The Computer In Social Studies: Teaching The Seven Years War

A Monograph

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April 1986

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INTRODUCTION

"Teaching the Seven Years War" is a monograph advocating the use of the computer to provide the gifted student with an opportunity for independent study. Current convention has designated this procedure as Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) and Computer Managed Instruction (CMI). The thrust toward increased use of computers in the classroom finds itself in a paradox. Computers are well recognized as a logical and supposedly useful aid in academic practice, yet cybernetics are considered forbidding and generally avoided by the contemporary pedagogue. In fact, save for "computer courses", computers are seldom used in my school board and practically never in the Social Studies, despite the fact that we have had a computer centre since 1982 and, in 1984 a second centre housing IBM PC's.

"Teaching" means two phases - first, the preparation of an instructional programme and then utilizing a tutorial method, if required, to guide students while they are engaged in the project. Correction of papers or essays and grading also remains the particular realm of the educator. Consequently, the monograph title now reads "Teaching the Seven Years War to Grade Ten Canadian History Students Using CAI's". The CAI will direct and test students in their study and a substantial part of the knowledge gained will be through "independent study", a once

popular method which has now fallen into disuse as North American pedagogues struggle with the real blight on modern education - a rising functional illiteracy[1].

As the independent study will be launched by means of a CMI

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[1] Functional illiteracy in North American schools has been recognized as a serious problem worthy of the highest level of response. The Coleman Report of the 60's emphasized democratization and accessibility. A general revamping of curriculum occurred in schools of both the US and Canada. The success of the jeune ecole can be judged by the reaction of governments and departments of education across North America after a decade of educational change and subsequent results. Confidence has been shattered; a situation of near crisis proportions was identified by the Reagan government. The official American government evaluation of the status quo strongly advocated "a return to the basics" and was a conservative antithesis to the Coleman Report. To dramatically underline the seriousness of the problem, the title chosen was: "A Nation At Risk".

Quebec hosted a series of province wide "Estates General On The Quality Of Education" in 1986 which featured conferences attended by representatives of all levels of educational society which included students, parents, teachers, administrators, and commissioners in an attempt to "re-establish the equilibrium".

In a series of articles entitled "The American High School and University: What Went Wrong In America" Burton R.Clark wrote

> "High schools are confused and irresolute about their programs and standards - as flattening the hopes of the best teachers, sapping the energies of nearly everyone involved ... according to the reports (US Task Force Research Studies 1983-84), US high schools neither inspire students nor educate them well."

See: N.C.E.E., A Nation At Risk: The Imperative For Educational Reforms (US Govt Printing Office, Washington, April 1983)
J.S.Coleman et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (US Office of Education, Washington, 1966)
A.Baby et al., Estates General On The Quality of Education (Estates General Committee, Quebec, 1985)
Burton R.Clark, The High School and University: What Went Wrong In America, Part I and Part II (The Phi Delta Kappan Vol. 66, #6&7, February and March, 1985), p.472

programme, the difference between the two methods may be helpful to define :

Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) refers to the use of computers as aids in classroom instruction. CAI is a system of individualized instruction but uses a programme presented by a computer as the learning medium. There are four major types of CAI systems : drill and practice, tutorial, dialogue, and testing.

Computer Managed Instruction (CMI), instead of teaching students directly, oversees their instruction and directs them elsewhere for the actual learning experience.

Actual time alloted for this module will not exceed two weeks. Trials with Grade 10 students confirmed that ten school days will be sufficient. The components include the following :

a. initial briefing
b. demonstration lecture on computer use by the teacher
c. independent student work (3-4 periods including instructions and testing)
d. independent study and writing phase (15 hours)

At the time of this writing, the author's experience indicates that while "Alternate Learning Styles" systems are much in vogue, the "gifted" student is ignored in Social Studies.

Programmes for the "talented" stress writing skills and recruit students with the highest marks[2].

Gifted programmes, when generally applied, tend to signify more work rather than more creativity. There is a dichotomy between the philosophy of teaching the "gifted" as propounded in Educational Faculties and the real high school where the final practitioner is usually an average teacher. It must be recognized that only the clever or gifted themselves can truly inspire the above average or bright student[3].

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[2] My high school has identified nearly 100 gifted students out of a population of 950. Most pedagogues argue truly gifted children will account for about 3% of a school. However, the noted proponent of educational techniques for the gifted, Joseph Ranzulli suggests that gifted students comprise a higher percentage of schools since "IQ is not a valid rating" and identifies 2 types of giftedness - school house and creative / productive. He argues that by sticking to the three to five percent ratio, historically we would have eliminated "non-gifted" gentlemen like Cervantes, Copernicus, Rembrandt, Luther, Lincoln, Bach, Swift, and Locke. See:
Joseph Ranzulli, Myth: The Gifted Constitute 3-5% of the Population (The Gifted Child Quarterly, Vol. 26 #1, Winter, 1982), p. 11

A professor from the University of Quebec in Montreal, Francoys Gagne, challenges Ranzulli's and Cohn's models for selecting gifted and proposes a third which would include a higher percentage of the population. Her model begins with a series of "ability domains" (intelligence, creative, socio-emotional, sensor motor) which subdivide into specific skills. These are then fused by a "Catalyst" (environment, personality, and motivation) which then produces a child "talented in specific fields". See:
Francoys Gagne, Giftedness and Talent: Re-Examining A Re-Examination of Definitions (Gifted Child Quarterly, Vol.29 #3, Summer, 1985), p. 30

[3] "60% of the classroom teachers now employed will remain in those positions for the next 10 years. These comprise the targeted group for in-service education and graduate programmes." "Gifted children need ... particular skills in order to

Advanced learning programmes must offer more depth and meaning rather than more accumulation of data. Their aim ought to be to teach greater understanding through academic exploration rather than, as is often the case, doubling the assignments and projects.

Further, History programmes ought to consider the "enthusiastic but average" student who gets mediocre general grades and will never be considered "gifted" but often loves History and does well in it, despite the fact that he has failed a science, math, or second language. Deprived of the advanced programmes, he floats along in "regular streams" learning simple statistics and facts by the carload. He is taught by a dedicated yet frustrated teacher who has to teach toward the June exam and aims his lectures, drills, and notes at the academic mean of his class.

Both teachers and students are victims. Both could profit and be revitalized, if given the opportunity to use Computer

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capitalize on the many talents they possess. This fact calls for exceptionally capable teachers who have the knowledge and understanding required." See:
Yvonne Waiskin, Teacher Training For Educating The Gifted (The Roeper Review, February, 1985), p. 9
Experienced educators agree that ideally, gifted teachers ought to teach gifted students, however, the alternative solution proposed is in-service courses to equip the average teacher to deal with the gifted classroom. See:
W.E.Bishop, Characteristics of Teachers Judged Successful By Intellectually Gifted, High Achieving High School Students (Doctoral Disertation, Kent State University, 1966)
Myrliss Hershey, Toward A Theory Of Teacher Education For The Gifted And Talented (The Roeper Review, September, 1983), p. 12

Assisted or Managed Instruction. Computers offer challenge and save time. They can free pedagogues to do more "real teaching" in the classroom. "Real teaching" is being able to circulate, oversee, and advise during an assignment. Teachers should have the time to sit beside a struggling student and guide him through a difficult passage or in the composition of a grammatically correct paragraph. This is still part of teaching History.

Teaching demands inter-personal contact, the one-on-one encounter, and discussion. This means work and time. It means someone else must take care of the "gifted" group, no matter how small, and continue to challenge and motivate to greater depth. The computer can assist in this endeavour. Hence, this Monograph.

There are three important necessary requirements before the pedagogue can competently use this monograph :

a. know how to operate the computer
b. be familiar with the ATARI system
c. be computer literate

The first, often a bugbear and cause of frustration to today's teacher requires no more skill than is necessary to operate a VCR or tape recorder. By operate is meant to check for BASIC cartridge, turn on the monitor, disk drive, and computer and to load in the programme itself. Teacher and student will

require less than forty minutes of instruction and practice to master this.

The ATARI system is used simply because it is the one adopted by my school four years ago. The elementary and high schools have from two to sixteen in their respective computer centres. As of this writing, the "1st generation" is being augmented by new IBM PC machines.

The ATARI has excellent graphics, good sound, and all the RAM, ROM, and speed a high school student or teacher could possibly demand. It is also less expensive. However, assuming it is not available in a particular school, the programmes accompanying this monograph can easily be modified to suit the installed system since they are written in ATARI BASIC which is rather similar to other BASIC dialects. It must be stressed that anyone familiar with BASIC should have no problems converting this module to suit their requirements.

Lastly, this monograph argues for the acquisition of competence in <u>the</u> machine of the cybernetic revolution. By this is meant learning BASIC programming and at the extreme minimum, having enough familiarity to be a competent "user". Use of computers must not become the province of Mathematics and Science Departments. They are simply an educational aide - no different in their impact than blackboards replacing wax tablets,

typewriters easing aside scribes, or tape recorders and films entering the postwar classroom. The Social Studies pedagogue must not shrug and accept that there are few , if any, decent programmes for his history course; to wait for an American or European company to come up with usable software is to surrender initiative and control of the classroom. The cybernetic age is upon us - the next logical duty of the intelligent teacher is to accept reality and learn to converse in techniques of his time. Educational creativity need not stop with stencils or overheads; write the programme you require and take the path of greatest decision to meet your needs rather than accept the path of least resistance.

The Monograph is divided into two sections:

Section One will present the following discussion:

Chapter 1 discusses the methodology with an explanation of the CAI and CMI: why use computers and what is computer literacy.

Chapter 2 reviews the importance of the Seven Years War as compared to other topics in Canadian History.

Chapter 3 is entitled **What the teacher should know** and is a pot-pourri of historical data and social history dealing with Eighteenth Century warfare. It includes accounts of the philosophy of war, the conduct of land and naval battles, sieges, the period's technology and a brief insight into the life of the soldier of the Neo-Classical age of warfare.

Chapter 4 contains written instructions for the use of the CAI and CMI in the classroom.

Chapter 5 is a **Student Study Module** designed as a precis of the Seven Years War and prepares students for Test 2, found in Annex B.

Section Two carries the **three Appendices:**

Appendix A comprises of three disks containing **Tests 1,2 and** the CMI.

Appendix B consists of the final print-out of the programmes written to create both the CAI and CMI.

Appendix C holds the supporting **maps** and illustrations that are referred to in the Student Module.

CHAPTER 1

Why Computers? Literacy and the Teacher

The veteran teacher can easily identify with the Greek legend of Sisyphus, condemned to push a boulder to the top of a hill in Hades only to have it slip through his clutches and roll back down just before he reached the crest. A familiar curricular rock awaits the pedagogue each September as he ages under the repetitive labours both he and his flock will experience. This is the reality of didactic teaching which is bound to be Sisyphus-like. Today's educator wonders if there is not a better way, and there is.

Intelligent human beings naturally tend to lose enthusiasm for repetitive monotonous tasks. It becomes more difficult each year to be eager about the same course and radiate inspiring conviction. High school, despite attempts to democratize opportunity of education and the introduction of the comprehensive high school[4] in the late 60's and early 70's, is neither a heuristic or philetic experience for the teacher or

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[4] The attempts at the educational levee en masse have proven considerably less than the well meaning socialist innovators hoped for: "The comprehensive high school must operate on a wide variety of fronts and attempt to please all the people all the time ... the advantages are largely lost ... instead educational purpose has been dulled and communities that share common interests (academics) have been dispersed ... No wonder that upper secondary education in the US is in serious trouble." "A bias against excellence in preparing students for higher education ... "
Burton R.Clark, #6, p. 391; #7, p. 472

student. It is simply, basically, and consistently didactic: the transmission of information[5]. It requires competent communication and flexibility skills when dealing with varying levels of student ability. Didactic teaching is often attacked as impersonal and insensitive; biased to race or sex, and not requiring inter-personal reaction or exchange[6].

While didactic education may be held in contempt by some educational theorists, the fact remains that after leaving the modern theories of faculties of education, the working teacher settles on this dimension of learning. Even if the pedagogue opts for more creative or philetic forms of teaching, the reality is

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[5] Harry Broudy, past president of the Philosophy of Education Society and professor emeritus at the University of Illinois, has suggested teaching has three dimensions: "didactics", "heuristics", "philetics".

Didactics is concerned with the transmission and learning of information. Heuristics aim at discovery and creativity; the focus is upon how knowledge comes to be and how the student and teacher become part of the process that produces it: example, the University seminar. Philetics deals with the emotional sides of the students. The teacher acts as an advisor, counsellor, and even confessor. The topics of teaching are the coming to grips with oneself, where one fits into the world, and what one has to offer.

"Broudy holds that all three dimensions are present in all teaching ... didactic teaching produces the most tangible results."

Jerome Popp, The Teachers Computers Will Replace (The Educational Computer, July-August, 1983), p. 24

[6] Popp, p. 25

Roeper Review, Teachers of the Gifted: Students' Perspective, (September 1983), p. 14

that didactics determine how his class, indeed his school, is evaluated[7].

Administrators and employers judge school by their ability to handle didactics. Didactic teaching produces the most tangible results. Experimental methods of inquiry are of less concern to parents, employers, and in fact, the students themselves. This is because "modern" systems are neither modern nor effective[8]. They may make reputations and careers for educators but they tend to experiment with, rather than educate, children. While "new approaches" are good doctoral thesis material, they are often no more than creative methods of avoiding "bread and butter" learning.

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[7] The April 2, 1986 issue of the Montreal Gazette reported the results of the Quebec Department of Education's evaluation of the top 70 school commissions in the province. The only criterion cited was the passing average based on June Ministerial results.

[8] In a recent Gallup Poll American teachers rated their contribution to society as highest of 12 possible professions, but felt their professional status is the lowest of all. 59% were against recommending teaching as a profession to their children, 68% felt their biggest concern was the teaching of correct speech and writing.
Alec Gallup, Gallup Poll of Teacher Attitudes To Public Schools (The Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 66, #5, Jan. 1985), p. 323
A Canadian survey showed 36% of Canadians feel "schools have worsened"; 42% could not offer a single example of an area in which schools were "doing a particularly good job". The highest rating (9.4%) went to sports! 67% of Canadians felt high schools were "not hard enough".
G.G.Malcolm MacLeod, Voices From The Attic: Canadian Public Opinion On Education (C.E.A. survey, Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 66, #5, Jan. 1985)

The inescapable truth is that education is hard work and no amount of window dressing can hide this for long. The alleged present "crisis in literacy" is the end result of sincere and democratic experimentation of the past decade[9].

The world of business recognizes this. It is more impressed with students who leave school drilled in grammar and mathematics than with progressive products sensitized by simulations, new math, creative writing workshops, or indoor/outdoor team teaching programmes[10].

Didactics carry their own baggage: repetitive instruction, drills, and objective testing. The difficulties are obvious - both teacher and student become weary and bored. A dramatic and impressive performance by a teacher is possible two or three

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[9] Defining Literacy In North American Schools (Journal of Curriculum Studies, Vol. 15 #4, 1983), p. 373
Burton, p. 397
Gallup, p. 324
N.E.C.C., Nation At Risk, throughout

[10] Alfred Bork suggests a possible "Dismal Future" for North American high schools wherein he lists a number of deteriorating situations. Of interest are the predicted possibilities that the business world may take as a thermadorian reaction to the crisis in education.

These include "a market place that has lost confidence in education ... large corporations will see failure as invitation to participate in the educational mandate and establish their own schools."

Further, Bork fears large American corporations will continue to use large numbers of third world workers and therefore will show minimum concern about the declining quality of education in North America.

Alfred Bork, Computers In Education Today - Some Possible Futures (The Phi Delta Kappan, Vol.66, #4, December 1984), p. 240

times a day, but not every day. Personal counselling or the seminar approach requires skill and patience as well as small groups. Yet class sizes grow larger. Diverse teaching methods, such as team teaching, audio-visual presentations, and simulations, have largely fallen by the wayside. The demands for quality education have not lessened; new programmes are being introduced by the government; higher passing standards are set. Sisyphus's rock grows heavier.

Whether used as CMIs or CAIs, the advantages of computers in didactic teaching are too important to ignore. Computers are untiring, constantly responsive, and ever patient workers. They can invigorate teacher and student[11].

The advantages bear notation and review: computers are controlled and predictable; computers do not tire or become demoralized; the student controls the pace of his education in that the computer never balks at repetition or explanation; computers make learning seem more personal given that the simplest programme can be written to deal one on one with each student and react to their abilities; lastly, computers do not

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[11] Most educational articles dealing with computers in the Social Studies centre on two aspects: simulations and didactics. The most common reference is the "test bank of history questions" that enables the Social Studies teacher to handle didactic teaching with greater ease. See:
T.D.Weible and J.MacMahon, Using Micro-Computers In The Social Studies (The Social Studies, May-June, 1982), p. 110
Delbert A. Jurden, Computers For Clio? Historian Asks (The Community and Junior College Journal, May 1983)

compete with the student and when properly used, they are his ally[12].

Unlike pedagogy, computers benefit from multi-million dollar advertising that extols their virtues from Star Wars satellites to video games and toys. Microcomputers are designed with the consumer in mind; the industry term for this is "user friendly". Today's student enters a computer classroom with considerably less suspicion than his teacher[13] and is generally enthusiastic about the prospect of participation in this type of education.

Most students, given a reasonable programme, will react with interest. The computer is currently being used as a powerful recruiting "carrot" by many high schools offering comprehensive programmes for the academically weak as well as the gifted

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[12] Popp, p. 25
Christine Doerr, Microcomputers and the 3 R's, A Guide For Teachers (Hayden Book Co., Inc., New Jersey, 1979), p. 121

[13] Unfortunately today's teachers are concerned about the threat to their status posed by the computer and are personally often ill at ease with cybernetics. This is understandable considering computer proponents often appear to disagree on the future impact of the computer in school.

Thomas Dwyer, one of the veterans in educational computer usage, writes: "... computers in education are revolutionary ... they make this possible by supporting person to person educational influence, not by replacing it." Doerr, p. 12

Compare this with "I suppose the word 'assisted' in CAIs was used to relieve the threat that the computer posed to teachers." Popp, p. 24

Considering the status quo of education and cybernetics, there appears to be no serious threat to the human factor in the foreseeable future.

student[14]. Computers are an increasingly important part of education. Clearly the preferred aim is to make the computer a common integer of educational "basics", demystify it for senior teachers, and maximize accessibility.

Advantages are considerable. Programmes, unlike teachers, can be readily exchanged among classrooms, schools, and commissions. They travel well and inexpensively. They arrive in a constant state of academic readiness. The best educational techniques need not be limited to the potential skills of the teacher in the classroom but can be shared for the greater benefit of all. Computer assisted or managed instruction can put wheels under Sisyphus's didactic rock.

Two of this paper's basic assumptions are that computers belong in the Social Studies classroom and secondly, modern pedagogues must be computer literate.

There has been much published with regard to definitions of

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[14] Bork notes that the number of computers used in schools has roughly doubled each year. Problems stem from low availability of good software and "software failures". While he predicts a rosy future for computers, he also notes a continuing shortage in math and science teachers in North America. Bork, p. 240

These are generally the people who oversee computer education. Further, programmes currently written are didactic and aimed at the gifted or special education student. What is required is software for the mainstream student.

computer literacy. Dr. D.Spencer, the internationally respected computer science consultant and educator, suggests :

> "Computer literacy refers to a knowledge of non-technical and low-technical aspects of the capabilities and limitations of computers, and of the social, vocational, and educational implications of computers."[15]

Most teachers raise eyebrows when told literacy includes learning a machine's "social and vocational" capabilities. Some proponents go as far as insisting literacy must include a history of computer development. The debate is generally balanced between two opposing philosophies: from the computer being akin to a clever typewriter and requiring as little respect, to the more zealous suggestions that computer literacy is, in fact, embracing a new "ism" of man's future. Given the current state of evolution in cybernetics, the truth is still very much the pedagogue's personal opinion based on experience. Spencer elaborates his definition by detailing:

> "To be computer literate one must be able to define, demonstrate, and/or discuss:
> how computers are used
> how computers do their work
> how computers are programmed
> how to use a computer
> how computers affect our society"[16]

A key word in the above is "demonstrate". At minimum, a teacher must be able to use the equipment. Personal computers are becoming as common to North American society as the automobile.

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[15] Donald D.Spencer, Introduction To Computers: Developing Computer Literacy (Charles E.Merrill Pub., Toronto, 1983), p. 395

[16] Ibid., p. 395

Perhaps there are many North Americans that cannot drive a car, but that inability is both unusual and disadvantageous. Basic access skills ought to be the norm for any teacher, yet they are still uncommon[17].

In order to make a case for computer literacy by all teachers, a review of the value of cybernetics in the classroom is in order. A first step would be to accept the obvious success of the cybernetic revolution and a very reasonable prediction that society will become increasingly dependent on the computer. Is it therefore unprofessional for today's pedagogue to lack the basic skills required for its use? Does the term "basic skills" require a literacy that will actually write simple programmes for classroom use, or is the ability to "plug in software" solely sufficient? The logical answer is that it is both professional and desirable for a modern teacher to be able to not only use software, but actually create software for his specific needs.

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[17] There has been a noticeable lessening in the enthusiasm expressed by teachers and administrators regarding literacy. This has come about because as long as literacy includes programming, teacher competence will be a time consuming and difficult process. Many educators have abandoned hopes of mastering programming and instead choose to re-define literacy to mean "being able to use software". This may well be the future of cybernetics in the high school; however, this paper still assumes "literacy" to include being able to use the language, i.e. programming. See: Spencer, throughout

The Lyons Township School Board in southern Illinois boasts "virtually all 3800 students and 275 teachers are computer literate". See: Dan Levine, In This System The Computer Future Is Now (American School Board Journal, March 1982), p. 27

Of particular value is the freedom to create custom made lessons, tests, or reviews. The literate teacher can augment any curriculum by tailoring specific periods, topics, or tests to meet the demands of his particular classroom. The computer is patient and untiring. It allows the students to set their own pace and instruction. Once a programme has been written it can quickly be adjusted, updated, or expanded as required. It saves time.

The Social Studies teacher should not limit himself to dwell on the periphery of "a science and math" tool. Computer Science is still in its infancy. Its direction can be manipulated and influenced by teachers who have the ability to utilize and constructively criticize a growing industry to ensure it includes their particular needs. This ought to include History. However, it will not be easy to temper and adjust this dimension of education without computer literacy.

Educational critics note an apparent pause in the cybernetic juggernaut's invasion of schools, indeed, of the market place. It is noted that the industry struggles with some serious problems: lack of standardization, availability and quality of software, annoyingly frequent and expensive changes, not to mention its own questionable business acumen[18]. Further, it is argued that

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[18] Consider that ATARI is a house divided as is Apple. Both companies have recently lost millions due to market changes, poor management, and unsuccessful prototypes. Texas Instrument was

educational computers are simply another technological adjunct, no more vital than overhead projectors, cassette tape recorders, VCRs, film projectors, Xerox copiers, or alcohol stencils. Computers were designed to combat vast numbers and they are at their best when serving thousands of customers. To many, the role of the personal computer in the classroom of the future is not clear.

While criticisms of the computer industry's past record are valid, it must also be appreciated that there has been considerable house clearing. The market has stabilized. Companies are making great strides toward compatibility and interchangeable hardware. Within a few years all computers will have reached the same common standardization found in typewriters. Furthermore, they will be faster, simpler to operate, visually superior, and most important, cheaper with each successive year.

Computers are relatively primitive machines and this paper does not advocate replacement of the teacher but rather suggests a complement to him. Computers, despite severe limitations when compared to man, are nevertheless light years in front of state of the art educational tools. They are as clever as the person who uses them. Their value is in direct ratio to the skill of the programmer. However, consider that even the most primitive

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forced out of the market. Wang is in serious trouble and the vaunted IBM hiccupped and cancelled its multimillion dollar PC Jr.

computer will be beyond the grasp of an illiterate teacher. In didactic education alone they are worth their weight in gold.

