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Chapter 1 : European exploration - The Age of Discovery | theinnatdunvilla.com

Excerpt from Historical View of the Progress of Discovery on the More Northern Coasts of America: From the Earliest Period to the Present Time But thm'e remained another branch of adventure qually arduous, which required to be completed be fore We could be said to have Obtained a full and.

Baroque painting in Central and South America is basically an extension of that of Spain and Portugal, and even the best rarely rises to the general standard of the European schools. Important paintings and sculptures tended to be imported from Europe,â€ Pre-Columbian Central America Central America , an archaeological bridge connecting North and South America , was, before the arrival of the Europeans, home to various nomadic and sedentary cultures. Although the Maya were the most advanced pre-Columbian civilization in the hemisphere, they were never unified. Unlike the Aztec and Inca empires, their autonomous city-states remained independent, presaging the political fragmentation that would characterize Central America to the present day. What unity existed was cultural rather than political. There is scant evidence of human life in Central America before bce. Primitive human habitation in the region before that date is likely, perhaps as early as 40, bce, but civilized society did not emerge until the 2nd millennium bce. Between and bce, people of the region made the transition from hunting and foraging to plant cultivation. Pottery in the Parita Bay region of Panama, dating from about bce, reflected South American cultural influence, which eventually reached as far north as Guatemala and Chiapas. Mexican influence in Chiapas dates from at least bce, and thereafter it extended as far south as Nicaragua and Costa Rica. Central America thus became a meeting ground for Mesoamerican , South American, and Caribbean peoples. After bce, organized sedentary farming communities became numerous, and active commerce and communications developed among them. Although cassava manioc and other tubers were important to Indians of the Caribbean coast, corn maize was the primary staple food of most Central Americans, accompanied by a wide variety of beans, squash, and other vegetables and fruits. The Olmec culture and other Mexican influences substantially affected the development of Mayan civilization, while central Mexican Nahuatl influence challenged the Maya and stretched along the Pacific coast, notable especially among the Pipil of El Salvador and the Chorotega and Nicaraos of Nicaragua. Fugitives from the European conquistadores in the Caribbean increased this influence considerably at the close of the 15th century. The Miskito , Sumo , Rama, and other tribes on the Nicaraguan and Honduran Caribbean shores have survived to the present. Emergence of the Maya After bce an advanced Mayan civilization emerged in the highlands of Guatemala and El Salvador. Although the highlands remained heavily populated, these lowland cities became the centres for a higher civilization. Overcrowding, famine, climatic change , or major geologic catastrophes may have contributed to migration, but contact between the highland and lowland peoples continued as merchants carried cultural, economic, and social traits from one place to another. Mayan temple at Tikal in present-day Guatemala. But the Maya developed the highest culture of pre-Columbian America, which reached its height between and ce. Maya priests made discoveries in astronomy and mathematics comparable to similar advancements in ancient Egypt. They developed an advanced system of writing, and their hieroglyphs on stone monuments stelae , erected throughout the Maya lands, recorded their history. Brilliant Mayan artistic and scientific achievements in ceramics, sculpture, weaving, and painting, some of which were more advanced than European accomplishments of the same era, all showed remarkable artistic sensitivity. They developed an accurate calendar and complex systems of agricultural and water management. The Maya could not match their European counterparts in technology, however. Their architectural works were also less impressive than those of ancient and medieval European civilizations. Animals were not domesticated, and all work was done by human hand labour directed by an elite group. Decline of the Maya Mayan civilization began to decay after ce, perhaps because of overpopulation, deforestation , and stresses in the social structure. The peoples of these cities, much influenced by invaders from central Mexico, built striking stone architectural monuments, but their scientific and artistic

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achievements were less remarkable than the earlier advances of the Classic period, and their economies remained underdeveloped. In the meantime, internal civil war and intervention from central Mexico sapped Mayan strength and vitality. Returning to northern Guatemala, where they established the city of Tayasal as a place of refuge, some Maya maintained their autonomy until Disease and social disruption, brought with the Spanish conquest, annihilated a large part of the native population during the 16th century. A year later Christopher Columbus , on his fourth voyage, sailed along the Caribbean coast from the Bay of Honduras to Panama, accumulating much information and a little gold but again making no settlement. Other navigators from Spain followed, some seizing natives as slaves, and in Fernando V , the king of Spain, granted concessions for colonization of the region to Alonso de Ojeda and Diego de Nicuesa. Both suffered staggering losses from disease, shipwrecks, and hostile natives. Balboa turned the survivors into a disciplined and productive colony in Balboa cultivated good Indian relations, made extensive explorations, and found enough gold and pearls to make Castilla del Oro, as it was called, the first profitable colony in the New World. However, the explorations took their toll on the Indians of the region, however, many of whom were wiped out by European diseases. Pedrarias, however, distrusted the ambitious Balboa and, accusing him of treason, had him beheaded in Pedrarias expanded the colony but was responsible for enslaving and murdering the Indian population, despite royal orders for more humane treatment. Accompanied by a large force of Indian warriors from central Mexico and preceded by a smallpox epidemic , Alvarado faced little opposition until he reached Guatemala. Alvarado went on to conquer the Pipil of El Salvador in the same year, but a bloody rebellion by the Cakchiquel took four more years to quell. The discovery of gold in Honduras made the struggle more intense. Alvarado went on to participate in the conquests of Peru and of northern Mexico while retaining his governorship of Guatemala. Although none of his settlements in the Nicoya Bay region survived, he and his men began the permanent Spanish occupation of Costa Rica. Spanish domination of Central America was achieved by relatively few Spanish military forces but at a great cost in Indian lives. Remote areas, however, especially in northern Guatemala and along the Caribbean coast, remained outside Spanish control throughout the colonial period, eventually allowing Great Britain to colonize Belize and the Mosquito Coast of Nicaragua. Yet the conquest was not entirely military. The brutality of the Spanish conquest had repelled Las Casas in the Caribbean. After his Dominican monasteries in Nicaragua and Guatemala failed to bring better treatment to the Indians, he went to a province of northern Guatemala to pacify it without military force. His experiment in this province, which he called the Verapaz, was only partially successful, but it served as the basis for his arguments to the Spanish crown against abuse of the Indians. The resulting New Laws of began the suppression of the encomienda system of exploitation of Indian labour. Page 1 of 2.

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Chapter 2 : Age of Discovery - Wikipedia

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Their descendants explored along the west coast of North America. As early as BC, they had covered nearly the entire continent. It is not known when the first people arrived in the Americas. Some archaeologists scientists who study the remains of past human lives believe it might have been about BC. Over thousands of years, as they migrated across the continents, American Indians have developed a wide range of languages, customs, and civilizations. There are as many different tribal nations in the Americas as there are nations in Europe, Asia, or Africa, and there is as much variety among them. Ten thousand years ago, when the Ice Age ended, changes in climate and increasing populations inspired some Native American tribes to experiment with growing different crops. Some became highly skilled farmers. As early as about BC, tribes in Mexico cultivated corn and squash. They raised turkeys, llamas, and guinea pigs for food and they hunted deer and bison. They regularly burned off patches of land to keep it in pasture, so the animals would come to graze. Many tribes on the coasts hunted sea mammals from boats and caught fish, using a variety of efficient methods. After BC, some Native Americans developed states, each governing thousands of people. They established extensive trade routes across the continents. And they used cargo rafts and other boats to ship their goods from one trading point to another. In South America, llamas provided transportation on land. From the present-day region of the mid-western United States to southern Peru in South America, centers of government were marked by enormous mounds of earth. Most of these mounds were flat on top, with palaces and temples built on them. Some were burial sites of honored leaders. American Indian cities were as big as the cities in Europe and Asia at that time. Their fine architecture is still greatly admired. The Europeans brought diseases with them, including smallpox and measles. These unfamiliar diseases spread quickly among Native Americans. They wiped out the populations of many native cities. The Europeans started colonizing the Americas in order to cultivate new farmlands and create new jobs for the growing populations of Europe. To do so, they often fought Native American tribal nations for the land. Several factors gave the Europeans the advantage in these conflicts. First, they had some immunities to their own diseases. Thus they were not as devastated by them as Native Americans were. Native American tribal nations resisted colonization, but eventually, many were forced to surrender their lands. In the regions of present-day southern Canada, the United States, and southern South America, survivors were gathered up and involuntarily moved to specific areas, called reservations. In Mexico, Central America, and northern South America, the native people were forced to live as peasants and laborers, under Spanish rule. In the last few decades, developments in transportation and earth-moving machinery have made it profitable for outsiders to colonize the tropical lowland forests. Now the way of life for those tribal nations, too, is threatened. Today Native American populations across both continents are once again on the rise. Native American leaders are achieving greater political success in fighting for the rights of their peoples. In addition, recent widespread concern over human rights has prompted governments and others to respect Native American cultures and traditions when responding to their needs.

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Chapter 3 : Outline of American History - Chapter 1: Early America

Historical View of the Progress of Discovery on the More Northern Coasts of America, From the Earliest Period to the Present Time.

