declaration of Independence in 1776. He was absent from the meeting the day most signed the document, but his fellow Virginia delegates left a space so that his signature would appear first.

He also collaborated with Jefferson, Mason, Thomas Ludwell Lee and Edmund Pendleton on a three-year project to revise Virginia’s legal code and rewrite outdated Colonial laws. Wythe was one of two members of the committee who designed the seal of Virginia to feature the motto, “Sic Semper Tyrannis,” or “Thus Ever to Tyrants.”

Wythe resigned from the College of William and Mary in 1789, and he accepted an appointment as judge of Virginia’s Court of Chancery in Richmond in 1791. He didn’t want to give up teaching, so he founded a private law school.

A Painful End to a Life of Generosity

Now a familiar sight on the streets of Richmond, the much-admired Wythe began the morning of May 25, 1806, like any other: After his shower ritual, he was brought a breakfast of eggs, toast and coffee by Lydia Broadnax, a freed black woman who remained in the household as a paid employee.

Later that morning, Wythe fell ill with intense abdominal pains, diarrhea and vomiting. Broadnax and 16-year-old Michael Brown, a free black who lived in the house as another of Wythe’s protégés, also were struck by the same illness.

Richmond’s best doctors initially believed they were suffering from cholera, dismissing Wythe’s claim that he had been poisoned. But Broadnax, herself desperately ill, insisted that she saw Wythe’s grandnephew, the 18-year-old George Wythe Sweeney, put some kind of powder into the morning coffee after he drank his cup, then saw him toss evidence—a small piece of white paper—into the fire.

Continued on page 41
UNLIKE MANY OF HIS PEERS who lived outside the city, Wythe’s principal residence was in Williamsburg. His two-story brick residence was designed in the mid-1750s by his father-in-law, the builder and planter Richard Taliaferro.

The royal governor, Francis Fauquier, lived two doors away from Wythe. The two men often dined together along with William Small, professor of natural philosophy at the College of William and Mary, and Wythe’s law clerk, Thomas Jefferson.

According to Hugh Howard in Houses of the Founding Fathers: The Men Who Made America and the Way They Lived (Artisan, 2007), “Fauquier held weekly concerts, in which he himself would often play, and guests at his table enjoyed discussions of literature, architecture, and in particular, scientific observations ... Jefferson later recalled those evenings as filled with ‘more good sense, more rational and philosophical conversations, than in my life beside.’”

Later, the home sheltered Revolutionaries. In 1776, Jefferson stayed there while serving as a Virginia General Assembly delegate. It served as General George Washington’s headquarters just before the Siege of Yorktown, and French General Rochambeau made the home his headquarters after the Yorktown victory. (See story on Rochambeau on page 36.)

In 1779, Taliaferro’s will gave the Wythes use of the property for life, and the couple ended up living in the house for more than 30 years. Elizabeth died in 1787, and George moved to Richmond in 1791.

In 1926, the Reverend Dr. W.A.R. Goodwin used it as a headquarters office during the restoration of the town’s historic area. Colonial Williamsburg obtained the property in 1938.
On June 1, Brown died. As the 80-year-old Wythe lay in agony, he made another terrible discovery: Sweeney had been forging checks against his accounts to cover large gambling debts.

Impulsive, reckless and always in trouble, Sweeney already had been caught stealing Wythe’s books to repay debts. While Wythe’s will was written in favor of Sweeney, the ne’er-do-well knew it also included a generous bequest to Brown. Believing Sweeney intended to kill Brown and him to inherit the entire estate, Wythe revised his will, disinheriting his grandnephew.

On June 5, Wythe cried out, “I am murdered.” He died three days later. Broadnax lived, but her eyesight was permanently damaged.

**Remembering a Devoted Public Servant**

A grand jury indicted Sweeney for murder, and a sensational trial began. According to Chadwick, the prosecution’s case was weakened by several factors—an autopsy didn’t use common tests for arsenic poisoning, physicians gave conflicting testimony, and under Virginia law, black witnesses, whether enslaved or free, were not allowed to testify against a white person in court.