There is no valid argument for self denial. This paper does not propose all teachers become literate in machine language (complex assembler codes based on binary numbers) or the rather difficult Fortran. It advocates easily learned communication in Micro-Soft BASIC, Logo, or Pascal, to mention but a few. Further, it does not urge a complex curriculum be developed to totally replace classroom instruction. Augmentation, not eradication.

Once written, programmes can be quickly revised. They can be reproduced at the touch of a button. They require little storage space. They keep accurate accounts, test results, test questions, and simulations in neat and readily accessible formats. There is simply no contest when comparing existing educational technical aids when one considers interaction with a student. The ability of the computer to teach, drill, review, and test are totally beyond the scope of the blackboard, stencil, slide, or audio-visually taped lecture. Its ability to free the teacher for specialized personal teaching within his classroom is outstanding.

Combatting the unalterable influence and effect of computers by anchoring our values in conventional skills is advocating what educational researchers call "the John Henry effect".

> "Recall that John Henry was the man who put himself against the steel-driving machine. John Henry outworked the machine for a while but it eventually killed him. Today, we do not want to be didactic John Henrys. If we pit ourselves against the steel-driving computer, we will go, professionally, the way of John Henry.[19]

What about that favorite argument against literacy: "I cannot repair a car but I am a good driver; why should I learn to programme when I can drive software around?" One must remember that though there is an evergrowing reservoir of software, it is invariably produced by foreign commercial enterprises for regional goals which usually don't answer our own specific provincial needs.

It is not logical to wait patiently hoping someone somewhere will produce software that might be helpful in one's curriculum. Waiting for the Minnesota Consortium or IBM to manufacture programmes tailored to your school board's needs is unrealistic.

Computer literacy is not knowing how to repair a car, it is, in fact, having the skill to drive one. The non-literate teacher is reduced to waiting for the software bus. He is limited by bus routes, bus schedules, and variable efficiency. He is not maitre chez soi.

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[19] Popp, p. 35

This then is the aim of the proposal - to liberate the teacher from didactic chores. Cybernetics are not a fad; their wide ranging effects may change education more than we suspect. They offer hope and dignity to the teacher[20].

Computer literacy is definitely challenging but not beyond the ability of today's teacher. It does not require an involved and complex instructional programme. Consider the software that forms the core of this Monograph. It is neither sophisticated nor particularly advanced vis-a-vis state of the art accomplishments, yet it is effective.

The enclosed programmes were written after two undergraduate courses in BASIC programming. These courses involved approximately thirty-six hours of instruction. The software purposely omits decorative graphics and complicated techniques. The theme is: "If I can do it after only two courses, so can you."

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[20] Bork presents an alternate to his "Dismal Future" scenario when he describes his "Bright Future" option. This considers the present problems in education and the possible solutions that may be accomplished through national concern and availability of cybernetic tools. These include: national reform, large scale development of curricular materials, a return of mastery of learning - striving for 100% accuracy, and the taking over of many school activities by the home and library in light of the fact that computer learning can take place any time. The net results are "new roles and dignity for teachers". Bork, p. 241

In fact, basic CAI programmes can be written after only one introductory course in computer science. Given the effort required and juxtaposed against the valuable use this skill has in the classroom, is there any acceptable reason why today's teacher should not be computer literate?

The Social Studies must not be on the periphery of the cybernetic revolution. This dimension of teaching cannot be abandoned to the Science and Mathematics disciplines.

The only way to ensure that the requirements of History are considered and better served in the future is to learn the skill. Only then can we creatively criticize and temper with knowledgeable judgement. Successful negotiations can only be accomplished if we speak the same language.

CHAPTER 2

Background

The Armies Of The Seven Years War

Given the expectations of the Canadian History 41 syllabus in Quebec, the harried professional dare not allow more than two weeks to any historical period that could easily absorb ten months. The aim of this monograph is to offer a complement to the course outline. It will hopefully be an effective way of allowing the teacher to guide his charges toward learning and finally, creatively responding to intellectual challenge. It will utilize a system that is not only au courant but popular with students. Ultimately, it is designed to reduce the mystery and magic of computers for both teachers and students.

There are many wars in Canadian History that merit close attention and foster national pride in accomplishments both military and economic; however, it is the Seven Years War that carries a unique type of romance and drama. Symbolic of Neo-Classical Warfare, it was a war fought by commuting armies of Europeans that cared little for the issues and probably less for the land they attacked or defended for their kings.[21]

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[21] The armies of the Neo-Classical era were composed of a mixture of soldier types: well payed elites for royal guards; peasant volunteers; conscripts or pressed soldiers; foreigners who were pressed, rented, or recruited. Nationalist formations were not unusual. The French army boasted Irish (the Wild Geese) and Scottish emigre battalions. Russian and Austro Hungarian armies also reflected the multinational composition of Empires

It embraced all of North America as it then was known. It was a war whose strategies and grand sweep dwarfed the boldest thrusts of continental formations. It was conducted in the twilight of "gentlemanly warfare", by an established military society whose dress, etiquette, and tactics had not changed for nearly two centuries. This society would soon be pressed to evolve by the impertinence of American irregulars, the elan of the sans coulotte and finally, the military and political successes of the Napoleonic Era.

The military habits of the eighteenth century contrasted dramatically with the populist wars of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The levee on masse's extensive use of the citizen armies was a break from warfare as it had been practiced by European professionals for the past two centuries. Further, the realization that patriotic militia could, not only stand

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and soldiers were combinations of levies (example - "Hussar" from Hungarian "Huztsar" meaning twentieth, for by decree, every twentieth villager from the borderlands was required for the light cavalry), criminals, adventurers, or frustrated nationalists. The one common factor was professionalism which created an automat that would fight anywhere and according to order. For an excellent comparison of the mentality of the citizen soldier versus the professional infantryman of the 18th century see the following accounts of the Battle Of Valmy by:
J.F.C.Fuller, The Decisive Battles of the Western World Vol.II (Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1955), pp. 346-369
Joseph B.Mitchell, Sir Edward S.Creasy, Twenty Decisive Battles of the World (MacMillan & Co., New York, 1964), pp. 211-221
E.S.Creasy, The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World (A.L. Burt Publisher, New York, 1851), pp. 350-364
Theodore Ropp, War in the Modern World (Duke University Press, North Carolina, 1959), pp. 36-37
J.O.Lindsay, Editor, The New Cambridge Modern History Vol. VII (Cambridge University Press, 1963), pp. 175-176

before, but actually defeat the armies of kings[22], forever changed warfare. The political effects of the philosophe's teachings not only inspired the democratic armies of the late eighteenth century but had a pronounced effect on the battlefield. The great masses of troops, the appearance of large numbers of commanders from the bourgeoisie and the economic need for simple, easily produced uniforms forever ended the gentlemanly wars and the trappings and tactics they espoused.

Waterloo was the last great battle fought before the Enlightenment gave way to the Industrial Revolution, but the battles of the Seven Years War will be remembered as state of the art for the Neo-Classical Age. The Enlightenment's great captains had seemingly solved the equation of battle long before machines replaced muscle. The battles of the Seven Years War were masterpieces of conservative assurance that nothing would ever change; that war had evolved to its final state because the gun and musket had been perfected. Indeed in an age where technological changes can revolutionize economy and society within a decade, it is interesting to note that the weapons of the Seven Years War had remained unchanged for a century and were to continue virtually identical for another hundred years.

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[22] The Battle of Valmy (1792) is generally recognized as the end of the Neo-Classical Era. There the patriotism and enthusiasm of a citizen army defeated the Prussian Guards, emblematic of the professional soldiers of the King. "From this place forth commences a new era in the world's history..." Goethe. Fuller, p. 369. Creasy, p. 362-364

Cavalry was tactically subordinate and it was for the Infantry of the Line, properly drilled and disciplined, to carry on and decide the future of nations and the fortunes of kings. Since the long bow's deadly reign and the simple operations of the firelock had reduced chivalry to an ancillary role, the cavalry remained an adjunct to the infantry[23] and it was not to dominate until the blitzkrieg of the mid-twentieth century.

The Seven Years War in Canada is both our nemesis and historical treasure. It finally decided the fate of the North American Continent giving it a decidedly British flavour while at the same time temporarily putting aside the societies of French Canadians, Spaniards, Inuit, and Indian dwellers.

In Quebec, where its more decisive battles took place, it has become an embarrassment to some and a red flag to others. What has become a tourist attraction in Cape Breton and a

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[23] It is interesting to note that the longbow was unequalled in range, rate of fire, and penetration until the mid-nineteenth century. However, it required only 5 hours to train a musketeer as opposed to 5 years for a competent bowman. The indignity of being brought down by a wretched peasant with a few hours training with a firelock after spending one's life learning mounted combat was too much for the knighthood of Europe. See:
C.W.C.Oman, The Art of War in the Middle Ages (Great Seal Books, Ithaca, New York, 1953), pp. 116-125
T.Wise, Medieval Warfare (Hastings House Publishers, New York, 1976), pp. 90-94
Ropp, pp. 5-9,13,32
John Keegan, The Face of Battle (Jonathan Cape, London, 1976), pp. 93-97

footnote to George Washington in Virginia, is at once a central issue in the relationship of two cultures.

By the mid-eighteenth century Europe was changing. The system of limited warfare, characteristic of the age of Louis XIV, was breaking down before the ruthlessness of a new professionalism introduced by Frederick the Great[24]. He ran his army as a business, created a superbly trained force and soon plunged Europe into an era of conflict that saw every major power join in combat. This, of course, was the Seven Years War. Although political manoeuvres and the jealous rage of two queens and one royal mistress against the chauvinistic Frederick caused the European war to begin in 1756, North American warfare preceded continental struggles by one year when Braddock's British and American force invaded the wilderness of the Ohio

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[24] See:
Ropp, pp. 28-30
C.Duffy, The Army of Frederick the Great (Hippocrene Books, Inc., New York, 1973), pp. 13-23, 157-207
A.Seaton, Frederick the Great's Army (Osprey Publishers, Hampshire, UK, 1973), pp. 3-7,32
T.N.Dupuy, The Military Life of Frederick the Great of Prussia (Franklin Watts, Inc., New York, 1969), throughout

River Valley[25]. The European army was slaughtered by French irregulars and Indians.

The savageness of these contests appear to mock the dress and style of the armies that fought them. Indeed, so pretentious was the dress of the continental armies that their struggles were often referred to as "The Lace Wars"[26]. Beside these epic struggles, the skirmishes of the North American frontier seemed vulgar and barbaric. The conflicts of the North American forests

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[25] An expedition led by Ciloron de Blainville formally claimed the Ohio Valley in 1759. French denial of lands required for expansion and a strangle-hold of the Ohio fur trade created a vehement protest by the landed gentry of Virginia who eventually lobbied the British government into an adventure along the Monongahela River. See:
Francis Parkman, Montcalm and Wolfe (Penguin Books, Markham, 1984), pp. 110-136
Rupert Furneaux, The Seven Years War (Hart Davis MacGibbon, London, 1973), pp. 18-25
G.Donaldson, Battle For a Continent (Doubleday Canada Ltd., Toronto, 1973), pp. 38-41
G.F.G.Stanley, New France, The Last Phase (McClelland & Stewart Ltd., Toronto, 1968), pp. 37-44, 91-100

[26] 18th century uniforms actually were no more than standardized reflections of current popular civilian dress, which at the time emphasized lace, open great coats, waistcoats, tricornered beaver hats, and powdered wigs. The officers and soldiers of the period wore the equivalent of three piece business suits, designer jeans, or the L.L.Bean Yuppie look. The best explanation of the philosophy of military fashion is the brief but brilliant work by James Laver, British Military Uniforms (Penguin Books, London, 1948), pp. 5-26. The accepted authorities are Liliane et Fred Funcken, L'Uniforme et les Armes Soldats de la Guerre en Dentelle, 2 Volumes (Casterman, Paris, 1975). See also the Osprey: Men at Arms Series, in particular, R.Mayo, Wolfe's Army (Osprey, 1974) and Martin Windrow, Montcalm's Army (Osprey, 1973), both printed by Jarrold & Sons. Finally, a simple but effective review of soldiers' uniforms in the Seven Years War is by R.J.Andrews, Soldier at Quebec: 1759 (Ginn & Co., Toronto, 1970)

appeared confused chaotic riots; the battles were mere ripples in the global quest for mercantilistic control.

At the command of ministers of state, the armies of Europe crossed the North Atlantic and deployed along the coast of Isle Royale and the forests of the St. Lawrence to contest these strange lands. They fought each other with brutal determination over land they did not understand or love, for kings they knew only by reputation, sharing but a common legacy of battle and the distance from their fatherland. They were less than the centurions of Marcus Aurelius guarding the Danube from the barbarian tribes determined to end Rome's glory. The colonial battalions found themselves pawns in economic matches. The professionalism they exhibited is at best compared to the dogged business-like attitude to war found in foreign legions or the near forgotten garrisons of England's Victorian Khyber Frontier. This type of professionalism appeared lost in the jungles of Viet-Nam but was re-established in the Falklands Campaign. It perhaps remains much the same for the soldiers of the Red Army stationed in Afghanistan.

The Lace Wars witnessed the standardization of dress; distinctive uniforms in National colours began to dominate the battlefield[27]. Green for Russia, blue for the Prussians, white

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[27] Laver claims uniforms are less than 200 years old and are "appurtenances of King's bodyguards and the professional armies that developed from them...the general colour of national

for the Austrians and French, and scarlet for the British Line Infantry, who by the middle of the eighteenth century were known locally as lobsters. Competition in military vogue often produced strange and probably uncomfortable battle dress, which again was hopelessly out of place beside the crude buckskins of the warriors of the North American forests.

The uniform of the eighteenth century army sacrificed comfort for style. Its aim was to make the wearer attractive to the opposite sex in order to aid in recruiting. It attempted a menacing style by clothing the soldier in trappings that made him look taller, broader, and threatening. It served both to frighten the enemy and raise morale. This was not mere frivolity since battalion ranks had to be continuously filled with recruits and thus attractive uniforms were important.

However, smart uniforms were not enough. Desertion rates were high and recruits were few[28]. The general practice was to dupe or force men to join the colours. Recruiting teams were initially used and if a man was willing to join, his contract

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uniforms (red for Britain, white for Austria,etc.) seems to be determined by accidents of history." Laver, pp.24-25.

[28] The quality of life had much to do with the high turnover and low replacement. The rank and file was poorly paid, fed, and cared for if ill. Until the First World War, the highest casualties sustained by European armies were not from battle but from disease. See:
Ropp, pp. 29, 36-42
New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 175-182
Duffy, pp. 138-140

with the king was sealed by the acceptance of a sum of money, known as a bounty. The infamous press gang, so often used by the Navy, was often employed by the Army to gain recruits. Most countries ran a military slave trade[29]. Many a late reveller or unwary pedestrian woke to find himself a serviceman.

Having joined the colours, by choice or press gang, the recruit was quickly dressed in a distinct uniform. The final aim, of course, was to regimentalize and standardize the appearance. It succeeded marvelously, for with the exception of colour, most of the armies of the Seven Years War ended up looking much the same.

Many soldiers joined as mercenaries but rates of pay were unbelievably low. A private soldier received about seven cents a day and on top of that, deductions were taken for kit, weapon, and even musket balls[30]. Out of the balance the soldier was expected to pay for his food and to supply himself with shoes. Naturally, the Army often supplemented this allowance by stealing. Their sole diversion was drink; alcoholism was a common ailment, particularly in the Navy.

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[29] See:
Ropp, p. 37
Duffy, pp. 54-69
New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 175, 179-180

[30] Edward P.Hamilton, The French Army in America (Museum Restoration Service, Ottawa, 1967), pp. 13-14
Ropp, p. 137
Andrews, p. 10

By contrast, the gentleman officers lived worlds apart. Soldiering became the standard trade of the lower nobility, one of the few compatible with an ancient code of honour so cruelly savaged by long bows and gun powder of common infantry. The rise of peasant foot was a Renaissance phenonema to which the arme blanche of chivalry found itself powerless to reply[31]. Yet elan died hard. Officers considered themselves charismatic leaders, born to rule. Indeed, the very object of the king's army's training was to make the men more afraid of their officers than the enemy.

Before battle, weeks were spent on the parade ground. Soldiers drilled to the beating of the drums for their lives depended on recognition of the different commands, and even amidst the noise of battle, the drum tap rose above the roar of cannon and the clutter of muskets. Troops were trained for war

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[31] As the Middle Ages waned, the mechanics of the firelock were so improved that it became a safe and inexpensive weapon. Its devastating effect on armoured cavalry caused large bodies of musketeers to be raised to supplement and eventually replace totally the pikemen of the infantry. The arme blanche (a popular French term for the cavalry) had to choose. Initially heavier armour was tried but the final result was that a protected horse and rider could not fight or manoeuvre because of the weight. The last choice was to leave the cavalry unarmoured and reduce it to an ancillary role. No longer being the arm of decision, gentlemen left the mounted regiments to accept commissions in the infantry - the new dominant arm.
See:
New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 179-180
Duffy, pp. 24-69
Ropp, pp. 13-15
T.E.Griess, Editor, The Dawn of Modern Warfare, West Point Military History Series (Avery Publishing, 1984), pp. 3-6

with the dedication and repetition of a ballet company, for war in the eighteenth century had all the formal ritual of a minuet.

The troops were expected to fire four shots a minute and continuously trained until the regiment could move as one man. However, marksmanship was not considered important since powder was expensive. The musket was not designed for accuracy; soldiers were taught to point, not aim, and were lucky to have fired five rounds before they went into battle[32].

The requirements of battle were to advance toward the enemy without flinching or to hold fire until the target was within forty yards and the whites of his eyes were visible[33]. This required tight control. To achieve that control, discipline was severe. Men were kept in line by the nearly universal application of corporal punishment. The slightest suggestion of disobedience or failure to observe the King's regulations brought brutal justice. Men were sentenced for hundreds of lashes and often

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[32] Marksmanship and musket drills were almost contradictory terms in the 18th century. Expense of munitions and low accuracy resulted in tactical solutions wherein battle was given in mass formations at short ranges making individual accuracy superfluous. Tests proved that the best marksman could not hit man sized targets beyond 60 yards. Rifles were invented but took so long to load that they were only used for hunting. The first rifle formations which consisted of Austrian "Grenzers", Prussian "Schutzen", and British formations armed with the Baker rifle, did not appear until the late Napoleonic wars.
Hamilton, pp. 6-8
Ropp, p. 33

[33] Ropp, p. 34

beaten to death[34]. The finished product, the result of the constant drills and beatings, was a precision instrument that marched 120 paces a minute, intricately manoeuvered on command and faced devastating enemy fire at the wave of a Brigadier's sword or the tap of a drum.

The study of this mechanical product, the seventeenth century soldier, is particularly fascinating. That he advanced unflinching into murderous fire while his comrades fell around him is at once magnificent and somehow rather sad.

It would be wrong to suggest that the Canadian battles of the Seven Years War were mere forest duels or clumsy lunges at rickety forts. In fact the Europeans often built much as they were accustomed to on the continent. Forts like Duquesne, Louisbourg, or Carillon were excellent examples of the cleverest Vauban architecture. Given good ground, traditional warfare lived on. The Battle of Quebec was simply a European battle fought by European armies that happened by chance to take place in Canada. It lasted but fifteen minutes and a continent fell[35].

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[34] Despite the universal acceptance that Prussian discipline was most effective and most brutal, Frederick himself did not like to see human suffering and left the field of battle quickly to avoid viewing the wounded.
Ropp, pp. 39-40
Duffy, pp. 62-64
New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 180-181

[35] Fuller (p. 267) quotes Doughty Vol. IV, p. 298, Letters of Admiral Holmes, that the battle lasted "...hardly a quarter of an hour."

CHAPTER 3

What the Teacher and Students Will Learn

The study of the Seven Years War potentially encompasses the myriad topics briefly considered in the preceding chapter. The possibilities are quite limitless. The importance of the War is readily accepted but the knowledge of the romance and humanity of the period circa 1755-1763 is unfortunately misunderstood or reduced to lifeless precis by available texts.

The Seven Years War is the central issue in the cultural history of Canada. The clash of the European arms and traditions in the valleys of Canada, accented by the Indian and colonial societies that were both victim and ally, make for engaging reading and satisfying teaching. To comfortably educate his students, the pedagogue ought to be reasonably familiar with the following:

I. the unique conduct of eighteenth century "gentlemanly warfare"

II. the technology of the period

III. the military architecture of the age

IV. the army - a complex social organization

V. the conflict of political aims

C.P.Stacey, Quebec, 1759: The Siege and Battle (MacMillan Co., Toronto, 1959), p. 183 agrees as do Donaldson and O.Warner, With Wolfe to Quebec (Collins, Toronto, 1972), p. 170

Each topic is a cornucopia of history that includes political, social, and artistic concepts of the eighteenth century. The following is but a brief collection of military history that may whet the appetite of both teacher and student and urge them onward.

I. The unique conduct of eighteenth century "gentlemanly warfare"

A. Background:

Wars were conducted as economically as possible; circumspection and defence prevailed over audacity and offence. Preservation of a force was the first object with the results of its action secondary[36].

As armies and navies were expensive necessities for the limited resources of eighteenth century governments, military forces and ships represented a heavy investment in time and money. If lost in action, these could not be easily replaced.

The Duke of Alva wrote that it was the business of a general to get the better of his enemy, but not always to fight; if he could do his business without fighting, so much the better[37].

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[36] New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 163-164

[37] Ibid., p. 183

Devastation and unnecessary bloodshed were kept in check by strict adherence to the rules, customs, and laws of war which was the accepted code of the eighteenth century war-game. Elaborate rules prescribed strategy, siege craft, capitulations, military honours, treatment of prisoners, and the rights of civilians.

Clear distinctions were made between armed forces and civilians in military operations. The armies were self contained and apart from the general population with their own laws, discipline, organization, and professional standard. Frederick the Great's ideal was that, when he was engaged in war, the civilian population should not be aware that a state of war existed[38].

Operations were precise, rational, and mechanical. This was due to the lack of mobility arising from bad roads, the slowness of communication, the difficulty of winter campaigning, and the problem of supply.

All armies lacked homogeneity and formed an amalgamation of national and foreign elements who comprised

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[38] Ibid., p. 174
Ropp, p. 30
Duffy, pp. 157-208

between one-quarter and two-thirds of all armies[39]. Fighting quality varied and savage discipline used to hold together men who were inspired by no great or common ideal. Soldiers enlisted for long terms, and fought, not to die for a cause, but to make a living! For these reasons, small countries could survive against large and as all armies were of one model, genius dominated the battlefield, when in command.

B. The Tactical Battle:

The rules of engagement were complex and juxtaposed elegance with brutality. This included splendid parade advances with colours flying, bands playing to within forty paces of the enemy to meet the requirements of the musket's range or sometimes waiting to receive fire because "Gentlemen never fire first"[40].

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[39] New Cambridge Modern History, p. 175
Ropp, p. 37

[40] From the Battle of Fontenoy, when after a difficult advance by the British, Sir Charles Hay of the First Guards stood before his battalion, bowing to the officers of the French Household Infantry, saying " We are the English Guards and we hope you will stand till we come up to you." Tradition has it that he also requested three cheers for the enemy to which the French replied in kind. The final offer to fire first may simply have been shrewd tactics. There are many variations of this popular antecedent to the battle and vary from toasts being drunk to the honour of the enemy to a legendary reply from the ranks at Sir Charles's kind offer of initial fire to the French. A low cockney voice was alleged to sneer "For what we are about to receive, may the Lord make us truly thankful". (Andrews, p. 19) Voltaire's version of this battle has the French refusing the offer because "The French Guard never fires first." In fact, they did.
See A.M.Burne, The Art of War on Land (Methuen & Co., London, 1950), pp. 120-121

The type of formation used in battle depended on tactical requirements and terrain. All armies attacked in battalion or company columns whose effectiveness varied according to weariness, training, and/or discipline. Therefore attacks ran the gauntlet from parade square performances to confused mobs struggling forward to a ragged rattle of drums.