As a result, the Bering Sea was hundreds of meters below its current level, and a land bridge, known as Beringia, emerged between Asia and North America. At its peak, Beringia is thought to have been some 1,000 kilometers wide. A moist and treeless tundra, it was covered with grasses and plant life, attracting the large animals that early humans hunted for their survival. The first people to reach North America almost certainly did so without knowing they had crossed into a new continent. They would have been following game, as their ancestors had for thousands of years, along the Siberian coast and then across the land bridge. Once in Alaska, it would take these first North Americans thousands of years more to work their way through the openings in great glaciers south to what is now the United States. Evidence of early life in North America continues to be found. Little of it, however, can be reliably dated before 12,000 B. So too may the finely crafted spear points and items found near Clovis, New Mexico. Similar artifacts have been found at sites throughout North and South America, indicating that life was probably already well established in much of the Western Hemisphere by some time prior to 10,000 B. Around that time the mammoth began to die out and the bison took its place as a principal source of food and hides for these early North Americans. Over time, as more and more species of large game vanished -- whether from overhunting or natural causes -- plants, berries and seeds became an increasingly important part of the early American diet. Gradually, foraging and the first attempts at primitive agriculture appeared. Indians in what is now central Mexico led the way, cultivating corn, squash and beans, perhaps as early as 8,000 B. Slowly, this knowledge spread northward. Then the first signs of irrigation began to appear, and by 5,000 B. By the first centuries A. They began constructing earthen burial sites and fortifications around 1,000 B. Some mounds from that era are in the shape of birds or serpents, and probably served religious purposes not yet fully understood. The Adenans appear to have been absorbed or displaced by various groups collectively known as Hopewellians. One of the most important centers of their culture was found in southern Ohio, where the remains of several thousand of these mounds still remain. Believed to be great traders, the Hopewellians used and exchanged tools and materials across a wide region of hundreds of kilometers. By around 1,000 A. One city, Cahokia, just east of St. Louis, Missouri, is thought to have had a population of about 20,000 at its peak in the early 12th century. At the center of the city stood a huge earthen mound, flatted at the top, which was 30 meters high and 37 hectares at the base. Eighty other mounds have been found nearby. Cities such as Cahokia depended on a combination of hunting, foraging, trading and agriculture for their food and supplies. Influenced by the thriving societies to the south, they evolved into complex hierarchical societies which took slaves and practiced human sacrifice. In what is now the southwest United States, the Anasazi, ancestors of the modern Hopi Indians, began building stone and adobe pueblos around the year 1,000. These unique and amazing apartment-like structures were often built along cliff faces; the most famous, the "cliff palace" of Mesa Verde, Colorado, had over 2,000 rooms. Perhaps the most affluent of the pre-Columbian American Indians lived in the Pacific northwest, where the natural abundance of fish and raw materials made food supplies plentiful and permanent villages possible as early as 1,000 B. The opulence of their "potlatch" gatherings remains a standard for extravagance and festivity probably unmatched in early American history. It is now thought that as many people lived in the Western Hemisphere as in Western Europe at that time -- about 40 million. Estimates of the number of Native Americans living in what is now the United States at the onset of European colonization range from two to 18 million, with most historians tending toward the lower figure. What is certain is the devastating effect that European disease had on the indigenous population practically from the time of initial contact. Smallpox, in particular, ravaged whole communities and is thought to have been a much more direct cause of the precipitous decline in Indian population in the 17th century than the numerous wars and skirmishes with European settlers. Indian customs and culture at the time were extraordinarily diverse, as

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could be expected, given the expanse of the land and the many different environments to which they had adapted. Some generalizations, however, are possible. Most tribes, particularly in the wooded eastern region and the Midwest, combined aspects of hunting, gathering and the cultivation of maize and other products for their food supplies. In many cases, the women were responsible for farming and the distribution of food, while the men hunted and participated in war. By all accounts, Indian society in North America was closely tied to the land. Identification with nature and the elements was integral to religious beliefs. Indian life was essentially clan-oriented and communal, with children allowed more freedom and tolerance than was the European custom of the day. Although some North American tribes developed a type of hieroglyphics to preserve certain texts, Indian culture was primarily oral, with a high value placed on the recounting of tales and dreams. Clearly, there was a good deal of trade among various groups and strong evidence exists that neighboring tribes maintained extensive and formal relations -- both friendly and hostile. In his son Leif is thought to have explored the northeast coast of what is now Canada and spent at least one winter there. While Norse sagas suggest that Viking sailors explored the Atlantic coast of North America down as far as the Bahamas, such claims remain unproven. In , just five years after Christopher Columbus landed in the Caribbean looking for a western route to Asia, a Venetian sailor named John Cabot arrived in Newfoundland on a mission for the British king. Columbus, of course, never saw the mainland United States, but the first explorations of the continental United States were launched from the Spanish possessions that he helped establish. The first of these took place in when a group of men under Juan Ponce de Leon landed on the Florida coast near the present city of St. With the conquest of Mexico in , the Spanish further solidified their position in the Western Hemisphere. Among the most significant early Spanish explorations was that of Hernando De Soto, a veteran conquistador who had accompanied Francisco Pizarro during the conquest of Peru. Within a few generations, the Plains Indians had become masters of horsemanship, greatly expanding the range and scope of their activities. While the Spanish were pushing up from the south, the northern portion of the present-day United States was slowly being revealed through the journeys of men such as Giovanni da Verrazano. A Florentine who sailed for the French, Verrazano made landfall in North Carolina in , then sailed north along the Atlantic coast past what is now New York harbor. A decade later, the Frenchman Jacques Cartier set sail with the hope -- like the other Europeans before him -- of finding a sea passage to Asia. Lawrence River laid the foundations for the French claims to North America, which were to last until Following the collapse of their first Quebec colony in the s, French Huguenots attempted to settle the northern coast of Florida two decades later. The Spanish, viewing the French as a threat to their trade route along the Gulf Stream, destroyed the colony in Ironically, the leader of the Spanish forces, Pedro Menendez, would soon establish a town not far away -- St. It was the first permanent European settlement in what would become the United States. The great wealth which poured into Spain from the colonies in Mexico, the Caribbean and Peru provoked great interest on the part of the other European powers. In Humphrey Gilbert, the author of a treatise on the search for the Northwest Passage, received a patent from Queen Elizabeth to colonize the "heathen and barbarous landes" in the New World which other European nations had not yet claimed. It would be five years before his efforts could begin. When he was lost at sea, his half-brother, Walter Raleigh, took up the mission. It was later abandoned, and a second effort two years later also proved a failure. It would be 20 years before the British would try again. This time -- at Jamestown in -- the colony would succeed, and North America would enter a new era. Spanning more than three centuries, this movement grew from a trickle of a few hundred English colonists to a flood of millions of newcomers. Impelled by powerful and diverse motivations, they built a new civilization on the northern part of the continent. The first English immigrants to what is now the United States crossed the Atlantic long after thriving Spanish colonies had been established in Mexico, the West Indies and South America. Like all early travelers to the New World, they came in small, overcrowded ships. During their six- to week voyages, they lived on meager rations. Many died of disease; ships were often battered by storms and some were lost at sea. Most European emigrants left their homelands to escape political oppression, to seek the freedom to practice their religion, or for adventure and opportunities

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denied them at home. Between and , economic difficulties swept England. Many people could not find work. Even skilled artisans could earn little more than a bare living. Poor crop yields added to the distress. In addition, the Industrial Revolution had created a burgeoning textile industry, which demanded an ever-increasing supply of wool to keep the looms running. Landlords enclosed farmlands and evicted the peasants in favor of sheep cultivation. Colonial expansion became an outlet for this displaced peasant population. The settlers might not have survived had it not been for the help of friendly Indians, who taught them how to grow native plants -- pumpkin, squash, beans and corn. In addition, the vast, virgin forests, extending nearly 2, kilometers along the Eastern seaboard, proved a rich source of game and firewood. They also provided abundant raw materials used to build houses, furniture, ships and profitable cargoes for export. Although the new continent was remarkably endowed by nature, trade with Europe was vital for articles the settlers could not produce. The coast served the immigrants well. The whole length of shore provided innumerable inlets and harbors. Only two areas -- North Carolina and southern New Jersey -- lacked harbors for ocean-going vessels. Majestic rivers -- the Kennebec, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac and numerous others -- linked lands between the coast and the Appalachian Mountains with the sea. Only one river, however, the St. Lawrence -- dominated by the French in Canada -- offered a water passage to the Great Lakes and into the heart of the continent. Dense forests, the resistance of some Indian tribes and the formidable barrier of the Appalachian Mountains discouraged settlement beyond the coastal plain. Only trappers and traders ventured into the wilderness. For the first hundred years the colonists built their settlements compactly along the coast. Political considerations influenced many people to move to America. In the German-speaking regions of Europe, the oppressive policies of various petty princes -- particularly with regard to religion -- and the devastation caused by a long series of wars helped swell the movement to America in the late 17th and 18th centuries. The coming of colonists in the 17th century entailed careful planning and management, as well as considerable expense and risk.

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Chapter 4 : An Overview of Native American History | Scholastic

Historical view of the progress of discovery on the more northern coasts of America [microform]: from the earliest period to the present time by Tytler, Patrick Fraser, Publication date