With only circumstantial evidence against him, Sweeney was acquitted of the charge of murder. He was found guilty of check forgery, but after that conviction was overruled on appeal, he moved to Tennessee. There Sweeney was jailed for stealing a horse, but no other records remain of his life.

According to Chadwick, Wythe’s was “the biggest funeral in the history of Virginia up to that time (George Washington’s 1799 funeral had been a private service at Mount Vernon).” Thousands crowded the streets to watch the procession move toward Richmond’s St. John’s Church, where Wythe was to be buried. Former student Munford gave a lengthy and emotional eulogy detailing his mentor’s life of devoted service and patriotism—surprising the audience by ending with an angry denunciation of Wythe’s ungrateful and, most believed, murderous grandnephew.

Despite the sad coda to his life, Wythe’s long list of contributions—as a legal scholar, devoted mentor to young law students and advocate of Patriot ideals—helped a new nation establish its own legal traditions.
IN ANOTHER ERA, King Philip’s War, which raged across New England in 1675–1676, might have been deemed a war to end all wars, given the loss of life and extensive devastation. Sadly, the conflict foretold a future of two centuries of clashes between whites and American Indians.

According to Nathaniel Philbrick’s *Mayflower: A Story of Courage, Community and War* (Penguin Books, 2007), perhaps 5,000 people died, 75 percent of those American Indians. “In terms of the per capita death rate, King Philip’s War was more than twice as bloody as the American Civil War and at least seven times more lethal than the American Revolution,” Philbrick writes.

One-third of New England’s 100 or so Colonial towns and villages were either burned to the ground and abandoned or substantially destroyed. Some of the torched towns lay abandoned for years. Per capita income fell precipitously, taking almost a century to return to pre-war levels.

The war destroyed established American Indian ways of life, virtually wiping out some groups and scattering most of the survivors. Hundreds of American Indian captives—men, women and children—were sold into slavery and shipped away. An unknown number left the area altogether and were adopted into other American Indian tribes and nations.

On the political front, criticism of the New England Colonies’ conduct of the war pushed the British Crown to reassert its authority over local affairs after more than 40 years of lax oversight. This affront to the region’s long-treasured autonomy would grow increasingly irksome and lead to revolution a century later.

**Fuel for the Fire**

Historians note that it’s surprising war didn’t break out sooner. In large part the decades of peace following the Pilgrims’ landing in 1621 were due to the close working relationship that formed between Pilgrim leader William Bradford and Massasoit, a sachem, or chief, of the Pokanoket, a branch of the area’s large Wampanoag tribe. This tribe was one of a number of Algonquin-speaking groups of people in New England.

The Pokanoket helped the Pilgrims survive their first terrible winter and taught them invaluable survival skills such as farming, fishing and hunting. In turn, the Pokanoket learned English ways and skills from the Pilgrims and acquired increasing numbers of English goods, especially firearms, that they quickly came to treasure.

Unlike in other Colonies, the English and Pokanoket lived in relatively close and consistent contact with each other, so personal as well as commercial relationships formed. They also came to regard each other somewhat as allies in the complex web of American Indian tribal relations and rivalries.

Through the efforts of Massasoit and Bradford, the two sides generally tried to work out their differences rather than fight. But friction was
inevitable, and by the 1660s and 1670s, it was growing, according to Eric B. Schultz and Michael J. Tougias in *King Philip’s War: The History and Legacy of America’s Forgotten Conflict* (Countryman Press, 2000).

From the start, lucrative trade in furs, timber and wampum smoothed relations between settlers and the tribes. But the unceasing demand for fashionable beaver hides and wampum disrupted traditional patterns as the tribes competed against each other and focused energy on satisfying the English demand. In exchange, they received manufactured goods, including flintlocks and alcohol. These goods quickly evolved from luxuries into necessities.