C. Infantry:

Columns were densely packed groups that could absorb some punishment and then deliver the knockout punch with ball and bayonet. Lines were normally used in defense to allow maximum use of force. In two or three deep ranks, all muskets could be brought to bear and left enough men to create a reserve to plug holes. The "Thin Red Line" became popularized in British song and legend as particularly Anglo-Saxon but, in fact, were common to all European military drills[41].

The line delivered maximum firepower; properly executed, this could not only check an attacking column, but

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[41] All European armies fought in Line. The number of ranks varied. British armies were generally smaller and their battle drills reflected this. The standard line was three ranks deep but considered wasteful by senior officers since it was felt that the rear rank often fired high and prematurely during the excitement of battle.
Robert S.Quimby, The Background of Napoleonic Warfare (Columbia University Press, New York, 1957), pp. 60-79
Hamilton, pp. 5-12
Burne, pp. 94-136
Military Exercises: 1730 (Museum Restoration Service, Ontario, 1962) reprints an 18th century manual showing Prussian drill in Line. Fuller, Ropp, etc., all agree

could also allow a decisive counterattack. Montcalm's attack at Quebec's Plains of Abraham was a good example of this.

The line fired on command but not as a body. Mass vollies were spectacular yet dangerous, permitting a quick counter by horse. Standard drills called for "fire by Platoons" which were ripples of fire along the battle line, end to end or inward to centre, much like a feu de joie. Despite popular history the large cannon shot of the British opening volley at Quebec was more probably a splendid example of a perfectly executed platoon fire[42]. The line was particularly vulnerable to

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[42] There was much debate over the devastating British volley that ended French fortunes at Quebec. Fuller (p. 266) quotes Fortescue: "sounded like a cannon shot ... with one deafening crash ... the most perfect volley ever fired on battlefield burst forth as if from a single monstrous weapon, from end to end of the British Line...". The passage is ambigious. There is room to interpret volley fire by platoons or battalions in succession. C. Preston, The Canadian Historical Review (Ottawa, 1959), p. 233 reports "Connell speaks of two volleys, Hibbert of ten minutes firing, and Reilly of a 'single deafening crash' followed by a 'series of deadly volleys'." Stacey suggests "one brief spasm of firing ... lasted only a few short minutes." Platoon fire, because it was the prescribed tactic, is probably the most reasonable choice. British, indeed all European battle drills during the Seven Years War, called for platoon fire. Experience in battle showed it was rarely achieved because of the mixture of confusion, excitement, and fear that characterized combat. A logical guess would suggest that Wolfe's well trained army achieved something that was hitherto only known on manoeuvre: a perfect rolling volley of consecutive platoon fire that would indeed sound like a single albeit, drawn out, cannon bombardment. Hence the admiration of contemporary military historians.

cavalry. A Cuirassier's dream was a thin line of infantry within two hundred metres[43].

D. Cavalry:

Cavalry formations were more varied but centered on the column or line as well. Cavalry attacks had interesting nuances and depended on the type of unit. Heavy cavalry, which consisted of Cuirassiers, Horseguards, and Dragoons, used larger horses. The troopers wore body armour called cuirass, helmets, and used a heavy broadsword. Their tactics included formal shock attacks and pursuit.

Light cavalry which consisted of Hussars and Light Dragoons, were mounted on compact fast chargers. The troopers wore no armour save heavy leather leggings or hats like the famous czapka for the Poles, or fur colpacks for the Hussars[44].

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[43] Infantry in Line took considerable training and time to form a square: the only formation that could defeat cavalry. Horses, unlike cavaliers, refused to dash through walls of bayonets. Catching infantry in line or column within charging distance (less than 600 metres) guaranteed the cavalry a bloody, albeit easy, win. See Bukhari, throughout.

[44] Of all the uniforms, the Hussar's is the most misunderstood and misrepresented, particularly in headgear. Originally a fur cap with the inside turned outwards to show a turban of fur (common to Tartars and Cossacks of Eastern Europe), it evolved until the fur swallowed up the cap except for a cloth adornment hung over the side (today called by the British a busby bag). The proper name for this headgear is the colpack. It was worn exclusively by the Hussar regiments and their imitators. It is wrongly confused with the bearskin which was worn by elite guard infantry and heavy cavalry regiments. After initial contests with French Hussars in the peninsula, the British cavalry raised its own Hussar regiments in imitation and clothed

Light cavalry tactics required skilled horsemen and tactics included probing attacks, harassment, opportunity pursuit, and especially reconnaissance. The best light cavalry came from Eastern Europe where the tribes of the steppes - Ukrainians, Hungarians, and Poles - produced splendid irregular frontier squadrons whose skill and romance created popular followings and led to their formal inclusion into Imperial armies, even to the point of slavishly copying national dress. The Hussars, Cossacks, and Polish Lancers are all good examples of this. The major powers which included the Austro-Hungarians, British, French, Russians, and Prussians, all eventually raised these particular types and clad them in their exact copies of the distinctive foreign costume they happened to admire[45].

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them a la Hungarian as the French did. They particularly liked the French colpack and had it manufactured in London by a hat company from whom it would forever keep its British name - the Busby.
See: Laver; Funcken; Barnes; Osprey Series of Men At Arms (over 55 volumes of which 6 deal with uniforms of the cavalry: Peter Young's Chasseurs of the Guard and Blucher's Army; Robin May's Wolfe's Army; Otto Von Pika's Kings German Legion; Albert Seaton's The Austro Hungarian Army of the Seven Years War and Frederick the Great's Army; Martin Windrow's Montcalm's Army). The best drawn book with superb colour prints by Angus McBride is Emil Bukhari's Napoleon's Cavalry (Presidio Press, London, 1979), pp. 153-159

[45] Cavalry of the 18th century was divided into types common to all nations. These included the following:
Cuirassiers: Heavy cavalry with breast plates and metal helms.
Dragoons: Heavy cavalry; no armour. Originally mounted infantry designed to move quickly; no matter the decade or nation, all dragoons quickly abandoned any connection with the infantry and adopted heavy sabres to become "regular heavies". Some Dragoons still continue to carry the musket or short blunderbuss which when fired, burst forth a shot of fire and smoke that reminded peasants of the legendary Dragon, hence the eventual corruption

E. The Siege:

The complexities of siege-warfare included definite written instructions for each fortress setting out clearly the nature of the defence required. If a commander surrendered prematurely, he was liable to trial before a military tribunal.

Louis XIV ordered the commander to repulse only one assault on the body of a fortress after a breach had been made; honour was then satisfied[46].

If a place capitulated before assault, soldiers were not permitted to sack. If it was taken by assault, it was customary to abandon it to the soldiers for a stated number of

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to "Dragoon".
Lancers: Abandoned by all European cavalry except Poland. Napoleon was so impressed with Polish Lancers that he ordered 9 French Dragoon regiments converted to Chevauxlegers-lanciers. See Rene North, Regiments at Waterloo (Almark pub., London, 1971), p. 52 and Bukhari, p. 65. Lancer (Polish) costume was copied by all European armies during the Napoleonic war and by Britain after Waterloo.
Light Dragoons/Chasseurs a Cheval: Light cavalry armed with sabres. Used for scouting and harassment.
Hussars: Originated in Eastern Austro Hungarian Empire and copied by all European nations. The French raised 2 regiments of Hussars after mercenary officers recruited 900 Hungarians and presented them to Cardinal Richelieu. Essentially Light Dragoons dressed as Hungarians.
All of the above had "Guard" counterparts, i.e. Household cavalry regiments composed of the best men and horses and considered "elite". The cavalry of the Seven Years War saw all of the above types deployed. Cavalry in North America was limited to Light Dragoons - normally recruited from local militia.

[46] New Cambridge Modern History, p. 167

hours or days, making provision to protect the life and honour of the inhabitants[47].

A siege was an affair of artillery assisted by infantry. The opening of the trenches and first parallel was a formality that could not be dispensed with; troops marched in with drums beating and flags flying. Reaching their posts, they placed their colours on the parapet as a challenge to the enemy.

Surrender was also a matter of pomp and circumstance. The honours of war were granted by a sieging army to a garrison which surrendered after valiantly defending itself. The terms of capitulation described the exact details of the exit. This included the garrison bands playing a march of the enemy as they came out to show they were not humiliated to the point where they could not exchange compliments with the victor[48].

Throughout the century, it was held that a fortress must be taken by siege rather than by coup de main. There was no question of by-passing strong points.

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[47] Ibid., p. 167-168

[48] After the Battle of Yorktown the British army surrendered to a tune popular with both colonists and tories "The World Turned Upside Down". See: Fort Ticonderoga Fifes and Drums.

F. The Officers:

There was no Brandenburg Krieg Schule or Warminster[49] to polish the tactics of officers who could afford commissions. Command positions were sold to keep out the common and poor, and it was not unusual for a young man just out of Eton to begin at the seniority of captain with a company or squadron at his beck and call[50]. If one really had style and the guineas, one raised one's own regiment and dressed them according to military fancy.

Advancement in the army was made easy for those whose way was smoothed by wealth, influence, or interest. There were few limitations on this practice save in the artillery; the

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[49] National war colleges, like Canada's Kingston, where senior officers selected for future command were taught doctrine and tactics.

[50] Ibid., p. 186.
The Duke of Cumberland commanded an allied army in 1745 at the age of 24. Maurice Comte de Saxe, one of the 374 acknowledged bastards of the King of Poland, was commissioned at the age of 12 and given command of a German regiment which was bought for him at the age of 17. See:
Sir Basil Liddel Hart, The Sword and the Pen (Thomas Crowell Co., New York, 1976), p. 107
Wolfe rose from a second lieutenant at the age of 15 to lieutenant colonel at 23 and was a major general at 32.
Wellington was an ensign at 17, lieutenant colonel at 24, major general at 32, and commanded at Waterloo at the age of 40. Buying a commission was no guarantee of promotion beyond colonel; political influence and family connections were most instrumental in a rapid rise. See:
Ropp, pp. 40-42.
Elizabeth Longford, Wellington, The Years of The Sword (Harper & Row, New York, 1969), pp. 22,33,36,42,172,351.
Montcalm, a lesser noble, rose to the rank of major general mainly through success in battle. See:
Preston, p. 721
Parkman, pp. 209-210

talents or inclinations of the officers themselves were unimportant; there was no question of serving a specified period in one rank before being promoted to the next. This prevented the real asset of a promotion system, which was the spur to the attainment of real merit, from taking effect. Gentlemen were not necessarily genteel or particularly clever. They were the products of English public schools with little education and highly developed muscles; that is to say, they were not scholars but essentially gentlemen[51].

G. Promotion - Competence versus Pay:

Officers' commissions were reserved for nobility. There were five distinct classes of officers : the great nobles, nobles who were eligible to be presented to the king with proof of nobility dating back centuries, nobles possessing sixteen-quarters nobility but not of the court circle such as the country gentlemen of France, bourgeois officers, and lastly, men risen from the ranks. Senior officers, Colonels and above, were selected from the first two classes.

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[51] Frank Muir, The Frank Muir Book: An Irreverant Companion to Social History (Heinemann Pub., London, 1976), p. 83. Included is: "Education is the process of casting false pearls before real swine".
And Lord Eldon's standing for Oxford in 1770: "I was examined in Hebrew and History. What is the Hebrew for the Place of the Skull?" said the Examiner. "Golgotha", I replied. "Who founded University College?" I answered, "King Alfred". "Very well,sir", said the Examiner, "Then you are competent for your degree.", p. 78

Officers were better paid and expensive to the government. For example, in France, out of a total army strength of one hundred seventy thousand, sixty thousand were officers whose pay absorbed more than half the army budget and of whom only one-sixth were doing duty with the regiments[52]. Nevertheless, the French ratio was one officer to every fifteen men compared with one to thirty-six for England, and one to thirty-seven for Prussia.

Many officers, busily being gentlemen, were rarely present with their troops, did not know their men, and never possessed their confidence. Their large baggage and numerous servants further reduced the army's mobility. With leaders such as these it is no wonder that able commanders succeeded easily in the field and discipline in the ranks had to be savage.

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[52] New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 188-189
The rewards of battle did not compare with the risks taken. Consider Marlborough's reward by Queen Anne after Blenheim - the estate at Woodstock, Blenheim Palace, diamonds, etc. totaling millions of 1980 dollars. See:
Correlli Barnett, Marlborough (Eyre Methuen, London, 1974), p.131
Consider also Wellington's prize money of 61000 pounds (about 6 million dollars) after Waterloo compared to the prize of 2 pounds (approximately 200 dollars) given to corporals and privates. See:
John Naybor, Waterloo (B.T.Batsford Ltd., London, 1960), p. 201

II. The Technology of the Period

A. The flintlock:

The actual mechanics of the flintlock or cannon are simple yet can easily fascinate the student of the star wars age. The action should be explained or better, a working model secured. The best classical design was remarkably successful and can be found vaguely commemorated in the workings of today's Zippo lighters.

B. The Musket:

Effective ranges for muskets were thirty-five to fifty paces. Only groups stood a chance of being definitely hit. On the other hand, effective ranges for field artillery were nine hundred metres.

The eighteenth century soldier's personal weapon was the flintlock musket. Various types included Charlebois for the French and Brown Bess for the British. It was a long and cumbersome weapon, weighing nearly ten pounds and it fired a lead ball almost three-quarters of an inch in diameter[53].

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[53] Andrews, p. 114
Hamilton, pp. 7-8
Funcken, pp. 120-121
Note that musket balls were, in fact, bell shaped in order to tie securely to paper cartridge. See Illustration, Appendix C.
Perhaps the simplest, clearest, and best illustrations of the mechanics, types, and effect of musket fire is found in Jack Coggins, Arms and Equipment of The Civil War (Doubleday & Co., New York, 1962), pp. 21-39

Bayonets were originally designed to allow the musket, which replaced the pike as the main arm of infantry, to function as an iron spear. Initially, "plug bayonets" were used but prevented firing, thus the French introduced a military technological breakthrough, the socket bayonet[54]. This blade fitted around the barrel and permitted both savage thrusts and shooting. The sole improvement in infantry arms in the eighteenth century was the substitution of an iron for a wooden ramrod by Leopold of Anhalt Dessau in 1740[55].

C. Loading and Firing:

Recruits had to appear to be healthy, have both arms and legs, and at least two teeth in their heads. The teeth were necessary to rip open the paper cartridges that contained the powder and ball. Loading included biting off the paper and forming a wad for the shot which would otherwise rattle about or fall out. Industry had not perfected mass produced precision ammunition. Rifles had been invented but required the lead shot to be hammered home with a mallet and metal ramrod which took three times as long to load. Soldiers stood in full view of the enemy when loading. The French regulars found the Canadian

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[54] Ropp, pp. 30-34
Hamilton, pp. 6-8

[55] New Cambridge Modern History, p. 174

militia annoying, awkward, and a disgrace to their battle formations because they prudently knelt or hid when reloading[56].

The time required for loading was not constant. Gunpowder was coarse and dirty which fouled up the musket with each firing. Thus the more vollies, the dirtier the weapon became and consequently took more time to load.

Ideal practice conditions, which were dry runs on the parade square, considered an average loading time to be fifteen to thirty seconds. Platoon fire during a prolonged battle generally resulted in loading times of one to two minutes. Loading consisted of tearing a paper cartridge with one's teeth, pouring a fifth of the powder into the pan for the lock and flint to ignite, depositing the remainder into the barrel, crumpling the paper to serve as a wad or sabot for the ball, forcing the shot and wadding into the mouth of the barrel and hammering home with a wooden ramrod, cocking the hammer, presenting or pointing the weapon at the target, and finally, squeezing the trigger to release the firing mechanism[57].

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[56] Donaldson says, " The regulars stumbled over the Canadians on the ground, cursed them, and tried to kick them out of the way.", p. 180
See also:
Parkman, p. 477
Warner, p. 166
Stacey, p. 123

[57] The following references describe "loading". Of interest is Hamilton, The French Army in North America, because it reproduces the "Exercise de l'infanterie francaise 1755" Drill

Considering the size of the shot, equivalent to a modern fifty caliber heavy machine gun, the kick given by the recoil at fire gave the average soldier a sore shoulder, bruised cheek, burning red eyes, and deafened ears. Frederick actually ordered his men to aim nine paces in front of the enemy in order to adjust for the recoil and poor marksmanship.

Accuracy was not sought since live practice was expensive and adjusted for by mass vollies at one target at a close range of thirty to forty metres when the whites of the eyes were showing[58]. Deployment drills and manoeuvres were vital; in firing, a man only a few inches out of line, could have his eardrums blown in by the musket of a man behind him. A mistake in manoeuvre could open a fatal gap in the order of battle which led to the invention of the Prussian "Goose Step" to ensure that large bodies stayed in step during cross country movement[59].

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pamphlet with 18th century engravings of movements. Also, S.J.Gooding, Military Exercises: 1730, which contain even earlier drills and engravings.
"The French Army of the Seven Years War ... had emerged with, on the whole, a sorry record ... The one advantage they retained was the ability of their infantry to fire faster than any in Europe, and even this, some French observers (Guibert) thought, was gained at the expense of failure to ram home the charge in the barrel." Cyril Falls, The Art of War (Hisperides, New York, 1961), p. 23

[58] The British "Brown Bess" could hit a foot square target every time at 40 yards. At 100 yards, however, it dropped by 50%. See: Ropp, p. 134

[59] Ibid., pp. 33-34
Duffy, pp. 82-84

D. Effects of Fire:

The musket balls were made of lead and flattened on impact creating savage exit wounds, smashing bone, and often shattering to create multiple wounds and fractures. Shock was the immediate result. Being struck by a fifty caliber shot was the equivalent to being hit by a heavy sledge hammer. Clean wounds were rare and often resulted in lead poisoning. Flesh had to be disinfected by brandy or a flash of ignited gunpowder directly on the wound[60].

Sword or bayonet wounds often caused infection and heavy sabers crushed skulls and fractured limbs. Wounded soldiers were often pillaged by foes as well as by their own troops, camp followers, and locals. Unguarded wounded men were often murdered by marauding looters. There was no Red Cross or equivalent organization.

The wounded were delivered to aide stations by comrades or left on the field to die there. The surgeon was too busy to leave his theatre to seek unconscious patients, although there are stories of relatives arriving at battlefields a day or two after an action and discovering soldiers still clinging to life and capable of recovery.

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[60] Andrews, p. 19
Duffy, pp. 138-140 "... the name for this licensed murder was conservative surgery".
Ropp, pp. 11,15,28,37,68

North American battles carried the added liability of scalping. It has been suggested that scalping was not common to the tradition of Amerind close quarter combat. It was perhaps introduced by Europeans, probably the Dutch in the Hudson/Mohawk region, as a computing device for bounty payment or proof of slaughter[61].

E. Medicine:

Military medicine was punitive as well as palliative. Despite the Enlightenment, science had not progressed in hygiene, sanitation, or diet. Surgeons were few, one to a Regiment of twelve hundred, and inadequately trained. Bleeding was considered

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[61] While there is little defense of the brutality of Indian combat and subsequent torture, modern historians claim that, if put in proper context beside European practices and barbarities, it was, if anything, less cruel. See:
Cornelius J.Jaenan, Friend and Foe: Aspects of French-Amerind Cultural Contact in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries (McClelland & Stewart, Toronto, 1976), pp. 121,148
Ropp, p. 64
George T.Hunt, The Wars of the Iroquois (University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, 1940), p. 84
Bruce G.Trigger, Indians of the Heroic Age of New France (Cdn Historical Association Booklet No. 30, Ottawa, 1979)
"... a scalp was a mere trophy and was not highly valued ... an emblem of victory ... but any part of an enemy's body might serve for this ... not uncommon among the Blackfeet to take off a leg or an arm, or even a foot or hand." Howling Wolf, Scalping (American Anthropologist), Plate 6, p. 47
There are references as early as Champlain's 1615 campaign against the Iroquois that North American Indians took and treasured scalps "as if they had been precious chains..." . See:
T.W.Paterson, Canadian Battles and Massacres (Stage Coach Publishing, Langely, B.C., 1977), p. 17
Perhaps scalping is simply common to all neolithic types whether in America or Europe. TotenKopf SS officer Ilsa Koch selected prisoners with fine heads of hair at the Buchenwald concentration camp and used their shrunken heads as paper weights.

a remedy for most ails. Morphine was unknown and soldiers generally died of shock during an operation.

During the battle of Quebec, the British suffered less than two hundred casualties. After the winter, a further nine hundred had died from wounds, infections, and disease due to poor diet and hygiene. In the entire Seven Years War less than two thousand seamen in the Royal Navy were killed in action yet one hundred thirty-four thousand were lost due to disease, wounds, and desertion[62].

Nevertheless soldiers did survive, and to be fair, a skilled medical practitioner could do as much to lengthen a soldier's life as to end it. A competent surgeon could generally amputate a major limb in thirty seconds[63].

F. Naval Warfare:

Warfare at sea pitted canvas powered oak-ribbed leviathans against each other in a marignole of grace and horror. Sailing ships required tight control and incredible skill in order to bring guns to bear in tricky winds. Naval battles were

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[62] See:
New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 185
Ropp, p. 57
Parkman, pp. 479, 504

[63] Andrews, p. 19; directions for amputations and prints published in 1753.

fought in "line" but the French and English split in preference of tack - leeward versus windward.

Naval gunnery was challenging. Handling twenty-four or thirty-two pounders required eight to thirteen man crews. Accuracy was impossible at anything but point blank range. Shot was often skipped off waves for longer range. Chain shot was used to tear sails and rigging; hot shot, which were cannonballs heated white to set fire to wooden ships, were used with grape shot, which was a favorite of land gunners against large battalions and cavalry, to batter the wooden bulwarks.

The formality of sea battles remained unchanged; the accepted formation of a fleet was single line ahead. In England, Rooke's Fighting Instructions of 1703, which lasted until 1783, were based on those of Russell, issued in 1691, and were the tactical bible of the eighteenth century[64]. Drawn in two parallel lines, rival fleets manoeuvered with a view to direct engagement in a series of single combats, making a sea battle a gun duel pure and simple. As late as 1794, it was considered "rascally"

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[64] See:
New Cambridge Modern History, p. 170
Ropp, pp. 49-51
Jacques Mordal, 25 Centuries of Sea Warfare (Abbey Pub., London, 1959), pp. 113-130
Douglas G.Browne, The Floating Bulwark: The Story of the Fighting Ship (Cassell Pub., London, 1963).
Most popular with young adults is Donald MacIntyre's Man of War (McGraw Hill, Toronto, 1968). It contains excellent colour prints and illustrations supported by an informative easy text.

when French men of war fired on frigates not taking part in the direct engagement. This action broke careful rules and established precedents.

III. The Military Architecture of the Age

The presence of Vauban fortifications in the wilds of North America is as exciting as discovering a modern shopping centre in the Amazon jungle. Count Vauban was the most important and emulated military engineer of the age. His credits include Forts Carillon and Frederick on Lake Champlain, Fort Niagara, Isle Noix, Fort Frontenac, Fort William Henry, to name but a few. The sizes of these works differed ; it is of interest to note that the sexual difference between fort and fortress lay in the fact that a fortress had breast works[65]. Further, the designs of these bastions, whether wood, earth, or stone, had specific tactical ends worth examining.