Visit Website But between and a series of interconnected developments occurred in Europe that provided the impetus for the exploration and subsequent colonization of America. These developments included the Protestant Reformation and the subsequent Catholic Counter-Reformation, the Renaissance, the unification of small states into larger ones with centralized political power, the emergence of new technology in navigation and shipbuilding, and the establishment of overland trade with the East and the accompanying transformation of the medieval economy. Protestantism emphasized a personal relationship between each individual and God without the need for intercession by the institutional church. Thus, the rise of Protestantism and the Counter-Reformation, along with the Renaissance, helped foster individualism and create a climate favorable to exploration. At the same time, political centralization ended much of the squabbling and fighting among rival noble families and regions that had characterized the Middle Ages. With the decline of the political power and wealth of the Catholic church, a few rulers gradually solidified their power. Portugal, Spain, France, and England were transformed from small territories into nation-states with centralized authority in the hands of monarchs who were able to direct and finance overseas exploration. As these religious and political changes were occurring, technological innovations in navigation set the stage for exploration. Bigger, faster ships and the invention of navigational devices such as the astrolabe and sextant made extended voyages possible. But the most powerful inducement to exploration was trade. The Orient became a magnet to traders, and exotic products and wealth flowed into Europe. Those who benefited most were merchants who sat astride the great overland trade routes, especially the merchants of the Italian city-states of Genoa, Venice, and Florence. The newly unified states of the Atlantic—France, Spain, England, and Portugal—and their ambitious monarchs were envious of the merchants and princes who dominated the land routes to the East. The desire to supplant the trade moguls, especially the Italians, and fear of the Ottoman Empire forced the Atlantic nations to search for a new route to the East. Portugal led the others into exploration. Encouraged by Prince Henry the Navigator, Portuguese seamen sailed southward along the African coast, seeking a water route to the East. They were also looking for a legendary king named Prester John who had supposedly built a Christian stronghold somewhere in northwestern Africa. Henry hoped to form an alliance with Prester John to fight the Muslims. His school developed the quadrant, the cross-staff, and the compass, made advances in cartography, and designed and built highly maneuverable little ships known as caravels. Dias sailed around the tip of Africa and into the Indian Ocean before his frightened crew forced him to give up the quest. A year later, Vasco da Gama succeeded in reaching India and returned to Portugal laden with jewels and spices. Born in Genoa, Italy, around 1451, Columbus learned the art of navigation on voyages in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic. Columbus, hoping to make such a voyage, spent years seeking a sponsor and finally found one in Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain after they defeated the Moors and could turn their attention to other projects. After ten weeks he sighted an island in the Bahamas, which he named San Salvador. Thinking he had found islands near Japan, he sailed on until he reached Cuba which he thought was mainland China and later Haiti. But the territorial disputes between Portugal and Spain were not resolved until when they signed the Treaty of Tordesillas, which drew a line leagues west of the Azores as the demarcation between the two empires. Despite the treaty, controversy continued over what Columbus had found. He made three more voyages to America between 1492 and 1498, during which he explored Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Jamaica, and Trinidad. Each time he returned more certain that he had reached the East. In 1499 and Pedro de Mendoza went as far as present-day Buenos Aires in Argentina, where he founded a colony. Religious Motivations The impulse for exploration was further fueled by the European imagination. That idea had two parts: Ancient tales described distant civilizations, usually to the west, where European-like peoples lived

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simple, virtuous lives without war, famine, disease, or poverty. Such utopian visions were reinforced by religious notions. Early Christian Europeans had inherited from the Jews a powerful prophetic tradition that drew upon apocalyptic biblical texts in the books of Daniel, Isaiah, and Revelations. They connected the Christianization of the world with the second coming of Christ. If secular and religious traditions evoked utopian visions of the New World, they also induced nightmares. The ancients described wonderful civilizations, but barbaric, evil ones as well. European encounters with the New World were viewed in light of these preconceived notions. To plunder the New World of its treasures was acceptable because it was populated by pagans. As European powers conquered the territories of the New World, they justified wars against Native Americans and the destruction of their cultures as a fulfillment of the European secular and religious vision of the New World. In 1492, Giovanni da Verrazano was commissioned to locate a northwest passage around North America to India. He was followed in by Jacques Cartier, who explored the St. Lawrence River as far as present-day Montreal. In 1564, Jean Ribault headed an expedition that explored the St. Johns River area in Florida. But the Spanish soon pushed the French out of Florida, and thereafter, the French directed their efforts north and west. Instead, the French traded with inland tribes for furs and fished off the coast of Newfoundland. New France was sparsely populated by trappers and missionaries and dotted with military forts and trading posts. Although the French sought to colonize the area, the growth of settlements was stifled by inconsistent policies. Initially, France encouraged colonization by granting charters to fur-trading companies. Then, under Cardinal Richelieu, control of the empire was put in the hands of the government-sponsored Company of New France. The company, however, was not successful, and in 1663 the king took direct control of New France. Although more prosperous under this administration, the French empire failed to match the wealth of New Spain or the growth of neighboring British colonies. The Netherlands The Dutch were also engaged in the exploration of America. Formerly a Protestant province of Spain, the Netherlands was determined to become a commercial power and saw exploration as a means to that end. In 1614 the newly formed New Netherland Company obtained a grant from the Dutch government for the territory between New France and Virginia. About ten years later another trading company, the West India Company, settled groups of colonists on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange. The Dutch also planted trading colonies in the West Indies. By the mid-sixteenth century, however, England had recognized the advantages of trade with the East, and in 1497 English merchants enlisted Martin Frobisher to search for a northwest passage to India. Between 1575 and 1580 Frobisher as well as John Davis explored along the Atlantic coast. Gilbert headed two trips to the New World. He landed on Newfoundland but was unable to carry out his intention of establishing military posts. By the seventeenth century, the English had taken the lead in colonizing North America, establishing settlements all along the Atlantic coast and in the West Indies. This colony was short-lived, however, and was taken over by the Dutch in 1672. Croix and other islands in the cluster of the Virgin Islands. The Northern Voyages, a. Parry, *The Spanish Seaborne Empire*; 2nd ed. Eric Foner and John A.

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Chapter 5 : Full text of "Historical View of the Progress of Discovery on the More Northern Coasts of "

Historical view of the progress of discovery on the more northern coasts of America: from the earliest period to the present time / By Tytler, Patrick Fraser,

Wherever necessary critical comment is made upon the accuracy of the sources. How the maps were compiled and what the symbols show are pointed out where not self-evident-for the conventional signs are explained on the maps themselves and so far as possible made to tell their own story. Limitations in the method of representation are stated and explanations are made when necessary to avoid misconceptions. Some parts of the text run to considerable length, particularly the parts relating to lands and boundary disputes. Here the negotiations respecting disputed limits and areas are outlined and selections from the original documents quoted in full. Without such extensive comment the maps would be meaningless, but no attempt is made to interpret or explain the maps in broader historical terms. To have done so would have expanded the text beyond all reasonable measure. It would have been equivalent to writing a history of the United States from a geographical point of view, and the Atlas does not purport to be a "history. Not only will it be used as a reference book by those who wish to look up particular points, but original studies will undoubtedly be based upon the data that it presents. Each map is a refinement, as it were, of the raw materials for historical research, comparable to a document carefully edited with textual criticism but without historical interpretation. The text gives enough information to enable the reader fully to understand what the maps show, but often he must go farther afield if he would know what they really mean. Contents of the Atlas The main purpose of this Introduction is to give a rapid survey of the Atlas as a whole and to point out some of the relations between maps that deal with closely allied topics. In addition, a few suggestions will be made about the interpretation of some of the maps. The Natural Environment The first seven plates illustrate the natural environment in relation to American history. Natural circumstances have at all times offered to the American people tremendous material advantages. These plates have been introduced to illustrate environmental advantages and limitations rather than to prove any thesis that physical geography is either more or less effective than inherited tradition in shaping institutions and character. Position, topography, climate, soils, vegetation, and mineral wealth are the outstanding elements of the natural environment directly affecting human endeavor. The five maps on Plate 1 show the position of the area comprising the United States, especially with reference to the Atlantic Ocean and Europe. A projection was chosen that seems well adapted to make this clear. Plate 1 enables the reader directly to compare the environments of the Old and New Worlds. It seems appropriate that the Atlas should begin and end on a broad theme. The opening plate discloses some of the larger physical relationships of the area of the United States and the closing plate Pl. Plates deal with the natural environment within the limits of the continental United States excluding Alaska. Topography is the subject, first, of a simple relief map Pl. These forms are likely to mean much more to the dwellers on the land than their elevation above sea-level. All plains, all plateaus, all mountain ranges are not alike in their sculpturing. For this reason a map Pl. As the physiographic map shows merely the boundaries of the divisions, a concise description of each division has been contributed by the compiler, Professor N. Fenneman, and will be found in the text. Climate is so complex and bears so directly upon nearly everything man does that no less than sixteen maps Pls. From the included maps the student may draw up for himself a statement summarizing most of the essential facts about the climate of any place in the United States; he may determine whether it is warm or cold, rainy or dry; and he may also learn something of special climatic elements-such as winds, length of growing season, droughts, snowiness, and cloudiness-each closely correlated in one way or another with farming, transportation, and manufactures. The maps for soils Pl. Cartography, , and Exploration, The historical part of the Atlas opens with a series of reproductions of old maps intended to illustrate the gradual widening of geographical knowledge of North America. Of course it was well known at the time that the earth is a sphere, but so far as America is concerned the Behaim globe is a blank. On it a broad, uninterrupted ocean