The desire for land was even more insatiable than the demand for furs. Schultz and Tougias note that within two years of their arrival, the Pilgrim settlers began demanding more land. The same thing happened later in Rhode Island and in the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

Unable to bridge the cultural gulf and understand how the American Indians lived off the land, the settlers believed their American Indian neighbors were simply wasting a valuable resource that the new arrivals could put to much better use. Colonial expansion and boundary-defining fences disrupted tribal hunting and gathering, as well as fishing and agriculture, write Schultz and Tougias. Roving cattle introduced from England decimated the tribal crops, making survival just that much more difficult.

Though Colonial authorities tried to ensure that lands were legally acquired, unscrupulous settlers found ways around the laws. And, as the tribes increasingly coveted English goods, they often traded land for them. The use of land as a kind of currency accelerated after mid-century, when beaver furs fell out of fashion and the region experienced an economic crisis.

This 1827 color engraving shows American Indians’ August 2, 1675, attack on the village of Brookfield, Mass., during King Philip’s War.
The insistent proselytizing by the settlers also created friction. Massasoit had repeatedly asked the Pilgrims to desist, but they, and later the Puritans, continued their efforts to convert the various tribes to Christianity. Those who did convert, known as “Praying Indians,” tended to live in their own communities, in a kind of limbo between the two societies. Though many supported the settlers’ side in the war, the colonists regarded them with suspicion.

Sensing the likelihood of trouble, each colony had militia. In 1643, Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut and New Haven (then a separate colony) formed the United Colonies of New England to provide mutual protection and coordinate growth, including land sales. Non-Puritan Rhode Island declined to join the United Colonies, which John Quincy Adams later called “the model and prototype of the North American Confederacy of 1774.”

The death of Bradford in 1657 and Massasoit a few years later signaled the passing of the original generation of Pilgrims. Their children and grandchildren could not appreciate the hard-won harmony of the past 40-plus years. Nor could the tide of new, mostly Puritan immigrants who sailed to New England from Europe during the Great Migration of 1630–1640, according to Schultz and Tougias. For them, America presented the chance at a new life and a New World to be tamed.

The Spark

Massasoit’s oldest son Alexander succeeded his father as sachem in 1662. (Originally named Wamsutta, Alexander changed his name soon after becoming sachem and also changed his younger brother Metacom’s name to Philip.) Alexander was more ambitious and less amicable toward the colonists than his father, and trouble soon arose.

When rumors circulated in July 1662 that Alexander was plotting an attack, Plymouth’s General Court had him forcibly brought in for questioning. He denied the charges and was permitted to leave but fell ill before departing. His condition worsened en route, and he died before reaching home.

Not surprisingly, Philip and the other Pokanoket suspected the whites had poisoned him. Modern researchers surmise Alexander may have had appendicitis. An English doctor had treated Alexander with a powerful “working physic,” which was basically a purgative that would have worsened his condition and possibly contributed to his death.

Philip became sachem at the young age of 24. Leadership depended on a sachem’s ability to protect and provide for his people, and to guide and govern them wisely. His brother’s untimely death, deteriorating relations with the colonists and the struggle to survive presented significant challenges to the new chief.

Like Alexander, Philip was soon rumored to be plotting against the English. In 1667, he was accused of conspiring with the French and Dutch to attack the colony, a charge he denied. In 1671, he was again rumored to be stirring up war.

He was brought before the colony’s authorities at Taunton and prodded into signing what was called the Taunton Agreement. In the document, he confessed to planning an assault and agreed to surrender a large number of weapons. Though Philip had little choice but to sign, some of his people regarded his capitulation as weakness, shaking their confidence in him.

A cold war prevailed over the next four years as relations with the colonists deteriorated and tensions mounted within the tribe. “The English were afraid and Philip was afraid, and both increased in arms,” according to a contemporary report cited by Schultz and Tougias. The final break came when three Pokanoket were accused of killing John Sassamon, a Praying Indian with close ties to the colonists who also had served as an adviser to both Alexander and Philip.

But Philip had cut his ties with Sassamon in late 1674. In January 1675, Sassamon warned Plymouth Governor Josiah Winslow that war with the Wampanoag was imminent. A few days later, Sassamon was found dead in an ice-covered pond.