Fortifications now had deep open ditches which consisted of stone moats, empty and covered by artillery or carronades. They also had glacis works which were forward fortifications, much

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[65] While a popular witticism among military engineers, this is not an incorrect description. Forts were generally single walled structures with perhaps demilunes added. A fortress was larger; its counterscraps, outerbastions, and demilunes were often small forts in themselves and hence breastworks. See: Ian V.Hogg, Fortress (St.Martin's Press, New York, 1975) defines it as "a series of defensive works for the protection of a specific area.", p. 8

like trenches, constructed of masonry and normally flush with the ground. Complicated crossfire was introduced; demi lunes, which were stone islands that screened approaches to gates and walls, were now part of modern fortification. The result was a structure that defied direct assault and had to be taken by siege bombardment or tunnelling and exploding mines.

Classical strategic efforts were limited to key areas guarding trade routes such as Louisbourg, Halifax, and Quebec[66]. The construction of these impressive bastions found in and around Canada will have far more meaning once their complexity is understood. It is unfortunate we tend to ignore the reality of our military artifacts.

IV. The Army - A Complex Social Organization

A. Uniforms:

The armies of the Lace Wars are better remembered by the exaggerated style of costume. The excessive garb that constituted the uniforms of the eighteenth century army was theoretically based on three principles. The first, Hierarchy, distinguished rank. The second, Utility, was common sense dress for comfort and ease in fighting. By the 1750's this had nearly disappeared and was completely overshadowed by the third

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[66] For an illustrated review of the fortifications of the Seven Years War, see Leslie Hannon, Forts of Canada (McClelland & Stewart, Toronto, 1969)

principle of the military fashion. The third, **Seduction**, was so termed because the tightness of fit, the tall headdress, the shiny buttons and brass were all designed to make the wearer attractive to the opposite sex[67]. By the eighteenth century, Seduction had triumphed. Uniforms were unbearably uncomfortable all for the sake of style. Long periods of peace tended to emphasize the principles of seduction. Long campaign years brought back utility which advocated loose fit for ease in movement, intelligent headgear, colours, and kit.

Men's hair was shoulder length and dressing it was a smelly messy business. Soldiers worked in teams rubbing in grease and lard then combing the hair tight. Eyes were kept shut, for men would have difficulty in comfortably closing them after their hair was done. Stories have been told of rats chewing on the greasy coiffure while the men slept[68]. All soldiers wore queues, except for Highlanders or those in extended colonial service. Most regiments had woollen wigs which had to be whitened with powder. In addition to this, the cavalry braided their sideburns. The moustache was de rigueur in Hussar regiments; indeed, troopers who could not grow one were ordered to paste horsehair on the upper lip for formal parades.

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[67] Laver, p. 23

[68] Andrews, p. 6

Uniforms meant hard and heavy work. Men spent two to three hours a day on their kit. They had to polish not only shoes, which were made of leather but not designed for a right or left foot, but also buttons, webbing, and gaiters. In full uniform with ammunition, rations, musket, and bayonet, the soldier carried about sixty-five pounds of gear.

Uniform evolution had unusual "Regimental quiffs". Frederick the Great added double rows of sharp brass buttons to the sleeves of his Potsdam Grenadiers' uniforms to prevent them from wiping their noses on their jackets[69]. This odd beginning is perpetuated in men's fashion which still has buttons on suit sleeves which serve no purpose other than decoration and are below the cuff rather than above.

Cavalry uniforms were tailored tight for parades and the ladies but discarded for chaps or leather coveralls in battle. The desire for fashionable tight fit prompted Beau Brummel to tell his breeches maker, "If I can get into 'em, I won't wear 'em!"[70].

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[69] Under Frederick, a battalion that had disgraced itself in battle, would find itself issued with cloth buttons. Duffy, p. 67

[70] Laver, p. 17

B. Other Troops:

Grenadier companies were specifically raised to throw crude round iron bombs called grenades[71]. Since many went off in the hand of the thrower, they were abandoned but the companies of tall strong men were kept and enlarged into elite regiments. Napoleon's Old Guard or the British Grenadier Guards were the nineteenth century result[72].

Active service made many changes necessary. By 1757, the British had copied the French army in using lightly equipped and dressed soldiers for reconnaissance and raiding; these were called **Light Infantry**. Some commanding officers went as far as to order that lace and braid be removed from the greatcoats and that

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[71] Major R.Money Barnes, A History of the Regiments and Uniforms of the British Army (Seeley Service & Co., London, 1967), pp. 26-28

[72] Much of British military tradition is a slavish imitation (Hungarian Hussars, Polish Lancers, Light Infantry) or a result of success against continental armies. Before Waterloo, the British Household foot regiments were known simply as "Guards"; after the battle, they were renamed "the Grenadier Guards" to commemorate their defeat of the Grenadiers of Napoleon's Old Guard. In fact, it was a case of mistaken identity; the foot guards were attacked by and beat the Chasseurs of the Old Guard, not the Grenadiers. Since both units were in the Imperial Guard and wore field service uniform with near identical bearskins, the mistake is understandable. See:
Barnes, pp. 29-30, 113
David Howarth, A Near Run Thing (Collins, London, 1972), p. 184
Commandant Henry Lachouque, Waterloo (Arms & Armour Press, London, 1972), p. 184

brass buttons be cut off or left unpolished[73]. To senior officers in Europe, this was shocking.

Successful combat in North America meant dependance on those who knew their way about; the best of these were the courreurs des bois and Indians. Particularly bewildering to them were the Scottish Highlanders who had joined the British army as mercenaries. They fought with a vengeance that matched the Iroquois. When their bagpipes played the charge, they often threw away their muskets, drew claymores, and lopped off heads and limbs in a blood frenzy[74]. French officers claimed they were no different from the Mohawks and just as feared.

Yet one man's terror is often another man's salvation. To the French, their Indian allies were a valuable tactical asset. However, the eastern woodland Indians had complex systems of alliances[75]. Large numbers fought for both sides. When faced with a neolithic warrior, the armies of the Enlightenment were united by a common fear - death beneath the scalping knife.

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[73] Laver, p. 15
Funcken, p. 128

[74] Donaldson, p. 182
Parkman, p.478

[75] H.Trumball, History of the Indian Wars, (Phillips & Sampson, Boston, 1846), pp. 117-121
Parkman, pp. 101-102, 388, etc.
Keith F.Otterbein, Why The Iroquois Won, (Ethno History XI, 1964), pp. 56-61 _

C. Social Pleasures:

Social life was limited and Regiments regularly permitted large numbers of wives and courtesans to follow the men on campaign; this led to the term "camp followers". The navy was so unpleasant and desertion so high that sailors were rarely allowed leave in friendly ports. Women were brought aboard ship and tars made do in the darkness of the lower gun deck; this spawned the insulting term "son of a gun" for suspected naval offsprings[76].

D. Social Drinking:

The brandy or rum which was later issued in place of beer was drunk neat until the mid-eighteenth century, when Admiral Vernon is supposed to have invented grog by diluting it with three parts water[77]. Since the water was powerful enough to spoil the whole concoction in a few days, this was an additional way of ensuring its immediate consumption. A good portion of the naval crews were often tipsy during the night watches which was one cause of the accidents that killed far more men than did battles. Though almost all sailors ended up as confirmed alcoholics, grog was a real support for men who were doing heavy

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[76] Ropp, p. 114
New Cambridge Modern History, pp. 178-179

[77] Ropp, p. 56
Of all complaints at sea, food surpassed flogging: "Many men preferred salt water or urine to the beer ... which as late as 1789 was reported to include great heaps of stuff not unlike to men's guts, which has alarmed seamen to a strange degree.", Ropp, p. 57

and dangerous work in the open in cold climates, with little warm food and no waterproof clothing.

E. Social Punishments:

Iron discipline was instilled to overcome the nervous tension of action. If an enemy fled, the victorious must remain in position; plundering the dead or wounded was forbidden on pain of death. "If a soldier during an action looks about as if to flee, or so much as sets foot outside the line", Frederick ordered in 1745, "the non-commissioned officer standing behind him will run him through with his bayonet and kill him on the spot."[78]

Corporal discipline was so commonplace that men, paraded through gauntlets of soldiers armed with switches or sticks, were accompanied by a specially written tune, "The Rogues' March"[79]. Voltaire recalled that the philosopher king, Frederick, would stand at his window talking about ethics while he watched soldiers flayed, ride the wooden horse with a couple of muskets on each foot, or drag a cannonball strapped to an ankle.

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[78] New Cambridge Modern History, p. 181

[79] Duffy, pp. 62-64
It is difficult to find decent versions of this tune. Most historically accurate version is played by the Fife Band of the Fort Ticonderoga Guard. See: Ropp, p. 39

F. Social Music:

An anachronism to the brutality of battle and certainly a welcome respite was the playing of the regimental bands. Music was an important part of battle. Regimental marches could raise morale and the right tune could rally spent men. Scottish regiments generally went into a blood frenzy when the pipes sounded "Cabor Fiedh", the charge. Instruments and especially drums produced a beat which kept the cadence of manoeuvre and even issued orders during the noise of battle.

The design instruments of the period would surprise the musicologist for they were early relatives of present brass and woodwinds found in modern military bands. Preferred military battle instruments were drums, fifes, and sometimes bugles. Probably the most effective and famous were the bagpipes which were the only instruments officially classified as weapons of war[80].

Utilitarian drum cadences often influenced civilian imitation while many military marches became common in civilian song and dance. For example, "Back O'Bennachi", a Scottish tune, lives on as "The Old Grey Mare"; "The Jolly Drummer Boy", an English song, is now known as "Do You Know The Muffin Man". The

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[80] Peter Simkins, Regiments of The Scottish Division, (MacMillan, London, 1973), p. 22
John Telfer Dunbar, The History Of Highland Dress, (Oliver & Boyd, London, 1962), p. 40

French march, "Marlborough S'Vient a Guerre", written to commemorate battles with the British during Queen Anne's War, lives on as "The Bear Went Over The Mountain" while "Sur Le Pont d'Avignon", a regimental march, is now a nursery school tune[81].

Drums, pipes, fifes, or trumpets called specific orders which rose above the din of battle and gave tactical or administrative instructions. These included, for example, the water call, battle turns, advance, halt, load, and cease fire.

Of interest may be the tunes played by the Battalion Piper for particular social or military occasions: breakfast ("Brose and Butter"), playing in a draught of rum or beer ("Oh, But Ye've Been Long Coming"), lights out ("Soldier Lie Down On A Wee Pickle Straw"), and the desperate necessity of retreat ("I Has A Wife O'My Ain")[82].

The life of the eighteenth century soldier and sailor was hard, if not incredible, when juxtaposed against modern

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[81] Funcken, p. 98
There are perhaps one dozen albums available that do a creditable job on military music from the Seven Years War; highly recommended are: La Compagnie Franche De La Marine, Echos Du Passe, (Montreal Sound Studios, 1976)
The Fifes And Drums Of Fort Ticonderoga, (A&R Record MFG, Dallas, 1976)

[82] There are dozens of albums available that feature Scottish Military music, most recorded by British regiments. The most complete collection of military calls is by an emigre living in California. See: Seaumas MacNeill, Highland Pipes, (Everest Records, LA, 1972)

Western military society. The men who wrought battle ought to be understood if "the proper study of mankind is man"[83].

V. The Conflict of Political Aims

The influence of political and economic goals on the conduct of war ought to be familiar to the teacher. The Seven Years War's causes are complex and require a conscious separation of European and American theatres, indeed, a separation of the West Indian and Canadian theatres in the Americas themselves.

A brief introduction to the continental struggle is wise; however, out of practical necessity, this module must concentrate on the North American frontier.

The causes of the European war emerged from a tangle of treaties, open and secret alliances, royal ambitions, economic rivalries, and jealousies.

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[83] Alexander Pope, Essay On Man, Epistle I, line 291

Francis Parkman suggests Prussia's King, Frederick the Great, had drawn upon himself an avalanche:

> "....Three women - two empresses and a concubine - controlled the forces of the three great nations....and they all hated him: Elizabeth of Russia, by reason of the tongue of Frederick himself, who had jibed at her amours, compared her to Messalina, and called her "infame catin du Nord"; Maria Theresa of Austria, because she saw in him a rebellious vassal of the Holy Roman Empire, and above all, because he robbed her of Silesia; Madame de Pompadour, because when she sent him a message of compliment, he answered, "Je ne la connais pas", forbade his ambassador to visit her, and in his mocking wit spared neither her nor her royal lover. Feminine pique, revenge, or vanity had them at their service the mightiest armaments of Europe."[84]

The major North American issues that sparked battle were the fur trade, the economic rivalries that resulted in the contest for the riches of the Ohio Valley, and the need for westward expansion by the American colonies who were pressed against the east coast by French forts.

New France could not be readily reinforced during or before the Seven Years War because the agrarian economy could not support large garrisons. Farming was discouraged in favour of the fur trade by the mercantilist interests of Versailles and only a small population was required to service the fur trade; by 1755 even this was scattered across the continent.

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[84] Parkman, p. 206

Reinforcements were further difficult because French grand strategy chose continental campaigning and invasion of England as priority to colonial defence; fleets were to be massed but, typically for the French, they were defeated in detail.

William Pitt, in contrast, upon becoming Prime Minister, opted for colonial victory first and saw that North America was quickly conquered by transferring veteran armies of regulars from Europe. His policy allowed the bulk of the continental war to be conducted by Prussia while Brittania ruled the waves and amputated the lucrative colonies from metropolitan France[85].

Canada's true worth to France is best demonstrated by negotiations over the treaty of Paris. Given a potential choice between keeping New France's wealth of fur and fish or the small Caribbean islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique, which were rich resources of sugar, rum, and molasses, the French promptly chose the latter!

The realization that one of our central historical watersheds is merely someone else's colonial brush fire is sobering but necessary.

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[85] Ibid., pp. 330-332
Ropp, p. 67
New Cambridge Modern History, p. 211

VI. Summation

Military History has long been respected and more recently has come back into vogue when relabelled as "Strategic Studies". Whatever the wrappings, the prize is worth the effort. Armies reflect social, moral, and political philosophies. The tools of the trade are a record of man's technological accomplishments and the evolution of military costume vis-a-vis civilian mode is a sadly overlooked part of social history. The dress, discipline, tactics, and even music all provide a fascinating insight into eighteenth century military history.

It is a period that deserves closer attention and more time. It is fully buttressed by a wealth of colorful material for the interested historian to pleasantly explore. Surely today's history student ought to be given a chance. This programme will allow that.

The aim of the monograph is to create a Computer Instructional module that will allow an interested average or gifted student the opportunity to leave the classroom to pursue, through independent study, the particular threads of the topic that interest him. Naturally, the student will also be expected to meet class norms and learn the basic material dealing with this topic that will be taught during this time to the class in general.

What the student ought to appreciate in the period topic has been covered in considerable detail above. The particular skills that the student should acquire through the use of this CAI are the following:

A. Fundamental skills in accessing computer information:

This means, in simple terms, to be able to switch on and off. Specifically, it includes the following knowledge:

1. turning on disk drive, computer, TV, printer
2. operational checks
3. loading the diskette
4. turning off the equipment

The enclosed programme is designed to make all of the above readily understood and requires less than one instruction period for the student. The philosophy held is that the students involved with the CAI do not have to be computer literate; they are users rather than programmers. The Seven Years War CAI/CMI is designed to be user friendly.

B. Independent Research:

The student, once given the preliminary introduction that permits him to use the computer, is free to pursue his own timetable provided he achieves the aim of his chosen project and is able to meet the testing criteria of the module itself.

Students will be instructed to conduct the most basic research: find source material, read it, and write an accurate report on what was read.

C. Historical Presentation:

Through the CMI the student will be given outlines and examples to enable him to submit a correctly organized and styled historical paper representing either a book report or essay.

D. Further option:

Styles of presentation will vary. The student will be encouraged to pursue his computer skills by being allowed continued computer access to enable him to use a **Word Processor** if desired. This is a simple but excellent way of producing a professional final report.

The philosophy behind this monograph is that enthusiastic average historians or gifted students are given the opportunity to escape the restrictions of the classroom. It is basically a bread and butter project. When enthusiastic or gifted are mentioned the following truths about all mid-eighties scholars must be kept in mind: regardless of assessed level, they have serious problems in grammatically correct written communication and their natural creativity and insight must be tempered with learning fundamental historical skills - "walk before you run".

Therefore, at the risk of disappointing the innovative pedagogues of the seventies, this paper seeks no more from the student than the ability to read fluently, write correctly, and accurately present, in essay or book report form, an account of what he has learned. It will not encourage new insight or brave theories on the "whys" of history. Its aim is to reinforce fundamental skills. The beneficial side aspects to the course, teacher, and school are self evident. The basic skills practiced are vital to the student.

CHAPTER 4

Using This Module In Class

Computer Managed Instruction

This module is designed for senior history students at the Secondary IV-V level. The following outline is a suggested method for teaching the entire programme:

I. CMI - Preparatory:

A. selection of the student candidates by the teacher

B. initial lecture on the use of the computer

C. issue of assignments, timetable required, reading and study material (Chapter 5)

II. CMI - Conduct and Recommended Sequence:

A. Test 1 (Disk 1) taken by students

B. CMI (Disk 2) reviewed

C. Background readings complete

D. CMI (Disk 2): students choose assignment options

E. Independent research and preparation of selected assignment

F. Independent study of Module to prepare for Test 2

G. Test 2 (Disk 3) taken by students

H. Assignment submitted and teacher evaluation

The experienced professional will no doubt choose his own particular approach. However, the suggested sequence ought to be adhered to if Tests 1 and 2 are included in the programme.

Test 1 is a twenty-five question MULTIPLE CHOICE examination designed simply as an assessment of initial level of knowledge possessed by students and permits the teacher a later comparison with the results of Test 2. The questions are general and allow the student to familiarize himself with CAI testing procedures.

Test 2 is a final evaluation of the student's basic knowledge of the Seven Years War and should count towards the final term mark. Test 2 is comprised of fifty MULTIPLE CHOICE questions. Actual percentage value is reserved for the teacher's preference. The test is entirely based on the Study Module provided in Chapter 5. Actual reading lists can be adjusted to conform with available texts and library resources.

The following explains the proposed sequence and offers a suggested method of employment. Please note that it is an elaboration of the above outline:

I. Selection of students:

As stated earlier, this paper offers enthusiastic and gifted students an opportunity for independent study and an intellectual

challenge. However, marks should not be the only criteria. Particularly enthusiastic future historians should be given a chance. The real emphasis is reading, comprehension, and writing an acceptable paper.

II. Initial lecture on computer use:

As previously mentioned, computer literacy is desired, but should the teacher not feel competent, a guest lecturer from Computer Science could easily fill the bill. It will be remembered that the only instructions required are:

1. turning on the computer and peripherals
2. loading the disk
3. following the programmes and instructions
4. turning off the equipment

Additional instruction could include the use of a Word Processor and Printer which would allow the student quick copies of bibliographies as required or printouts of essays and reports.

III. Assignments/Timetable/Study Material:

While the CMI automatically assigns the written portions of the module and instructs the student to prepare for Test 2, the teacher may wish to personally brief the group. Time is the prerogative of the teacher; however, the recommended period should not exceed three weeks of independent study. The conduct, control, and extent of free time given the students can vary.

Ideally, they will simply vanish after the first lecture and instructions, only to magically reappear two weeks later fully tested, well read, and clutching their essays or reports on the Seven Years War.

IV. Student Study Module:

This contains the suggested general readings and is a precis of the North American War. While not exhaustive, it nevertheless contains the key information required for a high school student's study of the war. The intent is to allow the individual time for personal reading and preparation of papers by providing him with an easily memorized body of facts which are the source of future tests. The Student Module is self explanatory. Senior students who follow the CMI instructions will find it sufficiently clear and should not require teacher guidance.

V. Student Background Reading:

This is a streamlined version of Chapter 3 with pedagogical references and instructions to teachers deleted. The aim is to complement the suggested readings offered in the CMI and provide the student with an overview which may assist him in the final choice of topic for research or book report.

VI. Computer Managed Instruction (CMI):

The CMI is designed to enable the teacher to release his charges for two to three weeks of independent study. In theory,

save for mechanical breakdown, there need be no further contact. The CMI presumes two important items : firstly, the students are familiar with essay and book report styles and secondly, the school has guides available for students engaged in writing formal papers. The CMI is composed of two tests and one instructional programme.

1. TEST 1:

This is found on Disk 1. It contains a survey of initial student knowledge. No preparation is required. The test may only be taken once and must be completed within the first two days of the programme. Results are automatically recorded and sorted for the teacher to review privately, at leisure.

2. The CMI Viewed:

The CMI is found on Disk 2. It is designed to guide the student through the following sequence: Introduction to the programme; confirmation TEST 1 has been completed (if not, programme halts and student is directed to take the test); confirmation that Student Module has been issued and in student's possession; confirmation Student Background Reading has been issued and read (if not, programme halts and directs student to read precis which will give him a reasonable introduction to the topic); outline of project CHOICES; option for Bibliographies and reading guides; STUDENT REGISTRATION;

instructions regarding mark values, time sequence, and final test; instructions for **Independent Research and Study.**

3. **TEST 2:**

This is to be taken as instructed by the CMI (teachers can **adjust mark values, time alloted, and options** as required to tailor fit course requirements, class or personal schedule). Test 2 is prepared for simply by studying the Student Module.

VII. **Assignments:**

These are to be submitted as instructed. All data regarding student registration, selected topics, and test results are recorded on the CMI disk for future reference. The project terminates upon submission of the student project and grading by the teacher.

IMPORTANT: Students must sign out for disks and be cautioned that tests are only taken ONCE. The CMI may be viewed as often as requested. Control of disks is important and students are to be cautioned about care of the software.

Control methods are left to the teacher's discretion or the established operational procedures of his school. Should a full time Computer Science Technician be available to run the centre and control disk lending, so much the better. Technicians free the teacher and make this study experiment truly independent.

Further clarification is best achieved by simply previewing the included disks. The auxiliary readings and two run throughs on the CMI itself should be sufficient for teacher mastery of this programme.

CHAPTER 5

Student Study Module

This module is composed of ten sections and presents the acceptable minimum information required to stand for examination in a Canadian History course that includes the Seven Years War. An outline of the module is presented at this time.

I. Geography

- A. French advantage and British disadvantage
  1. French advantage
  2. British Disadvantage
- B. Lakes and Rivers
  1. St. Lawrence
  2. Richelieu River - Lake Champlain - Hudson River
  3. Ohio River Valley - Mohawk River - Great Lakes
- C. Mountain Ranges
- D. Boundaries of New France
  1. Treaty of Utrecht (1713)
  2. Treaty of Aix La Chapelle (1748)
  3. Ohio Valley Claims (1749)
  4. Review of Boundaries

II. Routes of Communications and Fortifications

- A. Communications
- B. Function and Value of Forts

III. Causes of the War

- A. Two Theatres
- B. Economic Tensions
- C. Westward Expansion
- D. Fur Trade
- E. Religious and Racial Rivalries

IV. Outline of Key Events

A.	1749-1754	:	Fortification of Ohio River Valley
B.	1755	:	Braddock at Duquesne
C.	1756	:	Montcalm's Offensive
D.	1757	:	Pitt's Counterattack
E.	1758	:	Louisbourg
F.	1759	:	Plains of Abraham
G.	1760	:	Ste. Foy and Capitulation
H.	1760-1763	:	British Military Gov't in New France
I.	1763	:	The Treaty of Paris

V. Key Personalities

A. French

1. Bigot
2. de Levis
3. Dieskau
4. Montcalm
5. Vaudreuil

B. British

1. Amherst
2. Braddock
3. Pitt
4. Saunders
5. Murray
6. Washington
7. Wolfe

VI. Comparison of the Opposing Sides

A. Population
B. Troops
C. Troop Deployment
D. Agricultural Resources
E. Allies

VII. Comparison of Opposing Strategies

A. Global Grand Strategies
B. North American Strategies

VIII. Key and Decisive Battles

A. Fort Duquesne
B. Fort Carillon
C. Fortress Louisbourg
D. The Plains of Abraham
E. Sainte Foy

IX. Capitulation and the Future of French Canada

A. Articles of Capitulation
B. British Policy Towards Canada and French Canadians
C. Decapitation of French Society

X. The Treaty of Paris 1763

A. Terms

Instructions to the Student

The following is a precis of the section dealing with the Seven Years War. Although this is a Spartan account of the conflict, it nevertheless contains all the information required for examination on the module.