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spreads from western Europe to eastern Asia. Nearly four centuries were to pass before this blank was completely filled in with the outlines of coasts, river systems, lakes, and mountain ranges in the forms with which we are now familiar. Plates show how these forms took shape. The format of the Atlas and the sizes and shapes of the original maps reproduced have rendered it impossible to arrange these reproductions of early maps in strictly chronological order. By classifying the maps in groups we may often study them to somewhat better advantage than when we examine them in the order in which they actually appear on the plates. For example, the maps illustrating Cartography, , might be grouped in two primary categories: The six earliest maps in this category, all dating from before , show the West Indies and portions of the Atlantic coasts of North and South America. They are as follows: La Cosa, Pl. The Verrazano and Harleian maps both depict a vast inland sea in the interior of North America, and the Harleian map, in addition, shows the estuary of the St. Lawrence in some detail. The maps of the next group in the first category date from to and cover either the whole or the major part of the North American continent. On the Gastaldi map, Pl. Mercator in Pl. By the time of Hakluyt, Pl. On the Molineaux-Wright map of Pl. The Molineaux-Wright map is also the earliest map reproduced in the Atlas giving any indication of the Great Lakes. The Tattonus map, Pl. For the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries eight general maps are shown: It also shows how little was then known of the southwestern states. Special maps of relatively restricted areas. These may be further subclassified into six groups: For the progress of exploration in those parts of the United States lying west of the Mississippi the Atlas includes not only the reproductions listed above but also three maps showing the routes of Spanish, French, and American explorers, Pls. Ninety-one routes are marked, and the route of each of the French and American expeditions is described briefly in the text. By this time the major topographical features of the United States-mountains, rivers, plains, deserts, lakes-were known, at least in their outlines. The North America of the explorer and pioneer was not an uninhabited wilderness. The Indians were often an obstacle-at times a serious one-in the way of the advancing settler. The four maps on Plate 34 show the locations of hostile encounters with the Indians from to , and, thereby, the progressive movement of the zone of Indian warfare westward with the advance of the frontier. More peaceful contacts with the aborigines are recorded on maps covering Christian missions to the Indians, Pl. The Indians differed greatly among themselves in character, language, customs, and degree of civilization, and these differences often meant much in the relations of the settlers and government to the several tribes. A map on which are marked the areas occupied by Indian tribes and linguistic stocks about has therefore been included Pl. During the succeeding centuries many of the tribes shown on this map were exterminated, and others were forced to migrate as hunting-ground after hunting-ground was taken from them. A supremely important chapter in American history deals with questions of land. In the process divergent policies, practices, and conflicting interests arose, affecting in some degree the entire social, economic, and political history of the nation. Questions of land are treated in three separate parts of the Atlas , the sections entitled "Lands, " Pls. As in the case of the history of cartography, the maps for lands and territorial questions may be classified systematically. Territorial questions of international significance. This group includes maps showing the possessions of European states in North America after Pl. These are all in the section "Lands, The evolution of the boundaries of the colonies, states, and territories. Land grants of European sovereigns to trading and colonizing companies and to great proprietors in the colonial period laid the foundations for the subdivision of territory between the several colonies and later between the states. The limits of the more important colonial grants are drawn on two general maps Pls. More detailed illustrations of two great colonial land grants, one in Maine, the other in Virginia, are given on Plates 44C and 51A. In the royal charters the lands granted were frequently described as extending indefinitely to the west or as reaching to the Pacific Ocean. This meant conflicting claims to the western territory as soon as settlement was pushed beyond the Appalachian barrier. The adjustment of these claims forms the topic of Plate 47B-E. Certain colonies and states proposed or organized west of the mountains, , but not destined permanently to survive are shown on Plates 41C and 46B. On Plates 61E the general evolution of the boundaries of the states and territories, , is recorded, and on Plates some of the more troublesome disputes

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over boundaries between the colonies and states, , are analyzed in detail. Lands ceded by the Indians to the British, colonial, state, and United States governments, These Indian cessions are summarized on a single map of the United States Pl. The disposition of federal lands. This group comprises maps of the whole United States showing the public lands in , , , , , , and Pls. In this group, also, belong certain detailed maps illustrating surveys, divisions, and grants of government land in different parts of the country at different times Pls. The details of typical grants, surveys, divisions, and holdings of land, not otherwise covered under paragraphs , above. These miscellaneous reproductions may be grouped according to whether the originals date from 1 colonial period Pls. For each period the maps are listed in chronological order. After the section entitled "Lands, ," comes a series of plates devoted to the history of population. Three movements are here shown: Settlement as a whole is treated differently for the period than for the subsequent period. The five maps on Plate 60 show settled areas in , , , and , but owing to the lack of detailed statistics it was not feasible to map the density of population for any but the last of these dates. The five maps, however, indicate by globe symbols the approximate total population of each colony. For the period the United States government has taken a census of population every ten years, and it was possible to include a map for each census year showing the density of population by counties Pls. The lines on these maps between areas having more and those having less than two persons per square mile mark-very roughly to be sure-the successive positions of the "frontier" in its march across the continent. The steady, almost due-westward course of the center of population from the vicinity of Baltimore in to southwestern Indiana in is shown on Plate 80A.

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Chapter 6 : Central America | History, Map, Countries, & Facts | theinnatdunvilla.com

Historical View of the Progress of Discovery on the More Northern Coasts of America: From the Earliest Period to the Present Time by Patrick Fraser Tytler starting at \$

Under the direction of Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese developed a new, much lighter ship, the caravel, which could sail further and faster, [3] and, above all, was highly manoeuvrable and could sail much nearer the wind, or into the wind. In Bartolomeu Dias reached the Indian Ocean by this route. He landed on a continent uncharted by Europeans and seen as a new world, the Americas. To prevent conflict between Portugal and Castile the crown under which Columbus made the voyage, the Treaty of Tordesillas was signed dividing the world into two regions of exploration, where each had exclusive rights to claim newly discovered lands. Soon, the Portuguese sailed further eastward, to the valuable Spice Islands in, landing in China one year later. Thus, Europe first received news of the eastern and western Pacific within a one-year span around. Since, the French and English and, much later, the Dutch entered the race of exploration after learning of these exploits, defying the Iberian monopoly on maritime trade by searching for new routes, first to the western coasts of North and South America, through the first English and French expeditions starting with the first expedition of John Cabot in to the north, in the service of England, followed by the French expeditions to South America and later to North America, and into the Pacific Ocean around South America, but eventually by following the Portuguese around Africa into the Indian Ocean; discovering Australia in, New Zealand in, and Hawaii in. Meanwhile, from the s to the s, Russians explored and conquered almost the whole of Siberia, and Alaska in the s. The decline of Fatimid Caliphate naval strength that started before the First Crusade helped the maritime Italian states, mainly Venice, Genoa and Pisa, dominate trade in the eastern Mediterranean, with Italian merchants becoming wealthy and politically influential. The Hanseatic League, a confederation of merchant guilds and their towns in northern Germany along the North Sea and Baltic Sea, was instrumental in commercial development of the region. In the 12th century the region of Flanders, Hainault and Brabant produced the finest quality textiles in northern Europe, which encouraged merchants from Genoa and Venice to sail there directly. Dhows had superior maneuverability and were used in the Indian Ocean before being built in Italy in the 13th century. Technological advancements that were important to the Age of Exploration were the adoption of the magnetic compass and advances in ship design. The compass was an addition to the ancient method of navigation based on sightings of the sun and stars. The compass had been used for navigation in China by the 11th century and was adopted by the Arab traders in the Indian Ocean. The compass spread to Europe by the late 12th or early 13th century. The compass card was also a European invention. These improvements gave greater maneuverability and allowed ships to sail at any time of the year. These new style ships were produced in Italian states between and, resulting in a boost in trade and connectivity between northern and southern Europe. Galleys were also used in trade. This led to significant lower long distance shipping costs by the 14th century. European medieval knowledge about Asia beyond the reach of the Byzantine Empire was sourced in partial reports, often obscured by legends, [11] dating back from the time of the conquests of Alexander the Great and his successors. Another source was the Radhanite Jewish trade networks of merchants established as go-betweens between Europe and the Muslim world during the time of the Crusader states. There were reports of great African Sahara, but the factual knowledge was limited for the Europeans to the Mediterranean coasts and little else since the Arab blockade of North Africa precluded exploration inland. Knowledge about the Atlantic African coast was fragmented and derived mainly from old Greek and Roman maps based on Carthaginian knowledge, including the time of Roman exploration of Mauritania. The Red Sea was barely known and only trade links with the Maritime republics, the Republic of Venice especially, fostered collection of accurate maritime knowledge. The rediscovery of Roman geographical knowledge was a revelation, [17] both for mapmaking and worldview, [18] although reinforcing the idea that the Indian Ocean was landlocked. Medieval travel â€” The Silk Road and spice trade routes later

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blocked by the Ottoman Empire in spurring exploration to find alternative sea routes Marco Polo travels "A prelude to the Age of Discovery was a series of European expeditions crossing Eurasia by land in the late Middle Ages. Most were Italians, as trade between Europe and the Middle East was controlled mainly by the Maritime republics. Though having strong political implications, their journeys left no detailed accounts. After returning, he dictated an account of his journeys to a scholar he met in Granada, the *Rihla* "The Journey" , [27] the unheralded source on his adventures. Between and a book of supposed travels compiled by John Mandeville acquired extraordinary popularity. Despite the unreliable and often fantastical nature of its accounts it was used as a reference [28] for the East, Egypt, and the Levant in general, asserting the old belief that Jerusalem was the centre of the world. These overland journeys had little immediate effect. The Mongol Empire collapsed almost as quickly as it formed and soon the route to the east became more difficult and dangerous. The Black Death of the 14th century also blocked travel and trade. Chinese missions " Further information: Between and the third Ming emperor Yongle sponsored a series of long range tributary missions in the Indian Ocean under the command of admiral Zheng He Cheng Ho. The first expedition departed in At least seven well-documented expeditions were launched, each bigger and more expensive than the last. It is very likely that this last expedition reached as far as Madagascar. Atlantic Ocean " See also: The silk and spice trade , involving spices , incense , herbs , drugs and opium , made these Mediterranean city-states phenomenally rich. Spices were among the most expensive and demanded products of the Middle Ages, as they were used in medieval medicine , [34] religious rituals , cosmetics , perfumery , as well as food additives and preservatives. Muslim traders"mainly descendants of Arab sailors from Yemen and Oman "dominated maritime routes throughout the Indian Ocean, tapping source regions in the Far East and shipping for trading emporiums in India, mainly Kozhikode , westward to Ormus in the Persian Gulf and Jeddah in the Red Sea. From there, overland routes led to the Mediterranean coasts. Venetian merchants distributed the goods through Europe until the rise of the Ottoman Empire , that eventually led to the fall of Constantinople in , barring Europeans from important combined-land-sea routes. Europeans had a constant deficit in silver and gold , [38] as coin only went one way: Several European mines were exhausted, [39] the lack of bullion leading to the development of a complex banking system to manage the risks in trade the very first state bank, Banco di San Giorgio , was founded in at Genoa. Sailing also into the ports of Bruges Flanders and England, Genoese communities were then established in Portugal, [40] who profited from their enterprise and financial expertise. European sailing had been primarily close to land cabotage , guided by portolan charts. These charts specified proven ocean routes guided by coastal landmarks: Arab navigational tools like the astrolabe and quadrant were used for celestial navigation. Portuguese exploration Saharan trade routes c. Young prince Henry the Navigator was there and became aware of profit possibilities in the Trans-Saharan trade routes. Henry wished to know how far Muslim territories in Africa extended, hoping to bypass them and trade directly with West Africa by sea, find allies in legendary Christian lands to the south [48] like the long-lost Christian kingdom of Prester John [49] and to probe whether it was possible to reach the Indies by sea, the source of the lucrative spice trade. He invested in sponsoring voyages down the coast of Mauritania , gathering a group of merchants, shipowners and stakeholders interested in new sea lanes. Soon the Atlantic islands of Madeira and the Azores were reached. In particular, they were discovered by voyages launched by the command of Prince Henry the Navigator. A major advance was the introduction of the caravel in the mid-15th century, a small ship able to sail windward more than any other in Europe at the time. For celestial navigation the Portuguese used the Ephemerides , which experienced a remarkable diffusion in the 15th century. These were astronomical charts plotting the location of the stars over a distinct period of time. Published in by the Jewish astronomer, astrologer, and mathematician Abraham Zacuto , the *Almanach Perpetuum* included some of these tables for the movements of stars. Exact longitude , however, remained elusive, and mariners struggled to determine it for centuries. In the fall of Constantinople to the hands of the Ottomans was a blow to Christendom and the established business relations linking with the east. In Pope Nicholas V issued the bull *Romanus Pontifex* reinforcing the previous *Dum Diversas* , granting all lands and seas discovered beyond