What at first looked like an accidental death became a murder case when another Praying Indian asserted he had seen three Pokanoket kill Sassamon. The trio included an aide to Philip named Tobias and Tobias’ son, Wampapaquan. The colonists believed the accusation and arrested all three.

Put on trial at Plymouth, the accused vehemently denied the charges. But the jury of 12 whites and as many as four American Indians convicted them and sentenced them to hang.

At the execution, Tobias and the other Pokanoket were hanged, but the rope around Wampapaquan’s neck broke. In such a case, tradition called for freeing the accused. But the Puritan authorities questioned the undoubtedly shaken young man, who told them that his father and their friend had committed the murder. Perhaps he hoped to go free; instead he was confined, and
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The Conflagration

King Philip’s War started on June 20, 1675, when a group of warriors left their home on Mount Hope Peninsula (near today’s Warren, R.I.), and crossed the Kickamuit River to raid farms at Swansea, a hamlet in Plymouth Colony. In response, Plymouth’s Gov. Winslow called up militia to protect the colony.

Raiding continued, but without casualties. The Pokanoket believed they could win only if the English drew first blood. And on June 23, a Swansea resident shot and killed a Pokanoket raider. The next day, the Pokanoket retaliated, killing several English settlers. Reconciliation was now out of the question.

The hunt for Philip intensified, but he escaped from the peninsula and headed eastward, picking up allies among the Pocasset tribe. He then looped north and west to find safety among his allies, the Nipmuc, in central Massachusetts, where Massasoit had lived out the last years of his life.

Though the war was named for him, Philip did not participate in many of the subsequent attacks on colonists. Chased out of Rhode Island, he and his band spent months dodging attempts to capture or kill him.

These included attacks by American Indian foes. For example, Philip went as far west as Schaghticoke, N.Y., northeast of Albany, hoping to recruit the Mahican (also called Mohican) tribe to his cause. But while he was there, a war party of Mohawks, who were Colonial allies, attacked and almost wiped out his group.

Behind Philip, meanwhile, fighting spread swiftly. At the time, the colonists suspected there was a unified plan or even an American Indian confederacy behind the war. There wasn’t, and even within the Wampanoag there were groups who did not support Philip and stayed loyal to the English.

Hoping to avert wide war, authorities in Plymouth, Boston and Rhode Island attempted to persuade leaders of the various American Indian bands either to side with the colonists or to remain neutral if fighting broke out.

Tragically, the colonists’ attempts to coerce other tribes such as the Nipmuc and Narragansett into an alliance backfired. The colonists quickly developed deep suspicions about their former neighbors. These suspicions led to numerous instances of mistreatment as well as bloody attacks on friendly or neutral tribes that forced some of those tribes into the enemy camp.

For example, Massachusetts Bay desperately wanted to cement an alliance with the Narragansett, who were numerically the largest and most powerful tribe in the immediate area. The colonists tried to force the tribe to sign a treaty of loyalty, but the Narragansett refused. Besides angering the tribe, the effort also upset Connecticut and Rhode Island residents, who would be major targets if the Narragansett went to war, according to Schultz and Tougias.

In November, the United Colonies voted to send a force of about 1,000 men to try to force the Narragansett to comply. On December 19, 1675, in bitterly cold weather near South Kingston, R.I., the Colonial troops came upon a large contingent of Narragansett in a fortified town near a swamp. In what was called the Great Swamp Fight, an estimated 600 Narragansett warriors were killed.

Though the colonists regarded it as a victory, the battle finally pushed the Narragansett into joining the war. The suffering caused by the weather and inadequate supplies also debilitated the Colonial army and put it out of action until spring of 1676.

Embers and Ashes

Meanwhile fighting had spread into Massachusetts Bay, the Connecticut River Valley and Maine, which was
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food stores and supplies,” Schultz and Tougias write. “This involved capturing or destroying food stores and harassing the natives at their traditional fishing locations.”

In the spring of 1676, both sides realized the colonists were winning. Besides being hungry and sick, the warring tribes began to lose leaders as they succumbed to illness or were captured or died in battle. By early summer, warriors started to surrender, driven by hunger, sickness and disillusionment with their leaders.