The student is instructed to commit the information to memory and cross reference with the MAPS and TEXT references provided.

A richer appreciation of the era will be achieved after completing the CMI and its recommended readings.

Upon completion and mastery of the information below, the student may elect to take TEST 2. This test will partially fulfill the requirements for term marks and will count for (teacher's choice) % of the term.

The remaining term marks will be based on the project selected from the CMI options.

STUDY MODULE

The Seven Years War

Canadian History 44

Text Ref: H.H.Herstein et al, Challenge and Survival. (Prentice Hall of Canada, Scarborough, 1970)

NOTE: The above reference suggests full reading required from the following pages - 19,38,68,78-88,91-95. Specific Seven Years War material can be found on pp 86-95.

I. Geography

A. French advantage and British Disadvantage:

1. Geography dominated the conduct of the war. The French enjoyed the advantage of the St. Lawrence River and Great Lakes System which allowed them direct access to the interior of North America and permitted rapid exploration, expansion, and territorial claim. (See Map Annex C)

2. The British suffered from a geographical disadvantage in that their colonies were pinned to the east coast by the Appalachian Mountains thus making westward exploration and expansion most difficult. Further, the French blocked the river routes and valleys leading to the west with a network of forts.

B. Lakes and Rivers:

1. St. Lawrence: Known as the life line of New France. It connected the fur trade areas of the North and West to the colony. Its tributaries led to the defence line of the Appalachians. It connected the colony to the Atlantic Ocean,

Acadia, and the mother country, France. It was the sole communication route for trade, logistics, and reinforcements.

2. Richelieu - Lake Champlain - Hudson River: This valley region led directly from Montreal to New York. It was strategically vital. It represented the southern defence of New France and the northern British attack route to the heart of the French colony. It was the area of concentration for the Iroquois.

3. Ohio River Valley, Mohawk River, and Great Lakes: The Ohio Valley was desired by American colonists in that it was vital for expansion. The Ohio River connected with the Mississippi River. The Mohawk River was the only British approach to Lake Ontario and the vital trade centre of Fort Oswego. The Mohawk outflanked the Champlain Valley. The Great Lakes connected the French to the west, mid-west, and south to the Gulf of Mexico. The Great Lakes and the Ottawa River connected New France to the Fur Trade Empire.

C. **Mountain Ranges:**

1. The American colonies were located between the Atlantic Coast and the Appalachian Mountains. The Appalachian Range ran Northeast-Southwest and formed a rough boundary between New France and the American Colonies (see Map Annex C).

D. **Boundaries of New France:**

1. Treaty of Utrecht 1713 (see Map Annex C). French must surrender control of **Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, and Acadia** to England.

2. Treaty of Aix La Chapelle 1748 (see Map Annex C). French lose Louisbourg during war but have it returned in this treaty.

3. French claim Ohio Valley 1749 and seal off British colonies preventing westward expansion - a direct cause of the war.

4. A review of the boundaries will illustrate the Geographic advantage of the French and illustrate that the primary route of communication was the St. Lawrence and the secondary routes included the Great Lakes, the Ottawa River, the Richelieu River, Lake Champlain, the Ohio River, and the Mississippi River.

II. Routes of Communication and Fortification

A. **Communications:**

1. New France was economically outflanked by the British fur forts in Hudson Bay. The Hudson area was the main source of furs. The British posts allowed ocean going transports direct access from European ports. The French had to travel long distances and use a complicated chain of middle men to acquire furs. The furs taken by the French had to be canoed and portaged to New France before being loaded on transports.

2. New France was militarily outflanked by the British presence in Newfoundland and Acadia. The St. Lawrence and the Gulf of St. Lawrence were the only link from New France to Europe. The only protection existing was the fortress of Louisbourg on Isle Royale (Cape Breton). Louisbourg was threatened by British ports in Newfoundland and the new fortress of Halifax built by the British in Acadia. French communications were easily blocked by British naval units operating from New England, Acadia, and Newfoundland.

3. In summary, New France was outflanked and threatened militarily and economically by the American colonies to the south. The American colonies outnumbered the French Canadians forty to one. The Americans also aimed to acquire the lands west of the Ohio Valley.

B. **Function and value of forts:**

Forts were a safe defendable centre for supplies, rest, and rehabilitation. They were a centre for fur trade operations, a base for military and guerilla operations, linked own communications, threatened the communications of others, and required long complicated sieges to capture. No army or fleet could advance into New France with a garrisoned enemy fort masking its line of communications. Therefore, French forts had to be captured in a step-by-step process before the colony itself could be attacked.

Attacks on French forts in the wilderness (Duquesne, Frederick, Carillon) required a full year of preparation. Roads had to be built for artillery and supply trains and an extensive build up of supplies had to be stockpiled in dumps which were usually in forts close to the battle area in order to support a campaign.

British advances and communications were always harassed by the Indians allied to the French, courreur des Bois, or Troops de la Marine which made wilderness campaign risky and usually unsuccessful.

Fortresses capable of being assaulted in orthodox continental style, which consisted of regular troops, siege works, siege artillery, and naval support, were state of the art examples of eighteenth century military technology. Attacking armies required extensive build up, logistic support, and time. The timely arrival of a naval squadron could lift the siege and trap the attacking army on the shore.

Therefore, the vast monies spent by the French crown on North American fortifications can be appreciated particularly when one considers that the key approaches to the colony were Louisbourg, Quebec, and Carillon.

III. Causes of the War

A. Two Theatres:

The student must separate the Seven Years War into two theatres - Continental Europe where the bulk of the fighting occurred and colonial war in North America. The European theatre saw the major powers of France, Austria-Hungary, and Russia against England and Prussia while the colonial theatre witnessed the French Regular, Colonial, and Militia forces battling their British counterparts. This war was better known as The French and Indian War in the American colonies.

B. Economic Tensions:

These tensions occurred because all major colonial powers accepted the Mercantilistic theory of trade and expansion. Mercantilism is an economic theory that a nation gained strength and greatness by achieving self-sufficiency. To accomplish this, a country must surround herself with colonies which would serve as a source of raw materials and a market for manufactured products. This trading system would be closed to other nations, stimulate trade and shipping between the mother country and her colonies and would also free her from dependence on other potentially hostile states.

C. Westward Expansion:

The causes of the continental war are complex and may be set aside in favour of the North American conflict which concerns us more. The rise of tensions, economic rivalry, and religious differences that finally broke out in a declared war was not new to North America. Quebec, Acadia, and Louisbourg had all been attacked before. The key element was the western land of the Ohio valley so necessary to American expansion and controlled by a handful of French Canadian troops and traders. It was this American colonial desire to wrest the Ohio River Valley from French control which would allow them to expand westward that was one of the major contributing causes of the war.

D. The Fur Trade:

Competition in the fur trade resulted in British incursions into the Ohio area and trade forts on Lake Ontario which cut sharply into French profits. The fur trade was a vital economic consideration for New France's single staple economy. The French fortification of the Ohio and the repulsion of American economic forays resulted in a British resolve to wrest the west from France through small frontier military operations that hopefully would stop short of a declared war. They did not.

E. Religious and Racial Rivalries:

Savage partisan border warfare had long embittered both sides. The Indian tribal loyalties were pawns in the battle of

conversion. The French treatment of the Huguenots, French Protestants, in their own nation did nothing to improve relations with Anglican England or the generally protestant frontier in America made up largely of Calvinist Scots and Lutheran Germans. The expulsion of the Acadians further heightened the religious enmity between the Catholic French and the British colonies.

IV. Outline of Key Events

A. 1749-1754:

The French formally claim and fortify the Ohio River Valley. American expeditions by colonial militia led by commissioned land gentry (Washington) are defeated by the French. Falling trade and expansion force the British to plan a strategic takeover of key western areas to force the French back to 1714 positions.

B. 1755:

General Braddock, heading an army of regular British troops and American militia, is defeated by Baron Dieskau's Indian and French forces while attempting to capture Fort Duquesne and control of the Ohio area. This marks the first major battle of the war although hostilities will not formally begin until 1756. The British expel the Acadians for refusing to take the Test Oath.

C. 1756:

French General Montcalm begins a successful offensive against the British which sees him capture Fort Oswego, a major fur trade and staging post on Lake Ontario, and Fort William Henry which was in the Lake George area and a staging area for the invasion of New France along the Champlain/Richelieu route. This action postponed the invasion of French Canada for two years.

D. 1757:

William Pitt becomes British Prime Minister and redirects English strategy to an "America first" policy where British positional advantage and naval supremacy could bring about quick victory.

E. 1758:

The British launch a three pronged offensive against Canada. Fort Duquesne: Outflanked by the capture of Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario, the French abandon Duquesne, the Ohio Valley, and the mid-west. Fort Carillon: A direct invasion of New France was defeated by Montcalm in a major victory against a superior British force. Fortress Louisbourg: Was captured by combined operations of British navy and army; this represented a military disaster for France. New France was now open to direct naval assault through the St. Lawrence River. The French now concentrate on defence at Fortress Quebec and delay actions in south and west by screening forces composed of regulars, militia, and Indians.

F. 1759:

The Battle of the Plains of Abraham: British General James Wolfe defeats Montcalm and captures Quebec after a siege of two months. French keep up delay actions on frontiers; main army retires to Montreal.

G. 1760:

The Battle of Ste. Foy: General de Levis defeats the British Army before Quebec but fails to capture the city. Siege lifted by the arrival of the British Fleet and the French retreat to Montreal. Three British armies advance on Montreal from the west, south, and east. French forces surrender and sign Articles of Capitulation in North America.

H. 1760-1763:

British military government in Canada by occupation army. Governor Murray pursues policy of leniency and conciliation.

I. 1763:

The Treaty of Paris formally ends the Seven Years War.

V. Key Personalities

A. French:

1. Francois Bigot: Last intendant of New France. Shrewdly competent but corrupt. Political manoeuvres against Montcalm did little to help New France during the war.

2. Chevalier de Levis: Second in command to Montcalm. Loyal, energetic, militarily and politically skilled. Assumed command of French forces after Quebec and won the Battle of Ste. Foy - driving the British army into Quebec City. After the British navy lifted siege, he retired to Montreal where he surrendered formally.

3. Baron Dieskau: Commander in chief of French ground forces in America. Important victory at Duquesne but later captured at Fort William Henry in an unsuccessful attempt at capture, although he did check an invasion of New France.

4. General, the Marquis de Montcalm: Replaced Dieskau as commander of French troops. Skilled and energetic, his conduct of frontier operations brought France victories and time despite being outnumbered and low in resources. Political conflicts with the civilian government made his task difficult and may have hastened defeat. Montcalm died of wounds received at the Battle of the Plains of Abraham.

5. Marquis de Vaudreuil: Last Royal Governor of New France. Born in the colony and sympathetic to the plights of Canadians against the mercantilist interests of foreign policy.

Not particularly competent and duped by Bigot. His jealousy of Montcalm and interference in military affairs may well have decided the fate of Quebec in 1759.

B. **British:**

1. General Jeffrey Amherst: Commander in chief of British ground forces in America in 1759, replacing General Abercrombie. Victor at the seige of Louisbourg.

2. General Edward Braddock: Commanded British American forces invading Ohio Valley in 1755. Defeated and killed at the Battle of Fort Duquesne.

3. Sir William Pitt: Youngest Prime Minister in British history. Redirected British grand strategy to include a ground force in Europe to assist Prussia but concentrate on colonial campaigns against France supported by the superiority of the British Navy.

4. Admiral Saunders: Commanded British fleet that carried Wolfe's army to Quebec. Without his navigational skills and determination the British may well have never reached Quebec.

5. General James Murray: Brigadier to Wolfe at Louisbourg and Quebec. Assumed command of army after Abraham battle. Defeated at Ste. Foy but went on to become military governor of New France and later the first British civilian Governor General.

6. General George Washington: Virginia land owner and militia officer. Participated in early battles in Ohio Valley (Duquesne); eventual commander of American Revolutionary armies and first President of the United States of America.

7. General James Wolfe: Distinguished himself during the amphibious assault and subsequent siege of Louisbourg. Given command of British forces for Quebec campaign. Outmaneuvered Montcalm to win the Battle of the Plains of Abraham where he was mortally wounded.

VI. Comparison of the Opposing Sides

A. Population:

The British colonies outnumbered the French by twenty-three to one. New France had 70,000 colonists compared to 1,610,000 for New England.

B. Troops:

The French had 6,800 available regular troops with up to 13,000 irregulars which included militia and Troops de la Marine. The Troops de la Marine were, in fact, Canadians serving in the military, normally on garrison duty, and so called because New France was administered by the Department of the Navy. Once war was officially declared and British naval blockade began, no further reinforcements reached Canada. England eventually deployed 31,000 regulars in North America supported by 20,000

militia. The British could easily replace losses and reinforce where required using their naval superiority.

C. Troop Deployment:

The French were forced to deploy their forces to cover the vital positions at Carillon and Louisbourg as well as retain a reserve in case the western approaches or Louisbourg fell. Both occurred. Montcalm met Wolfe with all available troops which meant covering forces at Lake Champlain and a flying column above Quebec in case the British bypassed and attacked Cap Rouge.

The British had the advantage of exterior lines, naval superiority, unlimited resources and money, and available troops. Given all this, they could strike where they pleased and it is to their credit that the French managed to postpone defeat for so long.

D. Agricultural Resources:

New France had no industry to speak of and was totally dependent on supply from Europe. Her economy consisted exclusively of exports of raw materials such as fur and fish. The St. Lawrence valley supported little important agriculture and certainly not enough to feed the colonists and a large army.

The thirteen colonies were at least ten times richer in agriculture and had developing industries. Further, the quality of British manufactured goods, for trade and retail, was considerably superior to the French.

E. Allies:

The English and Prussians were heavily outnumbered in Europe but this meant little in terms of global strategy since there were no credible fleets, save the French, to challenge the British Navy.

Most St. Lawrence tribes allied themselves to the French except the Iroquois confederacy whose five nations served both French and English armies.

The French made better use of their Indian allies and the Battle of Fort Duquesne is generally acknowledged as primarily an Indian victory.

VII. Comparison of Opposing Strategies

A. Global Grand Strategies:

The main concern for all combatants centered on Europe. Colonial interests dotted the globe. The French were more concerned about the value of their Far East and especially West Indies possessions than Canada. French strategy was victory in Europe first, primarily because her large population and army made a land victory more likely than overseas contests which required secure naval routes.

Britain's size and small professional army made direct battle with the continental powers impossible; however, her vast wealth and superiority at sea permitted far flung campaigns that weakened her opponents and enriched her treasury. Further, The

British colonies in America would not allow England to ignore a campaign against Canada.

B. North American Strategies:

Outnumbered and badly outflanked, the French had no option but to defend behind the Appalachians and react to British thrusts. This included holding the Forts of the wilderness and coastal frontiers - a front that extended from Cape Breton to the Great Lakes! However, Montcalm achieved local initiative by going to the offensive in 1756-57.

The British enjoyed a greatly superior position but had to attack in order to win. Considering the advantage of defence to offence in the eighteenth century, the quality of French fortifications as well as their superiority in frontier fighting, this was to prove a difficult contest.

The English strategy was to attack on a broad front to ensure the meager French forces would remain split and threaten New France from the south, east, and west.

Of considerable importance to the American businessmen and land speculators who enjoyed a lobby at Whitehall was the Ohio Valley. One part of British planning was to quickly secure this land which would effectively cut New France off from the fur trade of the west and threaten it from the rear.

Given subsequent setbacks in the frontier battles, the British settled on utilizing their strength against French weaknesses and fight conventional European battles. Hence, the

reason for the campaigns against Louisbourg and Quebec. The direct assault against a fortress was costly and time consuming, but considering the British record in the forests, proved the most productive.

VIII. Key and Decisive Battles

A. Battle of Fort Duquesne 1755:

French and Indian victory over the British. 1400 regulars and 400 militia defeated by 200-300 French.

Result: French continue to control Ohio Valley; British trade posts exposed to attack and soon destroyed, eliminating trade. British failure leads to broadening of war.

B. Battle of Fort Carillon 1758:

French victory over the British. Montcalm's 3500 regulars defeat Abercrombie's 15,000 regulars and militia.

Result: Invasion from south halted further British action which was postponed for twelve months; New France could redeploy troops to meet attack on Quebec.

C. Battle of Fortress Louisbourg 1758:

British victory. The "Gibraltar of North America" falls. 28,000 British besiege and capture 6000 French regulars.

Result: With the fall of this great fortress, the route into

the heart of New France lay open to the British Navy. The Quebec campaign followed.

D. **Battle of the Plains of Abraham 1759:** (Quebec Campaign) British victory. Wolfe's combined force of 40,000 seamen and soldiers transported in 120 ships defeat Montcalm's army of 2900 regulars and 13,000 militia after a prolonged campaign that included one failed attack at Beauport.

Result: Quebec was captured; French army retires to Montreal for winter quarters. French frontier forces delay two other British armies and campaigning ceases until spring.

E. **Battle of Sainte Foy 1760:**

French victory. De Levis' army of 7000 defeats Murray's 3900 men and the French lay siege to Quebec.

Result: The besieging French force awaited supplies and reinforcements from Europe. The arrival of a British fleet lifted the siege and forced de Levis to retreat to Montreal and await the arrival of the British.

IX. Capitulation and the Future of French Canada

A. **Articles of Capitulation:**

By the end of the summer of 1760, three British armies had surrounded the last French forces and the Royal government of New France in Montreal. These armies consisted of: General

Bradstreet's army from Lake Ontario which had captured Fort Frontenac and forced the French to abandon the west and Ohio; General Amherst's army from the Champlain Valley; General Murray's army from Quebec.

Vaudreuil accepted inevitable defeat but refused unconditional surrender. After negotiations with Amherst, he signed the "Articles of Capitulation" which surrendered all French forces and fortifications in North America.

B. British Policy Towards Canada and French Canadians:

Since the war in Europe continued, New France was governed by the British military force. The military governor, Murray, pursued a policy of leniency, conciliation, and justice in order to gain the confidence and possibly the friendship of the Canadians.

C. Decapitation of French Society:

The Articles of Capitulation made provision for those French nationals who wished to leave the colony to be transported to France. Government officials, the civil service, the army, merchants, and business took advantage of this offer.

The Canadians chose to remain in the land of their birth. French Canadian historians suggest this was the "decapitation" of New France because all leadership was lost save for the Catholic Church which promptly filled the vacuum. It is argued that what resulted was an imbalance of religious authority

as the only interface between the agrarian Quebecois and the English Protestant businessmen and politicians. Quebec was to remain dominated by the influence of the Church until the Quiet Revolution of the 1960's.

X. The Treaty of Paris 1763

A. Terms:

The conclusion of the war in Europe forever changed the future of Canada. The French regime was replaced by British government. Important items in the terms of the treaty were:

1. France gave up all claims to Canada, Cape Breton, and Acadia.
2. France was given the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon as fortified fishing stations and fishing rights off the coast of Newfoundland.
3. Canadians were granted the right to practice their Catholic religion and freedom of worship.

APPENDIX A

Disks

I. Contents: The following disks comprise Appendix A:

A. Disk 1 : Test 1
B. Disk 2 : CMI Disk
C. Disk 3 : Test 2

II. Aim: Appendix A is designed to manage the independent study of the Seven Years War through computerized testing, a CMI, and supporting readings. The contents of these disks will instruct, test, and record.

III. Teacher Instructions:

A. Disks are sensitive. Do not do any of the following :
1. Bend
2. Scratch
3. Spill liquids
4. Write directly on or over
5. Place close to magnets
6. Place in direct sunlight

B. Secure with library or computer technician

C. Establish a registration policy for disks

D. Ensure students are briefed on operation procedures

IV. Disk loading:

A. "BASIC" or "BASIC XL" Cartridge required

B.

Programme	Loading Code
1. Test 1	LOAD "D:TEST1"
2. Recsread 1	LOAD "D:RECSREAD.1"
3. Test 2	LOAD "D:TEST2"
4. Recsread 2	LOAD "D:RECSREAD.2"
5. Main CMI	LOAD "D:MED.CMI"

* NOTE *

Type loading codes exactly as shown. Do not add spaces or alter punctuation in any way, shape, or form.

APPENDIX B

Computer Programme Printouts

I. Contents: Appendix B contains the following printouts:

A. Test 1 : Question Programme
B. Test 1 : Student Records Programme
C. Test 1 : Student Record Read Programme
D. Test 2 : Question Programme
E. Test 2 : Student Records Programme
F. Test 2 : Student Record Read Programme
G. CMI : Tutorial Programme
H. CMI : Student Record Read Programme

II. Aim: Appendix B is designed to control the studying of the Seven Years War module by the student through computer assisted and computer managed instruction. The programmes contained herein will instruct, test, and record results.

III. Teacher Instructions: These programmes are meant for your assistance when adjusting programmes. Do not issue to students. Preview on disk first.

* NOTE * If the teacher is computer literate, these printouts will allow him to adjust each programme to suit his particular class needs or rewrite for IBM/Apple etc machines.

It forms a good base for any History CMI desired.

The programmes have been reasonably "idiot-proofed". However, should any difficulties arise, particularly during student input, simply start over.

APPENDIX C

Maps and Illustrations

I. **Maps:** The contents are as follows:

A. Canada/North America : After the Treaty of Utrecht

B. Canada/North America : Campaign theatres of the Seven Years War

C. The St. Lawrence theatre of operation

D. The Quebec Campaign : Quebec City area and The Plains of Abraham

II. **Illustrations:** Contains the following:

A. Uniforms of France

B. Uniforms of England

C. Vauban Fortifications

D. Flintlock Musket

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APPENDIX B

TITLE :
COMPUTER PROGRAMME PRINTOUTS

CONTENTS:
APPENDIX B CONTAINS THE FOLLOWING PRINTOUTS -

1.TEST 1 :QUESTION PROGRAM
2.TEST 1 :STUDENT RECORDS PROGRAM
3.TEST 1 :STUDENT RECORD READ PROGRAM
4.TEST 2 :QUESTION PROGRAM
5.TEST 2 :STUDENT RECORDS
6.TEST 2 :STUDENT RECORD READ PROGRAM
4.CMI :TUTORIAL PROGRAM
5.CMI :STUDENT RECORD READ PROGRAMME

AIM :
APPX A IS DESIGNED TO CONTROL THE STUDING OF THE SEVEN YEARS WAR MODULE BY THE STUDENT THROUGH COMPUTER ASSISTED AND COMPUTER MANAGED INSTRUCTION.

THESE PROGRAMS WILL:
INSTRUCT
TEST
RECORD

TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS:
- FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE WHEN ADJUSTING PROGRAMS
- DO NOT ISSUE TO STUDENTS
- PREVIEW ON DISK **FIRST**

NOTE:
IF THE TEACHER IS COMPUTER LITERATE THESE PRINTOUTS WILL ALLOW HIM TO ADJUST EACH PROGRAM TO SUIT HIS PARTICLAR CLASS NEEDS OR REWRITE FOR IBM/APPLE/etc MACHINES.