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Cape Bojador to King Afonso V of Portugal and his successors, as well as trade and conquest against Muslims and pagans, initiating a *mare clausum* policy in the Atlantic. In the next decade several captains at the service of Prince Henry – including the Genoese Antonio da Noli and Venetian Alvise Cadamosto – discovered the remaining islands which were occupied during the 15th century. The Gulf of Guinea would be reached in the s. Replica of caravel ship introduced in the midth century for oceanic exploration Portuguese exploration after Prince Henry In Pedro de Sintra reached Sierra Leone. In the Southern Hemisphere, they used the Southern Cross as the reference for celestial navigation. There, in what came to be called the "Gold Coast" in what is today Ghana , a thriving alluvial gold trade was found among the natives and Arab and Berber traders. In during the War of the Castilian Succession , near the coast at Elmina was fought a large battle between a Castilian armada of 35 caravels and a Portuguese fleet for hegemony of the Guinea trade gold, slaves, ivory and melegueta pepper. See entry on Elmina. This was the first colonial war among European powers. The next crucial breakthrough was in , when Bartolomeu Dias rounded the southern tip of Africa, which he named "Cape of Storms" Cabo das Tormentas , anchoring at Mossel Bay and then sailing east as far as the mouth of the Great Fish River , proving that the Indian Ocean was accessible from the Atlantic. Columbus and the West Indies See also: Only late in the century, following the unification of the crowns of Castile and Aragon and the completion of the reconquista , did an emerging modern Spain become fully committed to the search for new trade routes overseas. The Crown of Aragon had been an important maritime potentate in the Mediterranean, controlling territories in eastern Spain, southwestern France, major islands like Sicily , Malta , and the Kingdom of Naples and Sardinia , with mainland possessions as far as Greece. Columbus first sailed to the Canary Islands, where he restocked for what turned out to be a five-week voyage across the ocean, crossing a section of the Atlantic that became known as the Sargasso Sea. Columbus also explored the northeast coast of Cuba landed on 28 October and the northern coast of Hispaniola , by 5 December. He was received by the native cacique Guacanagari , who gave him permission to leave some of his men behind. Word of his discovery of new lands rapidly spread throughout Europe. The islands thus became the focus of colonization efforts. It was not until the continent itself was explored that Spain found the wealth it had sought. It did not mention Portugal, which could not claim newly discovered lands east of the line. King John II of Portugal was not pleased with the arrangement, feeling that it gave him far too little land – preventing him from reaching India, his main goal. He then negotiated directly with King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain to move the line west, and allowing him to claim newly discovered lands east of it. In this treaty the Portuguese received everything outside Europe east of a line that ran leagues west of the Cape Verde islands already Portuguese , and the islands discovered by Christopher Columbus on his first voyage claimed for Castile , named in the treaty as Cipangu and Antilia Cuba and Hispaniola. The Spanish Castile received everything west of this line. At the time of negotiation, the treaty split the known world of Atlantic islands roughly in half, with the dividing line about halfway between Portuguese Cape Verde and the Spanish discoveries in the Caribbean. Since it was east of the dividing line, he claimed it for Portugal and this was respected by the Spanish. Portuguese ships sailed west into the Atlantic to get favourable winds for the journey to India, and this is where Cabral was headed on his journey, in a corridor the treaty was negotiated to protect. Some suspect the Portuguese had secretly discovered Brazil earlier, and this is why they had the line moved eastward and how Cabral found it, but there is no reliable evidence of this. Others suspect Duarte Pacheco Pereira secretly discovered Brazil in , but this not considered credible by mainstream historians. Later the Spanish territory would prove to include huge areas of the continental mainland of North and South America, though Portuguese-controlled Brazil would expand across the line, and settlements by other European powers ignored the treaty. Very little of the divided area had actually been seen by Europeans, as it was only divided by a geographical definition rather than control on the ground. Sailing from Bristol , probably backed by the local Society of Merchant Venturers , Cabot crossed the Atlantic from a northerly latitude hoping the voyage to the "West Indies" would be shorter [69] and made a landfall somewhere in North America, possibly Newfoundland. After returning he possibly went to Bristol to sail in the name of England. In July news spread

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that the Portuguese had reached the "true indies", as a letter was dispatched by the Portuguese king to the Spanish Catholic Monarchs one day after the celebrated return of the fleet.

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Chapter 7 : The history of Virgil A. Stewart: and his adventure in capturing and - Google Books

Among the various Expeditions of Discovery by land and sea, none have been considered of greater importance, or regarded with a deeper interest, than those into the Arctic Regions. The navigator has no where to contend with such formidable obstacles, nor does he elsewhere behold an aspect of nature.

There has always been a double aspect to such encounters. At an immediate and practical level, conquest, colonization and trade led to modes of domination or coexistence and multi-faceted transcultural relationships. In Europe, such encounters with "otherness" led to attempts to explain and interpret the origins and nature of racial and cultural linguistic, religious and social diversity. At the same time, observation of alien societies, cultures and religious practices broadened the debate on human social forms, leading to a critical reappraisal of European Christian civilization. InhaltsverzeichnisTable of Contents Preliminary remarks Now the Great Map of Mankind is unrolled at once; and there is no state or Gradation of barbarism, and no mode of refinement which we have not at the same instant under our View. The very different Civility of Europe and of China; the barbarism of Persia and Abyssinia, the erratic manners of Tartary, and of Arabia. In the second half of the 15th century, Europe entered an age of discovery which resulted in new, increasingly dense relationships with territories and populations all over the world. This also involved geographical, geological and other discoveries, as knowledge of the shape and layout of the world and the location of resources entered the Western consciousness. But there was also an important ethno-anthropological aspect to the discoveries, as the variety of peoples and forms of social organization affected European reflections on human society, culture, religion, government and civilization through a continuous interplay between the testimonies of travellers and the work of scholars at home. The term discovery is controversial as it implies a passivity on the part of indigenous populations, who were "found" by Europeans. This asymmetrical view denies an autonomous existence to indigenous populations before the arrival of Europeans. Since the early s, historians have increasingly replaced the term "discovery" with "encounter", which is perceived as more neutral and implying a reciprocity rather than the subject-object relationship implied by the term "discovery". The term "encounter" is also free of the ideological connotations that terms such as "conquest" and "expansion" imply, and "encounter" is compatible with a transcultural approach to global history. The adoption of a more neutral term does not, however, alter the fact that a process of European penetration into regions of the world previously unknown to Europeans did occur, and through this process Europeans "discovered" for themselves new species and ecosystems, and new peoples and societies. During this process, European perceptions of the encountered "others" were dominated from the outset by a hierarchical perspective. As "encounter" implies a reciprocal, two-way process, the study of these encounters is not complete without considering the non-European perspective. However, this article will deal primarily with the European side of the encounter. With whom, where and when? For five centuries, the Ottoman Turks remained the primary "other" for Christendom. In all these cases, the "others" were enemies who constituted a direct threat to Christian Europe. During the early modern period, however, Europeans encounters were the consequence of a process of expansion on the part of dynamic Western societies during their transformation into modern capitalist economies and nation-states. The first wave of expansion during the 15th and 16th centuries focused on three main areas. Firstly, there was the Atlantic basin from the Atlantic islands and coastal western Africa to the central areas of the American continent. Secondly, there were the northern seas, stretching eastward from the Baltic to the White Sea and the Siberian coasts and westward to the northern American coasts of Canada , Labrador , the Hudson Bay and the Baffin Island. Thirdly, there was the Oriental seas and northern Asia. The second wave of expansion occurred during the 18th century, mainly in the Pacific region, including Australia , Tasmania , New Guinea , New Zealand and the Pacific Islands , and also in the northern seas between Alaska and Siberia. The third wave witnessed expansion into central Africa by Europeans during the 19th century the so-called "scramble" or "race" for Africa. Each successive wave brought encounters with new "others" for