Meanwhile, Philip grew increasingly isolated from his former allies. With his people starving and rebellious, he led them back home to Mount Hope, thinking they might be able to find more sustenance there.

Learning that the Wampanoag sachem had returned, a mixed force of white troops and American Indian warriors landed on the peninsula and began hunting Philip. They narrowly missed him twice in early August, though they did capture Philip’s wife and 9-year-old son, both of whom were sold into slavery.

Finally, on August 11, one of Philip’s men named Alderman—who may have had a grudge against his leader—offered to lead the army to Philip’s hiding place. The next day, they surprised Philip and his band, and Alderman shot Philip.

In the grisly aftermath, the victorious warriors were allowed to decapitate Philip and draw and quarter his body. Philip’s head was taken back to Plymouth, where it would be stuck on a pole and stand for 20 years as a macabre reminder of the Wampanoag rebellion.

Philip’s death did not end the fighting. Two weeks later, the colonists captured Philip’s aged war leader, Anawan. This effectively ended the major fighting in southeastern New England, though mop-up operations continued through the fall and early winter. To the north, war with the Abenaki continued into 1677 in Maine.

Glorious Revolution?

The war’s cost horrified contemporaries. Casualty estimates vary, but at least 800 of the 52,000 colonists living in New England died, while 3,000 or more American Indians perished out of an estimated population of 20,000.

The death toll doesn’t take into account the wounded nor the long-term human cost of privation and displacement among the warring Algonquin-speaking tribes. To rid themselves of prisoners and recoup some of the cost of the war, the colonists shipped hundreds of men, women and children away into slavery in the Caribbean.

But plantation owners there refused to buy slaves who already had a history of revolt. It’s unclear what happened to all the slaves, Philbrick notes grimly, but one slave ship captain had to sail to Africa before he could finally sell his human cargo.

Some New England tribes were almost wiped out, while others lost their homes and became refugees. Some were adopted into other tribes. Others were resettled by the colonists onto reservations or into towns where they were unable to continue their traditional ways of life. Much American Indian culture simply vanished in the years to come, though the Wampanoag managed to preserve theirs at Gay Head and Mashpee.

New England’s own culture suffered a significant setback, in the form of increased royal attention and oversight. For most of their history, New Englanders had enjoyed considerable autonomy in local affairs. But the Crown was aware that the colonists flouted British laws, especially mercantile rules. The Yankees’ attitude seemed to be that they would obey, but only if it accommodated their purposes.

During King Philip’s War, the British press had inflamed public opinion against the Colonial authorities. While extolling the bravery of the militias, the press railed about the “petty Puritan corporate functionaries [who] had stolen native land, botched Colonial defense and refused aid from imperial possessions lest it compromise their own independence,” according to Stephen Saunders Webb in 1676: The End of American Independence (Syracuse University Press, 1995).

In early 1676, the Crown dispatched Edward Randolph, a Colonial administrator, to visit the Colonies and report on conditions there. Randolph’s scathing report called for an immediate end to the Colonies’ autonomy and far stricter oversight by London.

It took eight more years and another damning report by Randolph, but the Crown finally acted. On October 23, 1684, the High Court of Chancery in England repealed the Charter of Massachusetts, thus dismantling the United Colonies. Instead, the court reorganized the Colonies into the Dominion of New England, which was overseen by New York’s Royal Governor Edmund Andros—in effect turning New England into a royal province.

The dominion lasted only five years, which were filled with friction over taxation, the limits of authority of town meetings, the handling of land titles and other governance matters.

Andros was kicked out of office in the wake of the Glorious Revolution of 1689 that replaced King James II with William of Orange. Massachusetts received a new charter in 1692, which continued to limit Colonial autonomy, replaced locally elected governors with royal appointees, and expanded London’s control of trade and commerce.

Though the crackdown would transform New England life and, in important ways, bring them closer to England than ever before, the colonists never completely forgot the lost idyll of autonomy. Throughout the next century, that memory informed their resistance to royal control and eventually would ignite another, unforgotten war.

Bill Hudgins examined the Creek War for the November/December 2013 issue.
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