IT FORMS A GOOD BASE FOR ANY HISTORY CMI DESIRED.

PROGRAMS HAVE BEEN REASONABLY "IDIOT PROOFED".
HOWEVER
SHOULD ANY DIFFICULTIES ARISE; PARTICULARLY DURING STUDENT INPUT; SIMPLY "RESET" (STOP; START OVER).

```
100 Rem .     TESTBANK-PROGRAM
110 Rem .     85/04/21
120 Rem .     ROMAN J JARYMOWYCZ
130 Rem .     MED MONOGRAPH
140 Rem .
150 Rem .       PROGRAM SETS UP FILE OF TEST QUESTIONS
160 Rem .
170 Rem .       VARIABLES:
180 Rem .         Q$().........QUESTIONS
190 Rem .         C$().........CHOICES
200 Rem .         AN$().......CORRECT ANSWERS
220 Rem .         CNT..........COUNTS RECORDS
230 Rem .         CHANGE......FLAG
240 Rem .
250 Rem .       DIMENSION:
260 Rem .
270 Dim Q$(120),C$(120),An$(1)
280 Rem .
310 Rem .
320 Rem .
330 Rem .      CREATE FILE
340 Rem .
350 Goto 370
360 Gosub 830
370 Trap 360
380 Open #1,9,0,"D:QUESTION.DAT"
390 Trap 40000
400 Goto 420
410 Gosub 900
420 Trap 410
430 Open #2,9,0,"D:CHOICES.DAT"
440 Trap 40000
450 Goto 470
460 Gosub 970
470 Trap 460
480 Open #3,9,0,"D:ANSWERS.DAT"
490 Trap 40000
500 Graphics 0
510 ? "IF NO MORE DATA TYPE '*END*'":Print
520 Cnt=Cnt+1
530 ? "ENTER INFO FOR QUESTION * ";Cnt;" *"
540 ? :? "QUESTION :":?
550 Input Q$:If Q$="*END*" Then Close #1:Close #2:Goto 760
570 ? :? Q$
580 Gosub 800:Rem .   ALLOWS EDITING
590 If Change=1 Then Change=0:Goto 530
600 ? #1;Q$
610   For I=1 To 4
620   ? :? "CHOICES :":?
630   Input C$
650   ? :? C$:Gosub 800
660   ?
670   If Change=1 Then Change=0:Goto 620
680   ? #2;C$
690   Next I
700 ? :? "ANSWER IS :";:Input An$
710 ? :? "ANSWER TYPED : ";An$
720 Gosub 800
730 If Change=1 Then Change=0:Goto 700
740 ? #3;An$
750 Goto 500
760 End
770 Rem .
780 Rem . EDITING ROUTINE
790 Rem .
```

```
810 Trap 810:Input Change:Trap 32000
820 Return
830 Rem .
840 Rem .     OPEN NEW FILE
850 Rem .
860 Close #1
870 Open #1,8,0,"D:QUESTION.DAT"
880 Close #1
890 Return
900 Rem .
910 Rem .     OPEN NEW FILE
920 Rem .
930 Close #2
940 Open #2,8,0,"D:CHOICES.DAT"
950 Close #2
960 Return
970 Rem .
980 Rem .     OPEN NEW FILE
990 Rem .
1000 Close #3
1010 Open #3,8,0,"D:ANSWERS.DAT"
1020 Close #3
1030 Return
```

```
110 Rem .     33/0-/2..
120 Rem .     RONAN J JARYMOWYCZ
125 Rem .     MED MONOGRAPH
130 Rem .
140 Rem .     PROGRAM OPENS FILE WITH STUDENT NAMES.
150 Rem .     READS TEST QUESTIONS FROM FILE.
160 Rem .     STORES RESPONSES AND SCORES EACH STUDENT.
170 Rem .
180 Rem .     VARIABLES:
190 Rem .
200 Rem .          LNAME$().....LAST NAME
210 Rem .          FNAME$().....FIRST NAME
220 Rem .          Q$().........QUESTIONS
230 Rem .          C$().........CHOICES
240 Rem .          AN$().........ANSWERS
250 Rem .          REC$().......RECORD
260 Rem .          SAN$().......STUDENT ANSWER
270 Rem .          BL$().........BLANK STRING
280 Rem .          SREC$()......STUDENT RECORD STRING
290 Rem .          CORR$()......VALUE FOR ANSWER
300 Rem .
310 Rem .       DIMENSIONS:
320 Rem .
330 Dim Lname$(15),Fname$(10),Q$(150),C$(70),An$(1),San$(1),Bl$(78),Srec$(78),Co
rr$(1),Score$(3),Change$(1)
350 Rem .
360 Rem .      BLANK STRINGS
370 Rem .
380 Bl$=" ":Bl$(78)=Bl$:Bl$(2)=Bl$
390 Rem .
400 Rem .      MAIN PROGRAM
410 Rem .
420 Gosub 1130:Rem .  TITLE PAGE
450 Goto 500
460 Gosub 960:Rem . FILE CREATED?
470 Rem .
480 Rem .      OPENS STUDENT FILE
490 Rem .
500 Trap 460
510 Open #4,9,0,"D:STUDREC.DAT"
515 Trap 40000
520 Srec$=Bl$
525 Graphics 0:Setcolor 2,0,14:Setcolor 4,0,14:Setcolor 1,0,4
530 Print "PLEASE ENTER YOUR LAST NAME:":Print
540 Input Lname$
550 Print :Print "PLEASE ENTER YOUR FIRST NAME :":Print
560 Input Fname$
570 If Len(Lname$)<15 Then Lname$(Len(Lname$)+1)=Bl$
580 If Len(Fname$)<10 Then Fname$(Len(Fname$)+1)=Bl$
590 Print #4;Lname$;
600 Print #4;Fname$;
612 ? :? :? "THIS IS TEST 1 OF THE STUDENT MODULE":? "DEALING WITH THE SEVEN YEA
RS WAR"
614 ? "THIS TEST REQUIRES NO PREVIOUS STUDY":? :? "ITS AIM IS TO SIMPLY ASSESS Y
OUR LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE BEFORE"
616 ? "YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE READINGS":? "AND RESEARCH THAT MAKES UP THIS MODUL
E"
620 Gosub 1030:Rem KEYBOARD CONTROL
625 Gosub 1250:Rem .  STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS
630 Gosub 1030:Rem KEYBOARD CONTROL
640 Gosub 1400:Rem .  REMINDERS
650 Gosub 1030
660 Rem .
670 Rem .     READS QUESTIONS
680 Rem .
```

```
690 Open #2,4,0,"D:QUES.DAT"
695 Open #3,4,0,"D:ANSWERS.DAT"
700   For X=1 To 25
710   ? "QUESTION NUMBER ";X
720   Input #1;Q$
725   ? :?
730   Print Q$
735   ? :?
736     For I=1 To 4
738     Input #2;C$
740     Print C$
750     Next I
755   Position 2,21
760   Print "ANSWER (A-B-C-D) PLEASE : ";
770   Input San$
780   If Asc(San$)<65 Or Asc(San$)>68 Then Position 2,21:? "  ";:Goto 760
785   Gosub 2000:Rem .  OPTION TO CHANGE MIND
787   Input #3;An$
790   If San$=An$ Then Srec$(25+2*X,25+2*X)=Chr$(52):Goto 810
800   Srec$(25+2*X,25+2*X)=Chr$(48)
810   Corr$=Srec$(25+2*X,25+2*X)
820   Print #4;San$;
830   Print #4;Corr$;
840   ? Chr$(125)
850   Next X
860 Sum=0
870   For X=1 To 25:Sum=Sum+Val(Srec$(25+2*X,25+2*X)):Next X
880 Srec$(76,78)=Str$(Sum)
890 Score$=Srec$(76,78)
900 If Len(Score$)<3 Then Score$(Len(Score$)+1)=Bl$
910 Print #4;Score$
920 ? :? :? :? "         ** END OF TEST 1 **      "
930 ? :? "     TERMINATION SEQUENCE:"
935 ? :? "         * REMOVE DISK"
937 ? :? "         * SHUT OFF DRIVE "
938 ? :? "                   COMPUTER"
939 ? :? "                   MONITOR "
940 ? :? "         * RETURN DISK TO LIBRARIAN"
942 ? :? :? " ENSURE THE LIBRARIAN HAS REGISTERED":? "          THE DISK'S RETURN
"
944 ? :? "               GOODBYE"
949 End :Rem ** END **
950 Rem .     FILE CREATED?
960 Rem .
970 Close #4
980 Open #4,8,0,"D:STUDREC.DAT"
990 Close #4
1000 Return
1010 Rem .
1020 Rem .     KEYBOARD CONTROL
1030 Rem .
1040 Open #5,4,0,"K:"
1050 Position 6,20
1060 Print "PRESS RETURN TO CONTINUE"
1070 Get #5,C
1090 If C<>155 Then 1070
1100 Close #5
1110 Print Chr$(125)
1120 Return
1130 Rem .
1140 Rem .     TITLE PAGE
1150 Rem .
1160 Graphics 18:Setcolor 2,0,0
1170 Position 3,2
1180 Print #6;"seven"
```

```
1200 Print #6;"years"
1210 Position 13,8
1220 Print #6;"war"
1222 Position 7,11
1224 Print #6;"TEST 1"
1230   For Wait=1 To 1000:Next Wait
1240 Return
1250 Rem .
1260 Rem .     STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS
1270 Rem .
1285 ? :? Fname$:?
1290 Print "YOU WILL BE GIVEN A TOTAL OF 25"
1300 Print "QUESTIONS ON THE SEVEN YEARS WAR"
1310 ? :? "THEY ARE ALL MULTIPLE CHOICE"
1320 ? :? "YOU ARE TO INDICATE YOUR ANSWER"
1330 ? "BY TYPING THE LETTER CORRESPONDING"
1340 ? "TO THE CHOICE YOU HAVE SELECTED"
1350 ? :? "YOU MUST USE UPPER CASE LETTERS "
1370 ? :? "WHEN ANSWERING THESE QUESTIONS"
1390 Return
1400 Rem .
1410 Rem .     REMINDERS
1420 Rem .
1430 Position 9,0
1440 Print "POINTS TO REMEMBER"
1460 ? :? "1. ANSWER BY TYPING ONE LETTER            (A-B-C-D) ONLY."
1470 ? :? "2. YOU WILL BE GIVEN ONE CHANCE           TO CHANGE YOUR ANSWER."
1500 ? :? "3. PRESS RETURN AFTER YOU HAVE            MADE YOUR SELECTION."
1510 ? :? "4. GOOD LUCK ";Fname$;"!!"
1520 Return
2000 Rem .
2010 Rem .    CHANGE ANSWER
2020 Rem .
2030 ? :? "ANSWER SELECTED WAS : ";San$
2040 ? "TO CHANGE YOUR MIND TYPE 'Y' ";:Input Change$
2050 If Change$<>"Y" Then 2060
2055 ? :? "YOUR ANSWER IS NOW : ";:Input San$
2060 Return
```

```
100 Rem .       "TS" READER
110 Rem .       85/04/21
120 Rem .       ROMAN J JARYMOWYCZ
130 Rem .
140 Rem .       TEST RECORD IS READ FOR EACH STUDENT.
150 Rem .       DISPLAYS SCORES,PASS,FAIL,AVERAGE
160 Rem .       AND # OF STUDENTS WHO GOT EACH QUESTION
190 Rem .
200 Rem .       VARIABLES:
210 Rem .
220 Rem .         REC$().....STUDENT RECORD
230 Rem .         NAME$().....LAST & FIRST NAME
240 Rem .         SCORE$.....LOCATION OF SCORES
250 Rem .         A().....STORES SCORES
260 Rem .         B().....STORES RIGHT/WRONG QUESTIONS
270 Rem .          REC.....COUNTER
280 Rem .          SUM.....SUMMER
290 Rem .          AVG.....AVERAGE
300 Rem .          R/C.....ROW/COLUMN FOR B()
310 Rem .
320 Rem .        DIMENSION:
330 Rem .
340 Dim A$(1),Rec$(78),Score$(5),C$(1)
350 Rem .
360 Rem .
370 Rem .        MAIN PROGRAM
380 Rem .
390 Gosub 2010:Rem .    BACKGROUND COLOR
400 Position 15,10:Print "WORKING"
410 Gosub 750:Rem .    COUNTS RECORDS IN FILE
420 Gosub 850:Rem .    STORES INFO IN ARRAYS/AVERAGES
430 Gosub 980:Rem .    STORES RIGHT/WRONG IN ARRAY
440 Rem .
450 Rem . MENU OPTIONS
460 Rem .
470 Open #1,4,0,"K:"
480 Print Chr$(125)
490 Position 5,3
500 Print "1.  STUDENTS AND SCORES"
510 Position 5,5
520 Print "2.  STUDENTS WHO PASSED"
530 Position 5,7
540 Print "3.  STUDENTS WHO FAILED"
550 Position 5,9
560 Print "4.  CLASS AVERAGE"
570 Position 5,11
580 Print "5.  NUMBER OF RIGHT/WRONG                    ANSWERS PER QUESTION"
590 Position 5,14
600 Print "6.  EXIT FROM PROGRAM"
610 Print :Print
620 Rem .
630 Rem .
640 Gosub 1190:Rem .  SELECT OPTION
650 If A$="6" Then Print Chr$(125):Close #1:Poke 752,0:End
660 Rem .
670 Rem .
680 X=Val(A$)
690 On X Gosub 1250,1380,1560,1730,1800
700 Goto 480:Rem .    REPEAT UNTIL CHOICE 6
710 End
720 Rem .
730 Rem .      COUNT RECORDS
740 Rem .
750 Open #2,4,0,"D:STUDREC.DAT"
760 Trap 800
```

```
780 Rec=Rec-1
790 Goto 760
800 Close #2
910 Return
820 Rem .
830 Rem .      STORES INFO IN ARRAYS
840 Rem .
850 Dim A(Rec),B(Rec+1,25),Name$(25*Rec)
860 Open #2,4,0,"D:STUDREC.DAT"
870   For X=1 To Rec
880   Input #2;Rec$
890   Name$(25*(X-1)+1,25*X)=Rec$(1,25)
900   Score$=Rec$(76,78)
910   A(X)=Val(Score$)
920   Sum=Sum+A(X)
930   Next X
940 Avg=Int(Sum/Rec+0.5)
950 Close #2
960 Return
970 Rem .
980 Rem .     ARRAY FOR RIGHT/WRONG ANS.
990 Rem .
1000 Open #2,4,0,"D:STUDREC.DAT"
1010   For R=1 To Rec
1020   Input #2;Rec$
1030     For C=1 To 25
1040     If Val(Rec$(25+2*C,25+2*C))=4 Then B(R,C)=1:Goto 1060
1050     B(R,C)=0
1060     Next C:Next R
1070   For C=1 To 25
1080   Tot=0
1090     For R=1 To Rec
1100     Tot=Tot+B(R,C)
1110     Next R
1120   B(Rec+1,C)=Tot
1130   Next C
1140 Close #2
1150 Return
1160 Rem .
1170 Rem .     MENU OPTION SELECTION
1180 Rem .
1190 ? "SELECT A NUMBER (1 TO 6) FROM MENU "
1200 Get #1,A
1210 A$=Chr$(A)
1220 If A$<"1" Or A$>"6" Then 1200
1230 Return
1240 Rem .
1250 Rem .     STUDENTS AND SCORES
1260 Rem .
1270 Gosub 1340
1280   For X=1 To Rec
1290   If X/10=Int(X/10) Then Gosub 1900:Gosub 1340
1300   Print Name$(25*(X-1)+1,25*X);"  ";A(X)
1310   Next X
1320 Gosub 1900
1330 Return
1340 Print Chr$(125)
1350 Print "LAST NAME       FIRST NAME  SCORE"
1360 Print :Print
1370 Return
1380 Rem .
1390 Rem .     STUDENTS WHO PASSED
1400 Rem .
1410 Gosub 1480
1420   For X=1 To Rec
```

```
1440   If A(X)>=50 Then Print Name$(25*(X-1)+1,25*X);"   ";A(X)
1450   Next X
1460 Gosub 1900
1470 Return
1480 Print Chr$(125)
1490 Position 10,2
1500 Print "STUDENTS WHO PASSED"
1510 Print :Print
1520 Print "LAST NAME       FIRST NAME  SCORE"
1530 Print :Print
1540 Return
1550 Rem .
1560 Rem .     STUDENTS WHO FAILED
1570 Rem .
1580 Gosub 1650
1590   For X=1 To Rec
1600   If X/10=Int(X/10) Then Gosub 1900:Gosub 1650
1610   If A(X)<50 Then Print Name$(25*(X-1)+1,25*X);"   ";A(X)
1620   Next X
1630 Gosub 1900
1640 Return
1650 Print Chr$(125)
1660 Position 10,2
1670 Print "STUDENTS WHO FAILED"
1680 Print :Print
1690 Print "LAST NAME       FIRST NAME  SCORE"
1700 Print :Print
1710 Return
1720 Rem .
1730 Rem .     CLASS AVERAGE
1740 Rem .
1750 Print Chr$(125)
1760 Position 10,10
1770 Print "CLASS AVERAGE IS : ";Avg
1780 Gosub 1900
1790 Return
1800 Rem ** RIGHT/WRONG ANSWERS
1810 Print Chr$(125)
1820 Print "QUESTION","# RIGHT","# WRONG"
1830 Print
1840   For X=1 To 25
1850   Print X,B(Rec+1,X),Rec-B(Rec+1,X)
1860   Next X
1870 Gosub 1900
1880 Return
1890 Rem .
1900 Rem .     KEYBOARD CONTROL
1910 Rem .
1920 Position 8,23
1930 Print "PRESS KEY C TO CONTINUE"
1940 Get #1,C
1950 C$=Chr$(C)
1960 If C$<>"C" Then 1940
1970 Return
1980 Rem .
1990 Rem .     BACKGROUND COLORS
2000 Rem .
2010 Graphics 0
2020 Setcolor 2,0,14:Setcolor 4,0,14:Setcolor 1,0,4
2030 Poke 752,1
2040 Return
2050 End
```

```
100 Rem .     TEST2A\X-PROGRAM 2
110 Rem .     85/04/21
120 Rem .     ROMAN J JARYMOWYCZ
130 Rem .     MED MONOGRAPH
140 Rem .
150 Rem .       PROGRAM SETS UP FILE OF TEST2 QUESTIONS
160 Rem .
170 Rem .       VARIABLES:
180 Rem .         Q$().....QUESTIONS
190 Rem .         C$().....CHOICES
200 Rem .         AN$().....CORRECT ANSWERS
220 Rem .         CNT.....COUNTS RECORDS
230 Rem .         CHANGE.....FLAG
240 Rem .
250 Rem .       DIMENSION:
260 Rem .
270 Dim Q$(120),C$(120),An$(1)
280 Rem .
310 Rem .
320 Rem .
330 Rem .      CREATE FILE
340 Rem .
350 Goto 370
360 Gosub 830
370 Trap 360
380 Open #1,9,0,"D:TEST2.DAT"
390 Trap 40000
400 Goto 420
410 Gosub 900
420 Trap 410
430 Open #2,9,0,"D:CHOICES2.DAT"
440 Trap 40000
450 Goto 470
460 Gosub 970
470 Trap 460
480 Open #3,9,0,"D:ANSWERS2.DAT"
490 Trap 40000
500 Graphics 0
510 ? "IF NO MORE DATA TYPE '*END*'":Print
520 Cnt=Cnt+1
530 ? "ENTER INFO FOR QUESTION * ";Cnt;" *"
540 ? :? "QUESTION :":?
550 Input Q$:If Q$="*END*" Then Close #1:Close #2:Goto 760
570 ? :? Q$
580 Gosub 800:Rem .   ALLOWS EDITING
590 If Change=1 Then Change=0:Goto 530
600 ? #1;Q$
610   For I=1 To 4
620   ? :? "CHOICES :":?
630   Input C$
650   ? :? C$:Gosub 800
660   ?
670   If Change=1 Then Change=0:Goto 620
680   ? #2;C$
690   Next I
700 ? :? "ANSWER IS :";:Input An$
710 ? :? "ANSWER TYPED : ";An$
720 Gosub 800
730 If Change=1 Then Change=0:Goto 700
740 ? #3;An$
750 Goto 500
760 End
770 Rem .
780 Rem . EDITING ROUTINE
790 Rem .
```

```
810 Trap 810:Input Change"Trap 40000
820 Return
830 Rem .
840 Rem .     OPEN NEW FILE
850 Rem .
860 Close #1
870 Open #1,8,0,"D:TEST2.DAT"
880 Close #1
890 Return
900 Rem .
910 Rem .     OPEN NEW FILE
920 Rem .
930 Close #2
940 Open #2,8,0,"D:CHOICES2.DAT"
950 Close #2
960 Return
970 Rem .
980 Rem .     OPEN NEW FILE
990 Rem .
1000 Close #3
1010 Open #3,8,0,"D:ANSWERS2.DAT"
1020 Close #3
1030 Return
```

1. The Seven Years War was fought during:

A. 1753 - 1760
B. 1756 - 1763
C. 1759 - 1766
D. 1755 - 1763

2. The "Gibraltar of North America" was the nickname given to the fortress of:

A. Carillon
B. Quebec
C. Louisbourg
D. Halifax

3. The Commander of the French Military Forces in Canada during this war was:

A. Napoleon
B. Montcalm
C. De Gaulle
D. De Saxe

4. The General Commanding the British Military Forces at the battle of Quebec was:

A. Murray
B. Wolfe
C. Pitt
D. Braddock

5. The first battle of the conflict preceded an official Declaration of War and was fought to control:

A. Lake Champlain
B. Cape Breton
C. The Ohio Valley
D. The Mohawk Valley

6. The British Prime Minister who directed the Colonial Strategy of the Seven Years War was:

A. Disraeli
B. Thatcher
C. Churchill
D. Pitt

7. The British Admiral who commanded the fleet and navigated the St. Lawrence bringing the English Army to Quebec:

A. Saunders
B. Hornblower
C. Jolicoeur
D. Bealty

8. The last Governor of New France before the British Conquest was:

A. Jean Talon
B. Frontenac
C. Vaudreuil
D. Montcalm

9. Fort Carillon (Ticonderoga) protected the southern route to New France along the:

A. St. Lawrence
B. Richelieu / Lake Champlain
C. Ohio / Lake Ontario
D. Gulf of St. Lawrence

10. In 1759 the British defeated the French forces in an important battle fought:

A. On the Plains of Abraham
B. In the Ohio Valley
C. In the Champlain Valley
D. On Cape Breton Island

11. The last Intendant of New France was:

A. Bigot
B. Vaudreuil
C. de Meullies
D. Jean Talon

12. The British arrived at the Plains of Abraham to deploy for battle by:

A. Advancing from the West through Fort Frontenac
B. Charging up the cliffs at Beauport
C. A night march from Ticonderoga
D. Climbing the cliffs at Anse de Foulon (Wolfe Cave)

13. In 1755 the colonials of Nova Scotia were deported by the British. These French Canadians were known as:

A. Les Patriotes
B. United Empire Loyalists
C. Acadians
D. Metis

14. The largest Indian confederacy which had tribes that were allied to both French and English in the war were:

A. The Sioux
B. The Hurons
C. The Iroquois
D. The Montagenais

15. The basic infantry weapon of the Eighteenth Century was the:

A. Bow and arrow
B. Flintlock Musket
C. Rifle
D. Spear and Broadsword

16. The British Army had recruited which type of Mercenaries and aliens for the North American conflict:

A. Americans and Spaniards
B. Scots and Hessians (Germans)
C. Dutch and Foreign Legionnaires
D. Samurai and Shutzstaffel

17. The French Empire in North America extended from the Gulf of St.Lawrence to the Great Lakes and:

A. North to Hudson Bay and South to the mouth of the Hudson
B. West to Lake Winnipeg and South to Lake Michigan
C. West to the Rockies and South to the Gulf of Mexico
D. North to Hudson Bay and South to Florida