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white Europeans, and â€” reciprocally â€” brought several peoples in different parts of the world into the sphere of influence of a self-confident, fair skinned "other" equipped with big vessels, firearms and an insatiable hunger for riches and souls. Together these waves of expansion constitute an age of global plunder which primarily benefitted the Western world, but they also prepared the way for an ever more "transcultural" world. Firstly, they provided a new stimulus to European thinking on nature, man, society, religion, law, history and civilization, and brought into being new areas of intellectual enquiry, such as anthropology, comparative history, linguistics, biology and sociology. Secondly, they produced an impressive array of printed travel accounts and historical writings, through which the deeds of European adventurers, conquistadores and navigators entered into national historical narratives. Such publications brought the experience of new worlds into the purview of cultivated Europeans. European encounters with different races of people had taken place since antiquity, as recorded by Herodotus ca. Notable sporadic voyages, and diplomatic and religious missions had been undertaken in the 13th century to eastern Asia , to the Mongolian Empire and to the court of the Great Khan, mainly by Italians. Naval explorations beyond Gibraltar by Portuguese and Italian navigators had seen voyages westward and along the southern Atlantic routes and the western coasts of Africa during the 14th and 15th centuries. But voyages that took place from the s onward had an impact which went far beyond their economic or political significance. The arrival of the Spanish in the "New World" would also transform life in Europe and the Americas on the material, cultural and intellectual levels, drawing both Europe and the Americas into an increasingly transatlantic and transcultural relationship, producing what has been described as the "Columbian exchange". In the West and in the East, the Europeans established contact with different kinds of human societies and cultures. The societies and cultures which Europeans encountered in the Caribbean and in continental North and South America were generally viewed as "savagery". However, Europeans also encountered civilizations which they viewed as more "advanced" in the form of the Aztec, Maya and Inca empires, posing fundamental historical and ethnological questions. In the East, on the other hand, Europeans encountered civilizations that they recognized as ancient, complex and highly structured civilizations, which â€” unlike indigenous populations in the Americas â€” did not present them with pliable trade partners or easily subjugated native populations. The perceived "savagery" and "half-civilized" empires which the Europeans encountered in the Americas invited them to conquer these societies and implant new political, economic and legal systems there, as well as new languages and religions. During subsequent exploration and expansion, Europeans encountered other indigenous populations during the 16th and 17th centuries in the Americas, South Africa , Indonesia , Oceania , as well as northern and central Asia. Europeans categorized these as "savage societies" of hunters and fishers, or "barbarian societies" of nomadic herdsmen. From the second half of the 17th century, however, the efforts of Jesuit missionaries and of French, English, and German orientalists led to the discovery of an entirely different, culturally developed kind of "otherness": Arabic literary traditions; the Brahminic or Vedic religious culture of India; Confucian philosophy in China ; the Baalbek and Palmyra civilizations in the Near East ; and the Indo-Iranian Avestic and Indian Sanskrit linguistic and literary traditions which inspired the so-called "Oriental Renaissance" and "Oriental Enlightenment". British rule was consolidated in India in the early 19th century. The early and midth century also witnessed the beginning of the colonization of Australia and New Zealand; the French expeditions to Tonkin , Vietnam and Cambodia in the s; British involvement in Afghanistan and British efforts to gain entry into the markets of China; as well as German, Belgian and Italian imperialist activities in western and eastern Africa. The conquest and settlement of the American West continued throughout the 19th century until the frontier was officially declared closed in . At the end of the 19th century, there was hardly a region of the world â€” regions of China, Japan , the Arctic and Antarctic continents were the exceptions â€” into which Europeans had not extended their economic and military power, and their culture. The encounters which European expansion set in motion processes which resulted in a world increasingly defined by transcultural and transnational phenomena. These processes dramatically altered the demographic and ecological history of the globe, for example, through the mass displacement of Africans by the slave trade , through colonization

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and the transplanting of social, religious and juridical ideas and practices, through the increasing enmeshment of overseas regions in European political history and diplomacy, through mass migrations of intermittent intensity from Europe to the Americas and subsequently from the rest of the world to Europe, and through a massive diversification of the range of goods available on the European market and the gradual emergence of the world economy. The consequences of these events have been the subject of numerous historical studies, which are summarized below. Who are they, where do they come from, how do they live? The term "savage" came to denote people and societies that were not only different in language or religion. In antiquity and during the medieval period, the term "barbarians" was used to denote people who were different in terms of language, culture or religion. But in the early modern period, as a result of the encounters mentioned above, the term "savages" came to mean people who supposedly did not meet the basic prerequisites of civilized society, who lived by the laws of nature, or without any laws, learning, religion or morals. Two prevalent attitudes towards the Native American quickly emerged. According to one attitude, they were living testimony to a lost golden age before the fall from innocence. According to this attitude, the natives were fully human and thus had the capacity to acquire all the perceived benefits of European civilization, including Christian doctrine and, accordingly, salvation. As potential members of the Catholic Church and subjects of the crown of Castile, they should not be enslaved, it was argued, and they should be granted the same rights as any other Spanish subjects. However, the other prevalent attitude defined the Amerindians as only semi-human beings or even "beasts", lacking all the fundamental prerequisites of civilized people. They were not "good", it was argued, but "bad savages": They were clearly not fully human beings and had to be subjected to a superior political authority, which would bring them the blessings of European and Christian order. While the attitudes described above were undoubtedly coloured by debates about legitimate authority in the newly acquired territories, the Amerindian peoples also posed serious questions of a philosophical and doctrinal nature. Their very existence on a landmass separated from the Eurasian-African landmass by a vast ocean raised questions about the re-population of the world after the biblical flood by the inhabitants of the Ark, as described in Genesis. The fact that they had apparently not been introduced to Christianity, or the other two monotheistic religions of the Old World, called into question other aspects of the Bible narrative and of Christian doctrine. Moreover, some of the newly discovered people, while physically human, had apparently no equivalent forms of economic organization, political authority or religion. They were nomads, gatherers, hunters, fishers, or were at best herdsmen or simple cultivators of the soil. They lived in small, often temporary villages and had few domesticated animals. They did not possess iron tools. They had no formal religions equivalent to the monotheistic religions of the Old World. To Europeans, their social life seemed to lack rules and conventions for regulating sexual intercourse and family relationships. Those who lived in the more sophisticated urban societies and state structures of the great Mesoamerican empires were viewed as being not much more advanced technologically and culturally than the "savages" and were frequently referred to as "barbarians" to distinguish them from the "savages". These European impressions and observations were recorded in a vast historical, juridical, religious and philosophical literature. Its rapid growth accompanied the process of European expansion in the New World, providing the educated European public with an opportunity to familiarize itself with phenomena from the other side of the Atlantic. At least three major problems emerged during these discoveries. They related to the origins and nature, the history, and the future of the Native American peoples. Debates about the origins and nature of the Amerindians gave rise to a variety of competing explanations over the subsequent centuries. According to a biblical, monogenetic view of mankind, they were the descendants of Adam, according to which view they had survived the biblical flood by migrating to land that was not submerged. Another polygenetic view held that they were the product of an act, or acts, of creation separate to the one described in Genesis, with God creating different human beings according to the differing geomorphology of the various regions of the world. Diffusionism and evolutionism were two further theories deviating from traditional Christian doctrine which were proposed to account for the existence and origins of the Native Americans. Connected with the above considerations was the problem of

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social forms and of history. European culture gradually developed a tendency to analyse different cultures and social organizations, which later developed into the disciplines of ethnography, anthropology and historical sociology. The first important contributions in this field came not from secular, but from religious authors – the missionaries. Missionaries devoted themselves to the task of understanding new cultures. In their endeavours, they linked the debate about civilization to the issue of evangelization. Exploring concepts of "barbarism" and "savagery" more deeply, he reached a new understanding of how natural, educational and environmental factors affect the political life and historical development of human communities. His discussion of the difficulties of evangelizing among people with a radically different culture and language are noticeably more modern than previous writings on the issue of evangelization. But his ethnological descriptions also offered a clue to history. He held that all races of men, before being fully civilized, had undergone an historical development through three successive levels of barbarism. In other words, the present state of the American peoples represented the primitive state of mankind. Were the Indians capable of rising to higher levels of organization? But the Indians could improve only under the guidance of the politically and religiously superior Europeans. Acosta also showed how orthodox Christian diffusionism could be reconciled with history by applying the theory that migration and the persistence of nomadic conditions were unfavourable to civilization. Defining the Native Americans as the offspring of Japhet, Acosta suggested that they had probably migrated to the Americas via an as yet unknown passage in northeast Asia. The Native Americans had thus migrated further than all other peoples in the aftermath of the biblical flood, losing more of the culture they had previously possessed in the process, and having no opportunity to regain that culture in the absence of cities and sedentary agriculture, which Acosta, in common with other Europeans, considered to be essential prerequisites of civilized society. Particularly interesting was the idea that in America the Europeans had moved not only in space, but also in time, encountering their own past. Bernard le Bovier de Fontenelle – elaborated on this idea by comparing myths, fables and oracles that he identified as the constituents of a primitive mentality common to all people in the early stages of development.