18. The British outflanked the French militarily and crippled the fur trade by:

A. Their extensive control of the Hudson Bay Area
B. Their line of fortifications on the Great Lakes and the Mississippi
C. Their building of Fort Oswego on Lake Ontario
D. Their building of Fort Duquesne in the Ohio Valley

19. The main exports and only commercial value of New France were:

A. Wheat and Timber
B. Timber and Fur
C. Wheat and Fur
D. Fur and Fish

2Ø. The water "highway to the center of North America" that was controlled by the French was the:

A. Ohio / Hudson System
B. St.Lawrence / Great Lakes System
C. Mohawk / Mississippi System
D. Ottawa / James Bay System

21. The American colonies were pinned along the East Coast behind which North/South Mountain Range:

A. The Laurentian Mountains
B. The Rocky Mountains
C. The Grampian Mountains
D. The Appalachian Mountains

22. The Second Battle of Quebec was a French Victory with the following French and British Commanders:

A. Montcalm / Wolfe
B. Dieskau / Amherst
C. Dieskau / Murray
D. de Levis / Murray

23. Prior to a formal peace treaty the French surrendered North America by signing the:

A. Rush Bagot Agreement
B. Magna Carta
C. Articles of Capitulation
D. Cease Fire Regulations of Hochelaga

24. The Treaty that ended the Seven Years War was:

A. Versailles 1783
B. Paris 1763
C. Utrecht 1715
D. Montreal 176Ø

25. According to the Peace Treaty THE French lost all possessions in North America except for:

A. Hudson Bay
B. St.Pierre and Miquelon
C. Guadeloupe
D. Isle Royale and Port Royale

1. The French geographical advantage in the exploration and economic exploitation of North America resulted from :

   A. control of the Ohio River Valley

   B. command of the St. Lawrence River - Great Lakes System

   C. control of the Mohawk - Champlain - Hudson System

   D. command of the Hudson Bay area

2. The Richelieu valley - Lake Champlain - Hudson River area was:

   A. the center of the fur trade rivalry

   B. vital for the westward expansion of the American colonies

   C. contained most of the Acadian settlers

   D. a dangerous invasion route that led to the heart of New France

3. The Mohawk River's importance to the British was that :

   A. it connected the Hudson River to the fur areas of the Ohio

   B. it controlled the approaches to Fort Duquesne

   C. it connected Fort Albany to Fort William Henry

   D. it led directly to the strategic Fort Carillon

4. As a result of the Treaty of Utrecht the French :

   A. gained control of Newfoundland and the Ohio valley

   B. lost Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, and Cape Breton

   C. lost Hudson Bay, Newfoundland, and Acadia

   D. lost Newfoundland, Acadia, and Isle Royale

5. Following 1713, the British outflanked the French economically by reestablishing :

   A. building fur posts along the Hudson River

   B. forts and trading posts along the Hudson Bay area

   C. the settlements in the Ohio valley

   D. the trading posts along the Mississippi River

6. The first line of defence against a British naval and ground assault against Quebec city was :

   A. the fortress of Louisbourg

   B. the Fort Frontenac area

   C. Fort Carillon

   D. Fort Duquesne

7. Fortifications were vital in the development of Control of North American trade and empire because:

   A. they were centers for the fur trade and logistic depots

   B. they were bases for military and guerrilla operations

   C. they protected the communications and approaches to the colonies

   D. all of the above

8. The Seven Years War was fought :

   A. on the frontiers of New France, including Louisbourg

   B. in the Ohio, Champlain, and St. Lawrence vallies

C. primarily in Europe and colonial areas, particularly Canada

D. primarily in North America save for Prussia's attack on Silesia

9. The Seven Years War is also known as :

A. Queen Anne's War

B. The War of Prussian Succession

C. The French and Indian War

D. King George's War

1Ø. Causes for the outbreak of fighting in North America were:

A. competition for fur

B. Control of Acadia and the Hudson Bay area

C. British expansion westward into the Ohio River valley

D. all except B

11. In 1755 the British expelled these people from Nova Scotia :

A. the Scottish farmers

B. the Acadians

C. the Irish

D. the rebelious Americans and Quebecois

12. The French formally claimed and fortified the Ohio River Valley in:

A. 1713

B. 1749

C. 1755

D. 1756

13. General Braddock's British and American Army was defeated in 1755 at :

A. Fort Carillon

B. Fort Ticonderoga

C. Fort Duquesne

D. Fort Frontenac

14. The French commander in Canada during the Ohio battles of 1755 was :

A. de Levis

B. Bigot

C. Montcalm

D. Dieskau

15. In 1756 General Montcalm launched a quick offensive against the :

A. Lake Champlain and Lake Ontario regions and their key forts

B. the Cape Breton and Ohio areas

C. the lower Hudson valley and Hudson Bay area

D. the British build up at Fort Albany

16. The British Prime Minister who redirected war strategies and ordered attacks on French colonial areas:

A. Abercrombie

B. Desreali

C. Pitt

D. Beaconsfield

17. The fortress of Louisbourg was captured by the British in:

A. 1757

B. 176Ø

C. 1758

D. 1759

18. The Battle of the Plains of Abraham (Quebec) was fought in :

A. 1757

B. 1756

C. 1759

D. 176Ø

19. The Battle of Sainte Foy was fought in :

A. 1759

B. 176Ø

C. 1763

D. 1756

20. The last Intendent of the French Royal Government in Canada was :

A. Champlain

B. Talon

C. Vaudreuil

D. Bigot

21. The last French Royal Governor in Canada :

A. Bigot

B. Vaudreuil

C. Frontenac

D. Duplessis

22. The commander of the British fleet that navigated the St. Lawrence to transport Wolfe's army to Quebec:

A. Saunders

B. Nelson

C. Howe

D. Abercrombie

23. Montcalm's second in command who counterattacked the British at Ste. Foy in 1760 :

A. Vauban

B. Vaudreuil

C. Bigot

D. de Levis

24. General victorious at Louisbourg and eventual commander of all British troops in America :

A. Murray

B. Wolfe

C. Amherst

D. Pitt

25. American militia officer and landowner who participated in several campaigns in the Ohio valley :

A. Shirley

B. Franklin

C. Arnold

D. Washington

26. Mortally wounded during his victory over Montcalm at the Battle of the Plains of Abraham :

A. Murray

B. Braddock

C. Wolfe

D. Wellington

27. Powerful Indian Confederacy whose tribes were allied to both French and British forces during the war:

A. Hurons

B. Iroquois

C. Abanakis

D. Algonquins

28. The population of New France at the outbreak of the Seven Years War :

A. 145,ØØØ - 15Ø,ØØØ

B. 6Ø,ØØØ - 7Ø,ØØØ

C. 195,ØØØ - 2ØØ,ØØØ

D. 85,ØØØ - 9Ø,ØØØ

29. American colonial population at the outbreak of the Seven Years War :

A. approx 1ØØ,ØØØ

B. approx 1,5ØØ,ØØØ

C. approx 1,ØØØ,ØØØ

D. approx 5ØØ,ØØØ

3Ø. The economy of New France :

A. totally depended on logistic support from the mother country

B. could not support a large garrison army agriculturally

C. Provided all necessary support for war except heavy industry

D. A & B only

31. The economy of New France was centered on :

A. fur, fish, and timber

B. fur, timber, maple syrup, and fish

C. fur and fish

D. fur, timber, wheat

32. During the war the French crown stationed in Canada :

A. 6000 regular troops

B. 16,000 regular troops

C. 26,000 regulars and 6,000 Troops de la Marine

D. 36,000 regulars

33. The American strategic goals were dictated by geographical problems :

A. the rivers ran North to South

B. large population pressed against the coast by the Appalachians

C. the poor agricultural base made westward expansion vital

D. the Laurentian Mountains prevented westward expansion into Ohio

34. France's grand strategy in the Seven Years War was based on :

A. expansion into the Ohio to outflank the British Colonies

B. defense of New France and Louisbourg

C. invade Britain, defeat Prussia with Austrian and Russian allies

D. alliance with Prussia to defeat Britain in Europe

35. An important defeat for the British at the hands of Indians and French in the Ohio Valley :

A. Carillon

B. Oswego

C. WIlliam Henry

D. Duquesne

36. Important victory by Montcalm on Lake Champlain that stopped an invasion of New France :

A. Fort Frederick

B. Fort Duquesne

C. Fort Carillon

D. Fort Niagara

37. In 1759 General James Wolfe defeated General Montcalm at this battle fought before the walls of Quebec :

A. Beauport

B. Louisbourg

C. St. Foy

D. the Plains of Abraham

38. The French victory at St. Foy resulted in :

A. the opening up of the Ohio Valley to trade

B. Quebec City being beseiged

C. delayed the end of the war for three years

D. checked Wolfe's forces advancing on Quebec

39. The French army withdrew to Montreal after the battle of St. Foy due to the following :

A. the advance of a western British Army from Fort Frontenac

B. the arrival of a British fleet to lift the Quebec seige

C. the arrival of a French supply fleet in Montreal

D. Wolfe's sending Saunders' fleet to Cap-Rouge

4Ø. In surrendering North America the French signed :

A. Treaty of Ryswick

B. Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle

C. The Articles of Capitulation
D. Treaty of Versailles

41. The final surrender of French forces in Canada occurred :

A. in 1763 at Quebec

B. in 1763 at Montreal

C. in 176Ø at Quebec

D. in 176Ø at Montreal

42. The first British military Governor of Canada was :

A. Murray

B. Carlton

C. Russell

D. Dalhousie

43. "The decapitation of French Canadian Society" refers to :

A. the loss of the leadership provided by the French Crown

B. the death of Montcalm and the arrest of Vaudreuil and Bigot

C. the control of the French Jesuits

D. the exodus of French civil service, military, and bourgeoisie

44. The Articles of Capitulation included the following :

A. safe passage to Europe for French Nationals

B. surrender of all fortresses and garrisons in Canada

C. cessation of all hostilities

D. all of the above

45. The policy of the new British Government toward French Canadians :

A. a fair but firm control to prevent guerilla action

B. full British citizenship and participation in local gov't

C. leniancy and conciliation

D. a reform of the feudal seigneurial system of land ownership

46. The official document that formally ended the Seven Years War :

A. the Treaty of Paris

B. the Treaty of Versailles

C. the Treaty of London

D. the Treaty of Utrecht

47. According to the Treaty of Paris the French agreed to :

A. give up all claims to Canada and the West Indies

B. give up all claims to Canada, Cape Breton, and Acadia

C. give up all claims to Hudson Bay and the Ohio River Valley

D. give up all claims to Acadia, Cape Breton, and Newfoundland

48. According to the Treaty of Paris, French Canadians were granted :

A. official recognition of the ownership of their farm lands

B. the right to sit on the British Governor's executive council

C. the right to practice their Roman Catholic Religion

D. the right to use French civil law in non-criminal court cases

49. The Treaty of Paris permitted the French to keep the following North American areas :

A. Acadia

B. the North East coast of Newfoundland

C. the island of Isle-Royale

D. the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon

5Ø. The economic theory that dominated French Colonial development and trade during the 18th century :

A. laissez-faire

B. mercantilism

C. capitalism

D. reciprocity

ANNEX C

MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

MAPS:

CANADA/NORTH AMERICA: AFTER THE TREATY OF UTRECHT

CANADA/NORTH AMERICA: CAMPAIGN THEATRES OF THE SEVEN YEARS WAR

THE ST. LAWRENCE THEATRE OF OPERATION

THE QUEBEC CAMPAIGN: QUEBEC CITY AREA

THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM

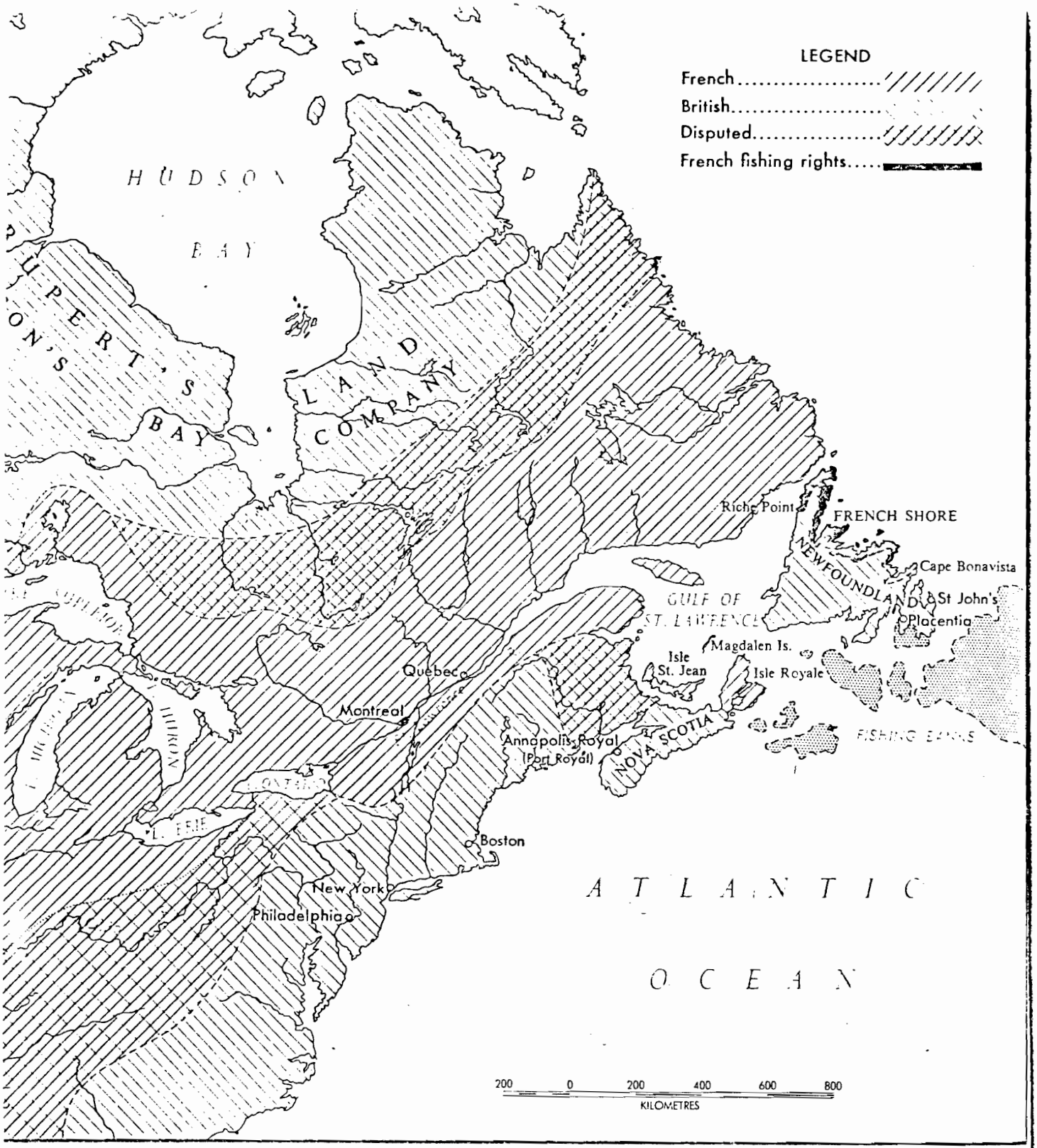
ILLUSTRATIONS:

UNIFORMS: FRANCE

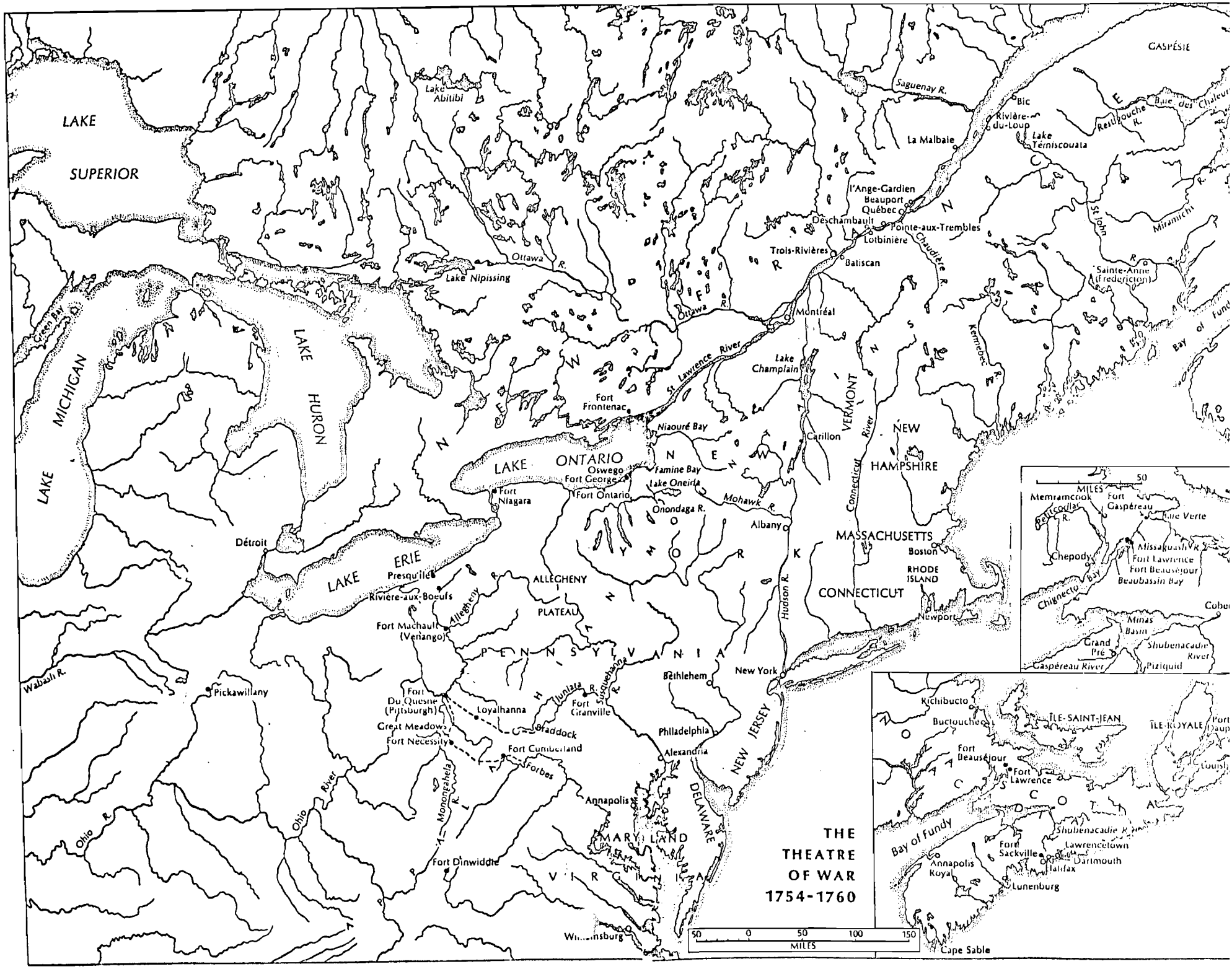
UNIFORMS: ENGLAND

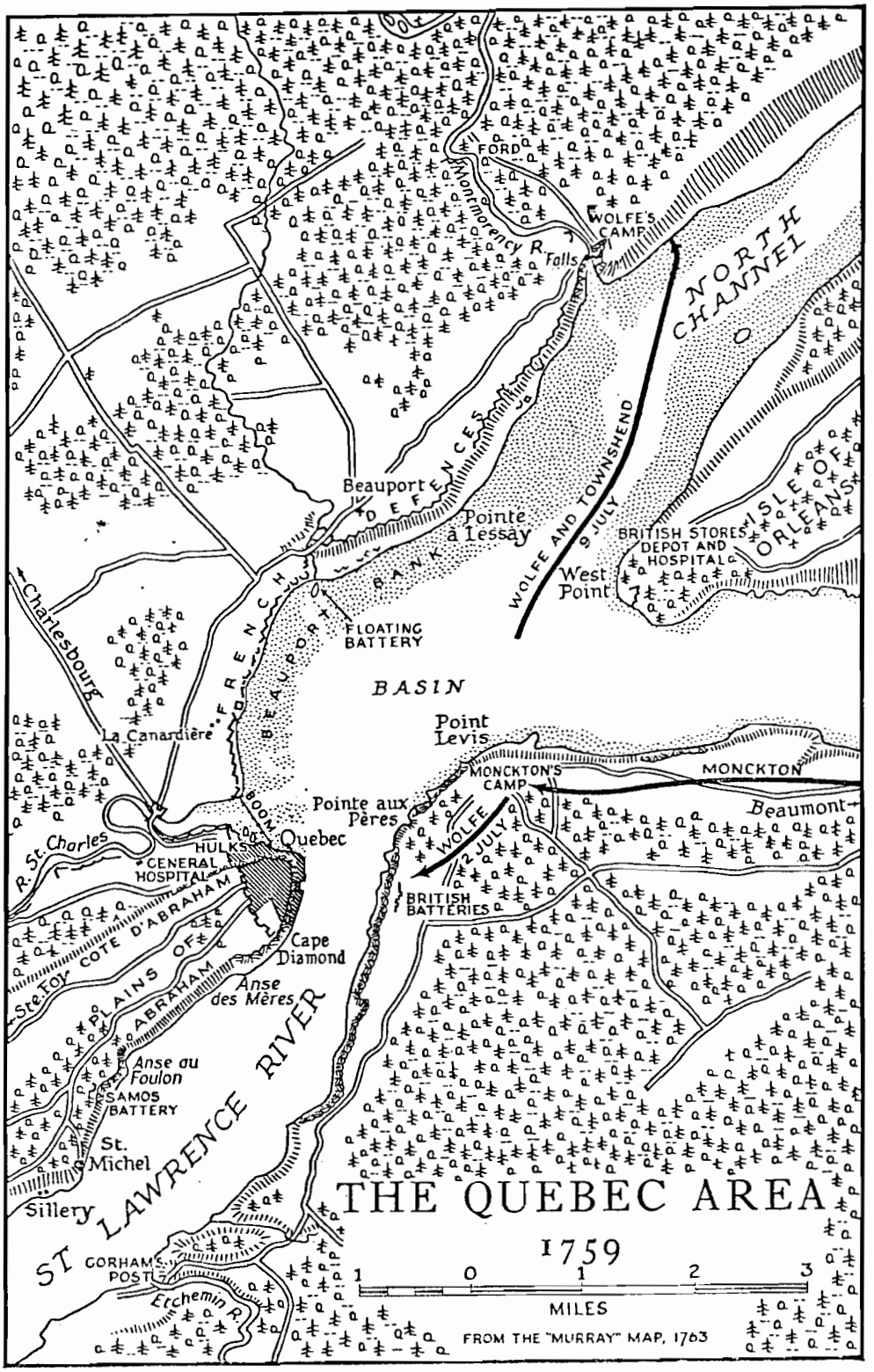
VAUBAN FORTIFICATIONS

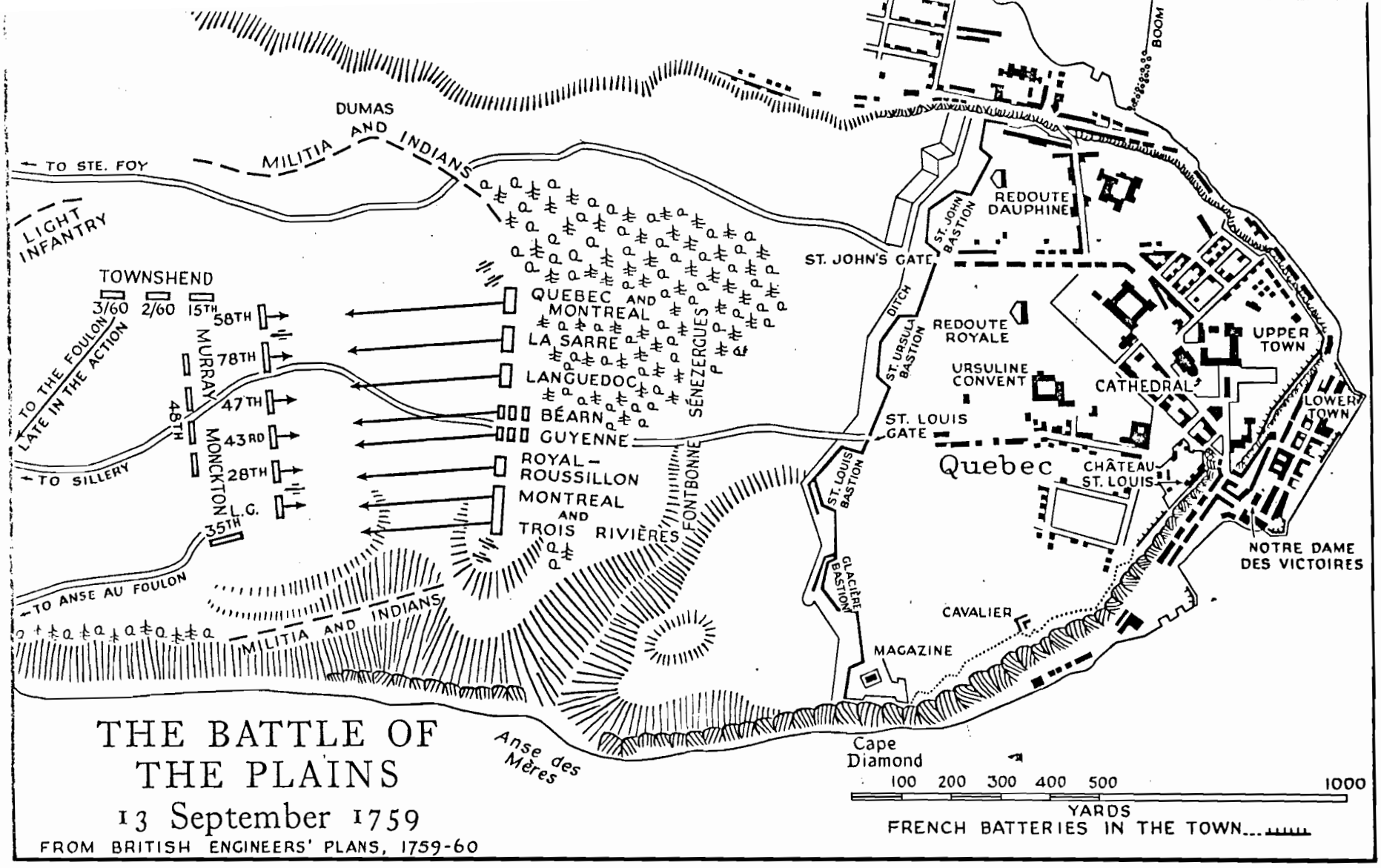
FLINTLOCK MUSKET



25 The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713


LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
Lake Abitibi
Lake Nipissing
Ottawa R.
Ottawa R.
Green Bay
Détroit
Fort Frontenac
St. Lawrence River
Lake Champlain
Montréal
Trois-Rivières
Batiscan
Deschambault
Pointe-aux-Trembles
Lotbinière
l'Ange-Gardien
Beauport
Québec
La Malbaie
Saguenay R.
Bic
Rivière-du-Loup
Lake Témiscouata
Rimouski R.
Baie des Chaleurs
GASPÉSIE
St. John R.
Miramichi R.
Sainte-Anne (Fredericton)
Bay of Fundy
Kennebec R.
Chaudière R.
Carillon
Lake Champlain
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Connecticut River
Niaouré Bay
Famine Bay
Lake Oneida
Oswego
Fort George
Fort Ontario
Fort Niagara
Onondaga R.
Mohawk R.
Albany
MASSACHUSETTS
Boston
RHODE ISLAND
CONNECTICUT
Newport
Hudson R.
New York
NEW JERSEY
Bethlehem
Philadelphia
Alexandria
DELAWARE
MARYLAND
Annapolis
Fort Cumberland
Forbes
Fort Necessity
Great Meadows
Braddock
Loyalhanna
Fort Du Quesne (Pittsburgh)
Juniata R.
Susquehanna R.
Fort Granville
Monongahela R.
Ohio River
Ohio R.
Fort Dinwiddie
VIRGINIA
Williamsburg
Wabash R.
Pickawillany
Fort Machault (Venango)
Allegheny
Rivière-aux-Boeufs
Presqu'isle
ALLEGHENY PLATEAU
PENNSYLVANIA
YORK
Memramcook
Fort Gaspéreau
Petitcodiac R.
Baie Verte
Chepody
Missaguash R.
Fort Lawrence
Fort Beauséjour
Beaubassin
Chignecto Bay
Minas Basin
Grand Pré
Shubenacadie River
Piziquid
Caspéreau River
MILES
50
Kichibucto
Buctouche
ÎLE-SAINT-JEAN
ÎLE-ROYALE
Fort Beauséjour
Fort Lawrence
ACADIA
Bay of Fundy
Shubenacadie R.
Fort Sackville
Lawrencetown
Dartmouth
Halifax
Annapolis Royal
Lunenburg
Cape Sable
THE THEATRE OF WAR 1754-1760
50 0 50 100 150
MILES


FORD
WOLFE'S CAMP
Montmorency R. Falls
NORTH CHANNEL
ISLE OF ORLEANS
Beauport
DEFENCES
Pointe à Tessay
WOLFE AND TOWNSHEND 9 JULY
BRITISH STORES DEPOT AND HOSPITAL
West Point
FRENCH BATTERY
FLOATING BATTERY
BASIN
Charlesbourg
La Canardière
Point Levis
MONCKTON'S CAMP
MONCKTON
Pointe aux Pères
WOLFE 12 JULY
Beaumont
R. St. Charles
HULKS
GENERAL HOSPITAL
Quebec
BOOM
BRITISH BATTERIES
PLAINS OF ABRAHAM
Cape Diamond
Anse des Mères
Anse au Foulon
SAMOS BATTERY
St. Michel
Ste Foy
COTE D'ABRAHAM
ST LAWRENCE RIVER
Sillery
GORHAMS POST
Etchemin R.
THE QUEBEC AREA
1759
1 0 1 2 3
MILES
FROM THE "MURRAY" MAP, 1763



THE BATTLE OF THE PLAINS

13 September 1759

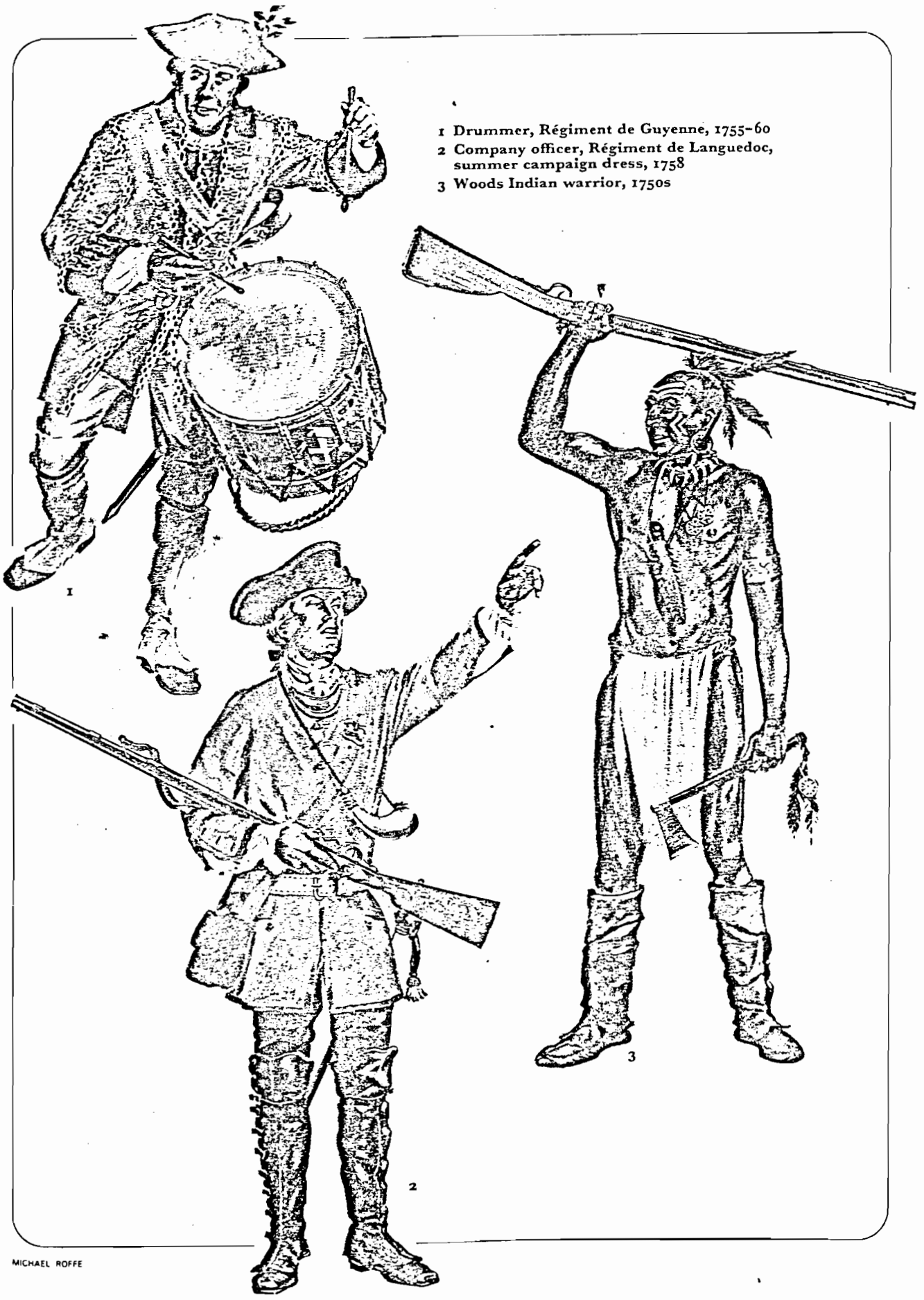
FROM BRITISH ENGINEERS' PLANS, 1759-60

1 Fusilier, Régiment de Béarn, 1755–60
2 Grenadier, Régiment de La Reine, with battalion colour: 1755–60
3 Officer, Corps of Engineers, 1750s

1 Sergeant, Régiment de Royal-Roussillon, 1756–60
2 Corporal, Régiment de Guyenne, marching order, 1755–60
3 Mission Indian, 1750s

MICHAEL ROFFE

1 Canadian militiaman, Trois Rivières Brigade 1759
2 Fusilier, Compagnies Franches de la Marine, *c.* 1750
3 Fusilier, Swiss Regiment 'Karrer', Louisbourg, 1745



1 Drummer, Régiment de Guyenne, 1755–60
2 Company officer, Régiment de Languedoc, summer campaign dress, 1758
3 Woods Indian warrior, 1750s

MICHAEL ROFFE

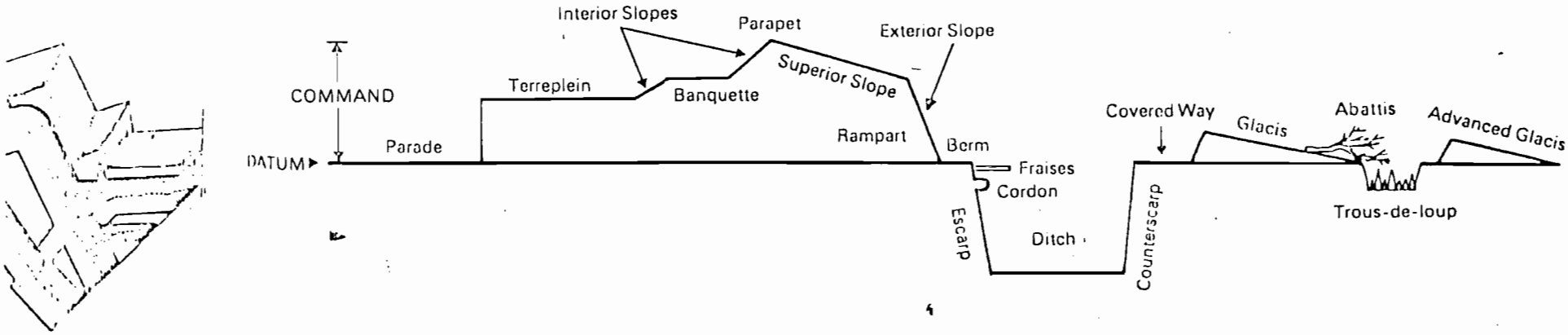
1 Drummer, 35th Foot, late 1750s
2 Senior Officer, 1st or Royal Regiment of Foot, late 1750s
3 Private, 17th Foot, winter dress, late 1750s

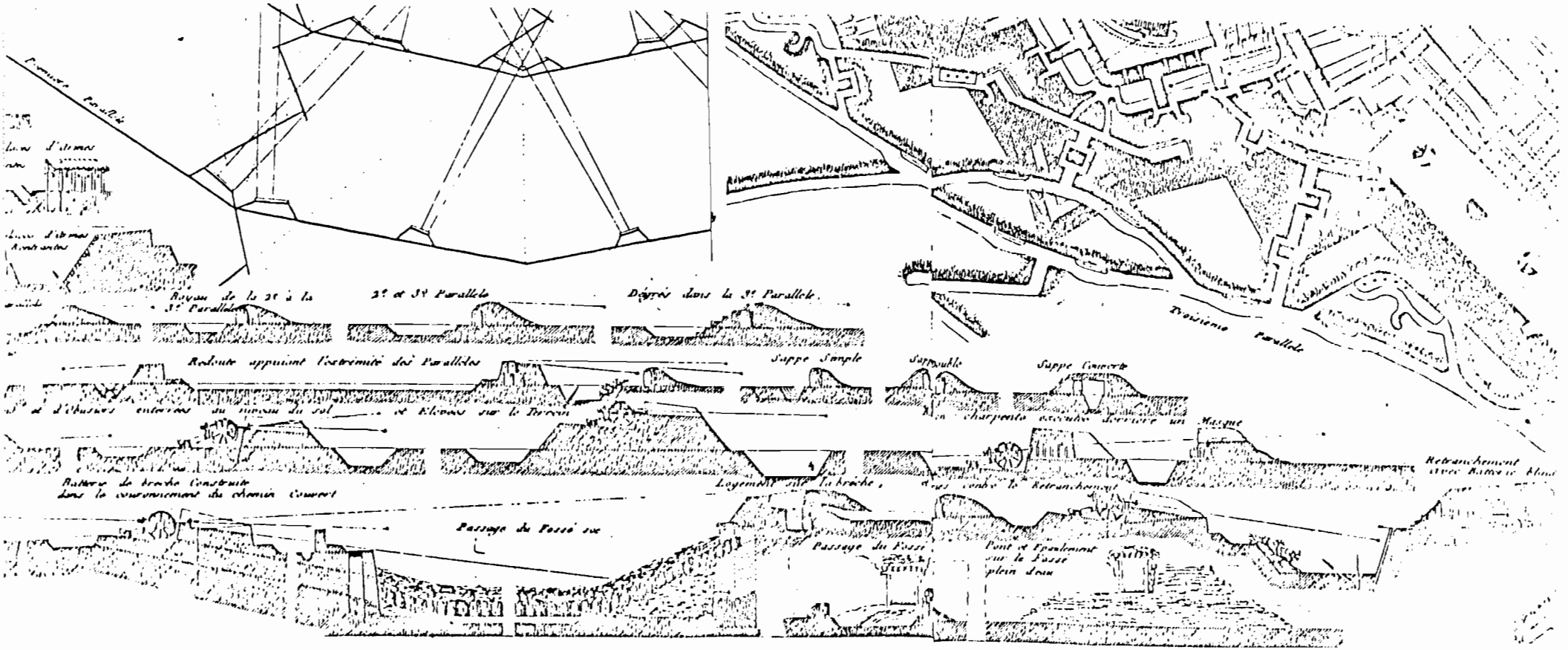
1 Private, 80th Regiment of Light Armed Foot (Gage's Light Infantry), 1758

2 Private, 55th Foot, 1758

3 Light Infantryman, 1759

Figure 20. A cross-section of a simple fort developed on Vauban's method, showing the various features and the technical terms

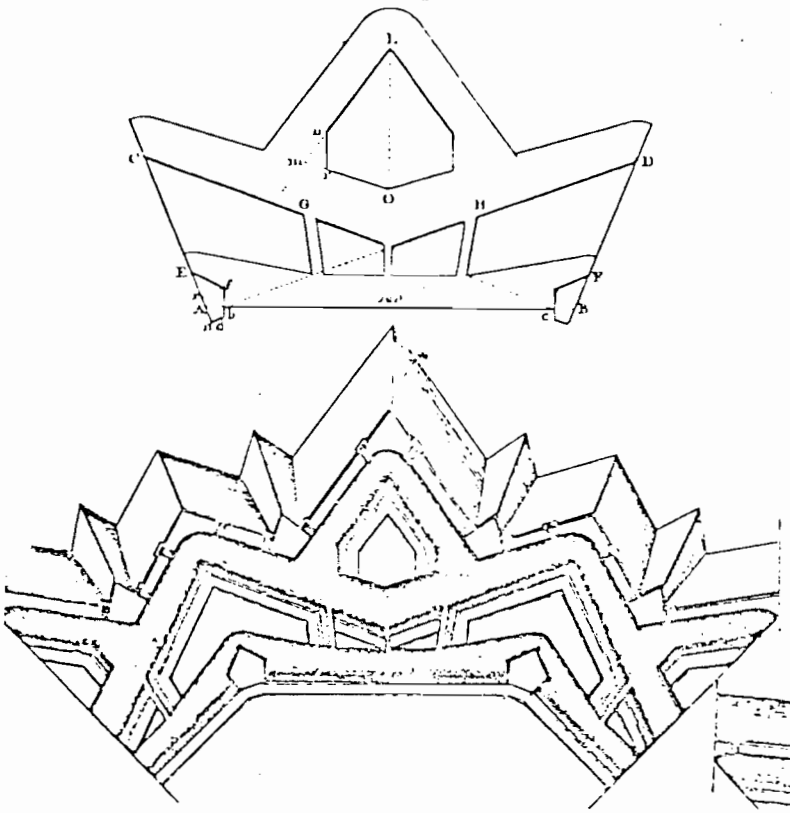


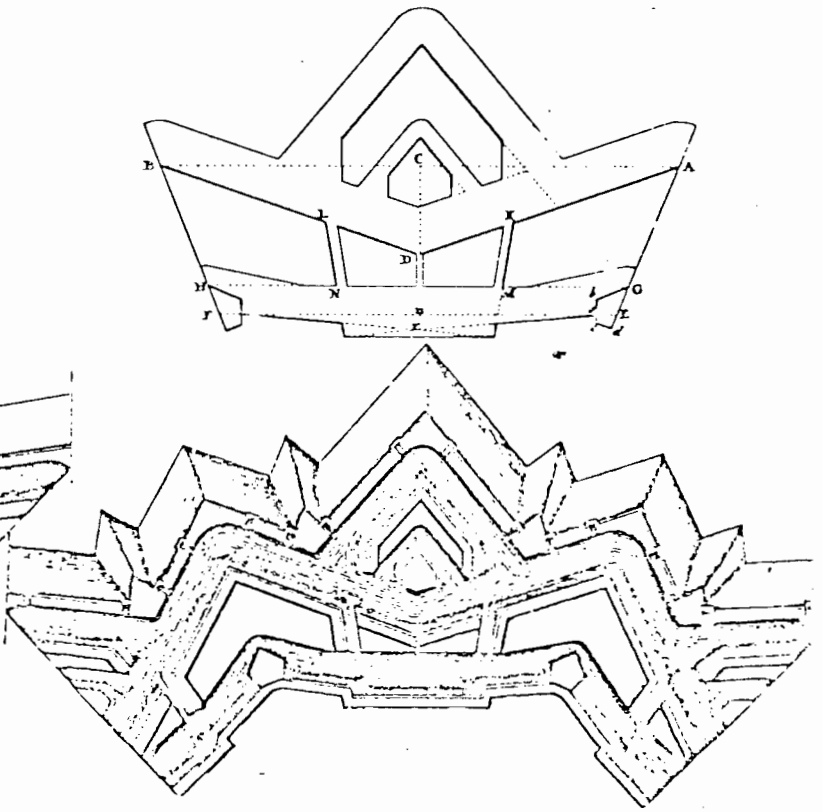


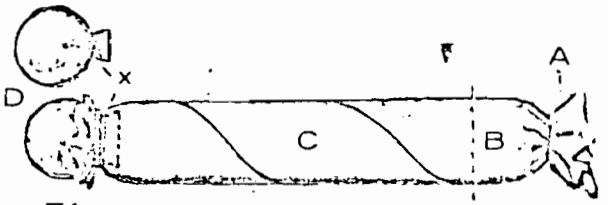
Left . View of the Spur bastion, Dover from the Castle. *Mike Jarvis*

Figure 18. Left : Vauban's Second System

Figure 19. Below : Vauban's Third System







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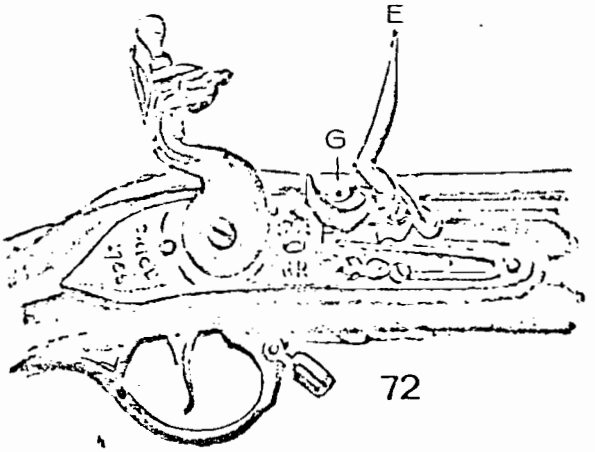

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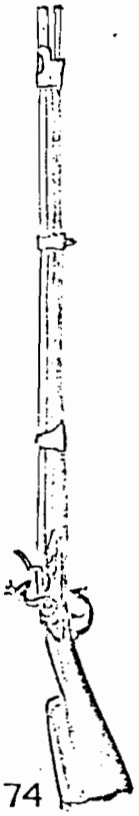
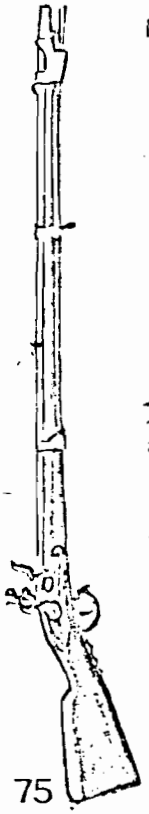


74



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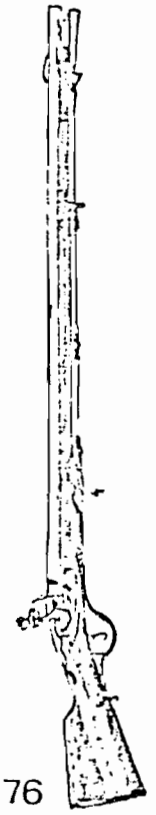

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