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Chapter 8 : History of the west coast of North America - Wikipedia

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Settlement of the Americas and Paleo-Indians The west coast of North America likely saw the first sustained arrival of people to the continent. For example, it has been estimated that in , one-third of all Native Americans in the United States were living in California. Olmec beginning about BC Mixtec beginning perhaps BC Maya settled villages along the Pacific coast appear from BC, and ceremonial architecture by approximately BC and Aztec from the 14th century AD Farther south, Panama was home to some of the earliest pottery-making, such as the Monagrillo culture dating to about 4000 BC; this culture evolved into significant populations best known for spectacular burial sites dating to c. 1500 BC. Each of these cultures rose, flourished, and was then conquered by a more militarily developed culture. While not all of these civilizations had large settlements along the coast of the Pacific Ocean, their influence extended to the Pacific coast. Regional communications in ancient Mesoamerica and especially along the west coast have been the subject of considerable research. There is evidence of trade routes starting as far north as the Mexico Central Plateau , and going down to the Pacific coast. These trade routes and cultural contacts then went on as far as Central America. These networks operated along the west coast with various interruptions from pre-Olmec times and up to the Late Classical Period 600 CE. European arrival [edit] In 1492, Spanish explorers were the first Europeans to reach the west coast of North America, on the Pacific coast of the Panama isthmus. From the point of view of European powers in the age of sailing ships , the west coast of North America was among the most distant places in the world. The arduous journey around Cape Horn at the tip of South America and then north meant nine to twelve months of dangerous sailing. These practical difficulties discouraged all but the Spanish Empire from making regular visits and establishing settlements and ports until the second half of the 18th century—some years after Europeans first reached the east coast of North America. Spanish explorers and conquistadors[edit] Main article: Spanish colonization of the Americas Explorers flying the flag of Spain reached the New World beginning in 1492 with the discovery of the Americas by Christopher Columbus. Spanish expeditions colonized and explored vast areas in North and South America following the grants of the Pope contained in the papal bull *Inter caetera* and rights contained in the Treaty of Tordesillas and Treaty of Zaragoza. These formal acts gave Spain the exclusive rights to colonize the entire Western Hemisphere excluding eastern Brazil , including all of the west coast of North America. In an act of enduring historical importance, Balboa claimed the Pacific Ocean for the Spanish Crown, as well as all adjoining land and islands. This act gave Spain exclusive sovereignty and navigation rights over the entire west coast of North America. The commonly held belief at the time was that the west coast of North America was in modest sailing distance of Asia to the west, or the two might actually physically connect. See Early knowledge of the Pacific Northwest. The Pacific Coast of Mexico and Central America was not especially conducive to economic development during this era. The northern Mexican coast including the Baja California Peninsula was generally too dry for substantial agriculture or ranching that would support settlements. South of the deserts, the jungles of the Pacific Coast in Mexico and Central America, and the tropical diseases found there, were major obstacles to large-scale development. While Navidad faded in importance, Acapulco became the primary port of the Spanish Empire on the west coast of North America, and was used as a base for exploratory expeditions north and trade routes with the Far East. The expedition sailed northwards along the west coast of the Mexican mainland, and reached the Gulf of California six weeks later. When one of his ships was lost in a storm, Ulloa paused to repair the other two ships, and then resumed his voyage, eventually reaching the northern end of the Gulf. After taking on supplies of wood and water, Ulloa rounded the tip of the peninsula with great difficulty and sailed northward along the western shore of the peninsula, in the Pacific Ocean. The progress of his small ships was hampered by the fierce winds and high seas he encountered,

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eventually forcing him to turn back to Acapulco. Ferdinand Magellan , the Portuguese explorer sailing for Spain, had shown in that the Pacific Ocean could be crossed from South America. Hence, beginning in , using hardware from Spain such as anchors hauled across the isthmus of Central America, and local hardwoods, a flotilla of some thirteen ships was built over the next four years. The Manila Galleons crossed the Pacific Ocean to the Spanish possession of the Philippines , laden with silver and gemstones from Mexico. There, the wealth was used to purchase Asian trade goods such as spices , silk , and porcelain. These goods were then carried across the Pacific by the Manila Galleons to Acapulco; from there, the goods were transshipped across Mexico, for delivery to the Spanish treasure fleet , for shipment to Spain. The income provided to Spain by the Manila Galleons was essential to the Spanish Crown and to the Spanish economy of the era. The San Pedro sailed from Cebu , headed roughly northeast, followed the Kuroshio Current also known as the Japan Current , and made landfall on the coast of California about the latitude of Cape Mendocino. A sail of two thousand five hundred miles down the coasts of California and New Spain brought the voyagers to the port of Acapulco. This return voyage across the Pacific could take up to seven months. A harbor on the coast of California where ships could find shelter and repair damage was greatly desired. However, Gali accomplished only limited chart-making. In this attempt, he reached land between Point St. George and Trinidad Head on November 4, This open vessel reached Acapulco in early â€”a remarkable voyage of nearly twenty-five hundred miles in an open boat. With the loss of the San Agustin, exploration of the California coast by ships loaded with cargo from the Philippines came to an end. He ventured inland south along the coast, and recorded a visit to what is likely Carmel Bay. During this period until , some 16 missions were established on the peninsulaâ€”mostly on the east coast of the peninsula, with a handful on the Pacific coast, in the northwestern part of the peninsula. One of the most important consequences of these claims is that charters for the British colonies on the Atlantic coast went from sea to sea, and this was the foundation of the United States claim to its current territory. Settlements and conflicts â€” [edit] While the Spanish had dominated development on the west coast of North America for over years since the early 16th century, beginning in the midth century, this period saw the advent of British and Russian rivals, and the establishment of the California missions , followed by the independence of Mexico and the Central American countries. Much later in this period, the United States started on its path to become the dominant power on the west coast of North America. Today it remains unclear exactly why the Viceroy of New Spain decided to create an entirely new shipbuilding port along the west coast of Mexico, when the port at Acapulco already existed. San Blas built the ships and was the home port for these exploration and supply voyages beginning in and continuing to These missions eventually stretched from the southern tip of the Baja California peninsula to Sonoma, California , north of San Francisco. The purpose of the missions, which typically had an accompanying pueblo town and presidio military outpost , was to solidify the year-old Spanish claim to the region. This need became more urgent as the Russians and British were encroaching on the far northern part of the west coast of North America. In addition, there continued the long-standing interest in creating a safe anchorage for seaworn Manila Galleons on their return to Acapulco. In the early 19th century, fur trappers of the Russian Empire explored the west coast of North America, hunting for sea otter pelts as far south as San Diego. In , the Russian-American Company set up a fortified trading post at Fort Ross , located north of present-day Bodega Bay some sixty miles north of San Francisco , with the never-materialized hope of using that area to develop a source of agricultural products needed for their settlements in Alaska. Spanish expeditions to the Pacific Northwest In the late 18th century, Spain reacted to the expanding Russian and British presence in the Pacific Northwest by sending exploratory expeditions along the coast as far north as Alaska. The expedition re-asserted Spanish claims to all the coastal lands, including to the Russian settlements in the north. The two ships sailed together as far north as Point Grenville , named Punta de los Martires or "Point of the Martyrs" by Heceta in response to an attack by the local Quinault Indians. He was the first European to sight the mouth of the Columbia River. By design, the two vessels separated with one continuing to what is today the border between Washington state and Canada. Spanish contact in British Columbia and Alaska. At Yakutat Bay, the expedition made

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contact with the Tlingit. The expedition made a study of the Nootka. The two ships then sailed south to Mexico, stopping at the Spanish settlement and mission at Monterey, California on the way. Simultaneously an expedition under Francisco de Eliza , exploring the Strait of Juan de Fuca , discovered an entrance to the Strait of Georgia , which prompted further investigation. The two expeditions met in the Strait of Georgia and worked together to map the waters and establish the insularity of Vancouver Island. British North America[edit] In , the British seafaring Captain James Cook , midway through his third and final voyage of exploration, sailed along the west coast of North America, mapping the coast from California all the way to the Bering Strait. His post was torn down at the end of although he claimed otherwise. War between Spain and Great Britain over control of the Pacific Northwest was averted by the three Nootka Conventions , signed in , , and In the s, Mexico ended Church control of the missions in California and opened the land to secular development, particularly ranching. These settlements primarily traded cattle hides and tallow with American and European merchant vessels. Mexican control of the territory ended after only 25 years, when attempts by local Mexican officials to expropriate the property of American ranchers and drive them out of California in the winter lead to the successful uprising known as the Bear Flag Revolt. Central American independence[edit] During the s, the Central American possessions of Spain gained their independence, and the boundaries of the young nations shifted in alliances and configurations. For example, what was to become the nation of Panama was simply a province of Colombia , and Guatemala was variously part of a confederation with Mexico, and part of the United Provinces of Central America , before becoming a separate nation in Almost all of these Central American nations saw continuing political strife throughout this period and into the 20th century , as struggles continued between indigenous peoples and elites, and among factions of the elites. They compiled an account of the California mission system, the land and the people. The United States argued that it acquired the Spanish rights to exclusive ownership of the Pacific Northwest as far north as Alaska, even though Spain had in fact relinquished any claim to exclusive rights as a result of the Nootka Conventions. This position led to a dispute with Britain known as the Oregon boundary dispute , remembered for the slogan " or fight! Americans continued arriving on the west coast of North America in significant numbers in the mids. By , the first overland party of American settlers reached California along what became the California Trail , and by the mids significant numbers of Americans were arriving in California. In addition, the long-standing dispute between the United States and Great Britain over the Oregon Country was resolved in , with the signing of the Oregon Treaty ; the Oregon Treaty divided the disputed territory along what later became the current international boundary between Canada and the United States. Rapid growth â€” [edit] In this era, much of the west coast of North America transformed from an area still largely populated by indigenous peoples to widespread population of non-natives. In particular, the west coast of the United States showed the most dramatic change, beginning with the California Gold Rush and the subsequent opening of the transcontinental railroads, through the development of Hollywood in Southern California , and increased industry and agriculture in the U. Canadian and Mexican development also proceeded during this time, but at a slower pace. However, the Mexicanâ€”American War had already been declared, and the American military quickly took control of California. At the end of the war , Mexico ceded control of California to the United States. Things began to change dramatically in with the California Gold Rush which brought an influx of immigrants from around the world. While few found much gold, many stayed, founding communities and turning to farming and other practices. Despite these increases in population the west coast was still on the periphery. The American Civil War had little effect. This began to change as the first transcontinental railroads completed in stretched across the United States. For the first time, it was relatively cheap and easy to move to the west coast. The next 75 years saw monumental change on the west coast of the United States. Canada[edit] The gold rush fever spread progressively north; in , the Fraser Canyon Gold Rush began in British Columbia, and at the end of the century, the Klondike Gold Rush saw the Yukon hit by masses of prospectors. The new line became an important link in what was known as the All Red Route around the world, linking global travel through territories exclusively British. Mexico[edit] While the Pacific Coast of

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Mexico remained relatively undeveloped economically, exceptions were tobacco cultivation in the coastal territory of Nayarit , tourism at Acapulco, and local-scale fishing all along the coast. Central America[edit] The countries of Central America continued to struggle politically during this time with perhaps the notable exception of Costa Rica , and began to expand agriculture, particularly in coffee and bananas with investment and substantial control by the United States.

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Chapter 9 : EXPLORATION AND DISCOVERY BEGINNINGS OF THE EXPANSION OF EUROPE

Historical view of the progress of discovery on the more northern coasts of America, from the earliest period to the present time. With descriptive sketches of the natural history of the North American regions.

Certainly the movement of western Europeans beyond the narrow limits of their homelands out to both the East and the West, a movement that began in the fifteenth century, had momentous consequences. In time it led to the penetration of European influence, and in some cases European domination to every continent on the globe. Europe has produced a civilisation which is being imitated by the whole world, whilst the converse has never happened. Why was it that the Europeans imposed their presence on the rest of the world to such an amazing degree? This is one of those historical questions whose fascination is in proportion to our inability to answer any of them, for no definitive answer is possible. The peoples who led the way were neither rich nor numerous, not only by our standards but also by comparison with China, the most powerful, wealthy, and civilized state in the world at the time the great expansion began. The Chinese Empire was a trading empire, regularly sending ships on distant commercial expeditions involving thousands of tons of shipping and thousands of men. The Moslems were, and had long been, engaged in active trade throughout the East. European trade and navigation had, by comparison, been relatively restricted during the Middle Ages. Though we cannot expect to find the ultimate causes for the European expansion, we can acquaint ourselves with some of the conditions in which it began. In the first place, the movement is associated with a shift in European life from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic seaboard. Leadership in European political and economic life was coming more and more into the hands of Portugal, Spain, France, and England. These nations all had monarchies that were growing in strength, increasing their control over the various classes within the state, and consolidating their hold over the territories subject to them. They all had Atlantic coastlines, and led the way in seeking new trade routes and new lands. The Dutch joined in the race as their political independence grew. These rising states sought a way to counteract the long-standing Italian particularly Venetian monopoly of the eastern trade. The economic impulse was no doubt dominant, but the missionary aspect was present too. Vasco da Gama was said to have named "Christians and spices" as the objects of his voyage to India. The desire to convert was linked to the crusading zeal, which lived on in the hearts of many Portuguese and Spanish as a legacy of their long conflicts with the Moors. To combine a profitable acquisition of new trade routes with a telling blow against the infidel was a potent combination in urging brave men on to daring enterprises. Nor was the desire to learn more about the world a negligible factor. The state of technology was adequate to the task. At the start of the fifteenth century, European ships were inferior to those used by Arab and Chinese traders; but the Europeans learned fast, and within two hundred years they were building the best ships in the world. In , European ships, though sometimes quite large, were clumsy. They usually had only one mast, though some larger ships had two or three. They were square-rigged, which limited their movement, and had only one sail to a mast, which meant large sails, difficult to handle. Thus these ships were difficult to maneuver and unsuited for long journeys or adverse winds. These square-rigged ships, consequently, were not important in the early voyages of discovery. Instead, the Portuguese used a type whose construction they borrowed from Arab merchants, the two-master lateen caravel. The lateen sail was more or less triangular and capable of being adjusted to almost all winds. The Portuguese modified the caravel by combining the square-rig with the lateen sails and adding a mast, or sometimes two. As a result, the advantages of both types of ship were gained and the disadvantages eliminated. The Arab caravels could not attain the size or speed possible to square-rigged ships, but were superior for sailing close to the wind and much more easily steered. The new ships made feasible the long-distance voyages to the Far East and the New World. Some instruments existed for the use of navigators. Compasses had been used by Europeans at least from the thirteenth century. To ascertain their latitude, sailors found the altitude of the heavenly bodies by means of the astrolabe; the quadrant was invented and used in the fifteenth century. There was no satisfactory means of finding longitude

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or speed. The geographical picture of the world with which Europeans started their expansion was a fascinating mixture of fact and fantasy, based on the knowledge of the ancients, especially Ptolemy, as supplemented in the Middle Ages, largely by the Arabs. The spherical nature of the earth had been known as far back as the fifth century B. The most influential of the ancient writers on geography, Ptolemy, was active in the first half of the second century A. Though his work on astronomy, the *Almagest*, was widely used by the Arabs, they neglected his *Geography*, which was not recovered until He adopted a false estimate of the circumference of the earth, making it about one-sixth too small. He enclosed the Indian Ocean in a continent, which extended from Africa to China, and said that the whole southern hemisphere was too hot for navigation. The Arabs added some ideas of their own, including the belief that the Atlantic, or "Green Sea of Darkness," was unnavigable. This fear, imparted to the European nations, was an obstacle that had to be overcome. In the early Middle Ages, the greatest contributions to an increased knowledge of the world were made by the Vikings, or Norsemen. From around the year they were active in exploring North America, and their voyages there are recorded until the middle of the fourteenth century. Among Christian travelers in the Middle Ages, the greatest was Marco Polo, a member of the Venetian merchant aristocracy, who spent over twenty years in the East, seventeen of them in the service of Kublai Khan, ruler of the great Mongol Empire in Asia. Other travelers to the East, both before and after Marco Polo, some merchants and some missionaries, helped to spread a knowledge of Asia among the European reading public. Therefore, much was known about Asia long before the opening of the modern age of discoveries. From the middle of the thirteenth century to the beginning of the fifteenth, Italians, especially Genoese, were leaders in exploring activities, though they were not alone in the work. Italian and Catalan hydrographers drew the *portolani*, or coast-charts, which contained accurate outlines of the coasts of the Mediterranean and Black Seas, with some charts extending to northern Europe and the northern part of Africa. Genoese sailors reached the Barbary Coast late in the thirteenth century; an Englishman accidentally discovered the Madeira Islands around ; a French expedition reached the Canary Islands in Christian colonies were established in several places in the Canaries. The great age of exploration and discovery was inaugurated by the Portuguese, and the first important figure in the story is Prince Henry the Navigator , a member of the royal family. In , on the coast at Sagres, he built a palace, established his court, and set up a center for exploration. He gathered around himself sailors, astronomers, shipbuilders, mappers, and makers of instruments, and from here he sent out expeditions. His motives were religious, scientific, and patriotic: Among his many accomplishments, Henry is best known for the expeditions he sent from to explore the coast of Africa. These voyages mark the beginning of continuous ocean sailing. In the process the Portuguese began the slave trade. While Henry was interested in the conversion of the captured African natives to Christianity, others were interested only in the profits to be made from them. Progress continued to be made toward reaching the southern tip of Africa, which was much farther south than was realized. The sailor who finally reached and rounded the southernmost point of the Continent was Bartolomeu Dias, sent out by King John II in with two ships. Blown off course by a storm in the neighborhood of Walfisch Bay, Dias reached the coast once more and rounded the tip without realizing it. He sailed eastward as far as the Great Fish River, five hundred miles beyond the Cape, when his men refused to go farther. He then turned back, and on the return voyage found that he had rounded the southern tip of Africa. When the king learned this, he changed the name of the cape to Cape of Good Hope Dias had called it the Cape of Storms. In December , after a voyage of over sixteen months, Dias returned to Lisbon. In the following year, King John sent out Pro da Covilh by land to find out if it was possible to sail around Africa to the East. He established the fact that it was indeed possible, and became the first Portuguese to reach India. With the help of an excellent Muslim pilot whom he picked up on the way, he reached Calicut on the west coast of India in May , having left Lisbon the preceding July. He managed to acquire a rich cargo of spices at Calicut, with which he returned to Lisbon in September He had been gone over two years and lost a third of his men, but the Portuguese had attained their great objective, a sea route to India. The Portuguese set out to exploit their new route to eastern spices, but they met an obstacle in the Moslem merchants who largely controlled this trade in the East. There

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followed a bloody conflict between Portuguese and Moslems, in which the Europeans adopted the most ruthless methods to achieve their objectives. In 1497, another Portuguese sailor, Cabral, was sent out on the first commercial voyage to India. An unplanned result was the discovery of Brazil. One of his captains, becoming separated from the rest of the fleet in a storm, made other discoveries: Cabral did reach India, and after his voyage the Portuguese began the practice of sending fleets there annually. The founder of Portuguese supremacy in the East was Albuquerque, who arrived there in 1500. He saw that to secure their interests, the Portuguese would need a permanent fleet in the Indian Ocean, with a naval base, fortresses, and a reserve supply of sailors. With the insight of genius, he chose as base locations Goa, Malacca, Ormuz, and Aden, all of which he took except Aden. From Malacca the Portuguese were able to reach China; one of their ships arrived in Canton in 1513. Eventually they were given permission to have a permanent settlement at Macao and engage in the China trade. They also reached the Moluccas, or Spice Islands, where through treaties with native rulers they were to procure spices. From their new bases they were able to sweep the vessels of the Mohammedans from the seas, block the trade routes to Moslem merchants traveling by land, and dominate the spice trade. Early in their career as explorers, the Portuguese encountered Spanish rivalry. During the fifteenth century there were numerous disputes between Portugal and Castile involving trade and colonization. A treaty of 1494 granted the Portuguese a monopoly of trade, exploration, and settlement on the West African coast and all the Atlantic islands except the Canaries, which remained Spanish. It was in the West that Spain made important discoveries. The first of the great discoverers who served the Spanish crown was Christopher Columbus, born in Genoa in 1451. He was a sailor from an early age, acquiring a great deal of maritime experience. He lived for a time in Portugal and later in the Madeira Islands. At some point he began to think seriously of a westward voyage to the Orient. From Toscanelli, a famous geographer, he acquired some wildly inaccurate figures based on Ptolemy on the size of the earth. To compound their misinformation, Columbus and Toscanelli believed that Asia extended far to the east, so that Columbus was finally led to conclude that Japan was about 2,000 nautical miles west of the Canary Islands, whereas the true figure is 10,000, well over four times his estimate. He went to Spain, where years of frustration followed as he endeavored to secure the backing of Queen Isabella.