The Age of Exploration

Reader
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## The Age of Exploration

### Unit 9 Reader

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Introduction to The Age of Exploration

In 1491, most Europeans did not know that North and South America existed. The people of the Americas did not know that Europe existed. Although other explorers had visited the Americas before, Europeans did not know that.

In 1492, that changed. In that year, Christopher Columbus sailed across the Atlantic Ocean and accidentally landed on islands off the coast of the Americas. His explorations marked the start of the Age of Exploration.
An artist's illustration of Columbus landing in the New World
As news spread about what Columbus had found, men from all over Spain raced to find treasure. Spanish conquistadors, such as Francisco Vasquez de Coronado, set out in search of silver and gold. They slashed their way through swamps. They marched across deserts. They explored and conquered many lands.


These explorers changed the world. They connected Europe with the Americas. You will read about some of their journeys here.
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Many European explorers were hoping to find gold and other precious metals.

You can probably understand why explorers were eager to find gold. Gold is a valuable metal even today. However, you may be surprised to learn that many explorers were also excited about finding spices. You might be saying, “Spices? Really? Why were they so eager to find spices?”

Here’s the answer: Things that are scarce, or hard to find, tend to be expensive. That’s why gold is expensive today. That’s also why spices were expensive five hundred years ago. Back then, spices were scarce in Europe. They were hard to find. So they cost a lot. Some spices were almost worth their weight in gold.
Gold
The red balls in the center of this image are red peppercorns. A cook can add a few whole peppercorns to soup. He can use a spice grinder to grind the peppercorns into tiny bits. Either way, the pepper will add flavor to the soup. It will make the soup spicier and tastier.

To the left of the red peppercorns, you can see white peppercorns. These come from the same plants as red peppercorns but they are prepared in a different way. White peppercorns start out as red peppercorns but the outer hull of the red peppercorn is removed to reveal the inner kernel, which is white. They can be used in the same way as red peppercorns.
The black bowl in the upper right of this image is filled with cloves. Cloves are dried flower buds. They are used to add flavor to meats and stews, some teas, and pumpkin pie. Cloves are very strong. Cooks who use them must be careful because adding too many of them may overwhelm other flavors in the dish.

Peppercorns can’t be grown in Europe. They can only be grown in warm, wet places, like India. The image shows unharvested peppercorns.

Today, we can get peppercorns from India pretty easily. An airplane or a ship can transport large amounts of them. You can go to a grocery store and get almost any spice you want. A little jar of cloves might cost a dollar or two. A can of peppercorns might cost five or six dollars.

Five hundred years ago, Europeans were not so lucky. The world was not as well connected as it is today. Spices were hard to get and transport. They cost a lot of money.

A Spaniard who wanted pepper would have to pay for a lot more
than just the pepper. He would have to pay the cost of shipping the pepper over land all the way from India, using donkeys, mules, and camels.

It was the same with cloves and cinnamon. These plants could not be grown in Europe. They had to be imported, or brought in, to Europe from faraway places, like the Indies.

Many of the spices we use are the flowers, the fruits, or the seeds of the plant. Cinnamon is different. In this case, the part of the plant we use is the bark. Strips of bark are cut off the tree. The outer bark is cut away. The inner bark is kept and rolled up like little scrolls. These are called cinnamon sticks. Cinnamon can also be ground up, like pepper.

Do you like the taste of cinnamon? Do you like cinnamon on toast? How much do you like it? Would you be willing to sail across an ocean to get some cinnamon for your toast? In a sense, that is what European explorers were trying to do.
Star anise, cinnamon, and cloves (clockwise from star anise)
Chapter 2

**Toscanelli’s Map**

An Italian man named Paolo [pow-loe] Toscanelli [tos-kəh-nel-ee] may have been responsible for the Europeans landing in the Americas.

Toscanelli was a math **whiz**, an astronomer, and a mapmaker. In 1474, he made a map of the world, which he sent with a letter to the King of Portugal telling how to reach the Indies by sailing west. The King was very interested but Toscanelli was not correct.

On the right side of Toscanelli’s map, you can see some parts of Europe in orange. You may know some of them: Ireland, labeled “Irlanda;” London, England; and Lisbon, Portugal, labeled “Lisbona.”

To the south of Europe, you can see part of Africa. The part Europeans called Guinea is labeled. The Canary Islands, just off the coast of Africa, are labeled “Canariae.”
The right side of this map is mostly correct.
Look at the left side of the map. This side shows parts of Asia, or, rather, it shows parts of Asia where Toscanelli thought they might be.

Do you see the big island labeled “Cippangu”? That was what Toscanelli and other Europeans called Japan. They had heard about Japan. They knew it was somewhere in Asia. But they did not know exactly where. Toscanelli put it on his map where he thought it might be.

Do you see the land labeled “Cathay Mangi”? That was what Toscanelli and others of his day called China. They had read about China in a book called *The Travels of Marco Polo*. But they did not know exactly where it was. Again, the map shows where Toscanelli thought China was, not where it really is.

Do you see the islands just south of Cathay Mangi? Those are parts of the Indies. They are the “spice islands” that Europeans were so eager to reach.
The left side of the map is what Toscanelli thought was there.
Notice that Asia does not seem to be too far from Europe. That was one of Toscanelli’s big ideas. He thought Earth was not that big. He thought Asia was probably not too far from Europe. So that’s how he drew it on his map.

Now, imagine you are Christopher Columbus. You want to find a way to get to the Indies. You look at Toscanelli’s map.

“Wow!” you say. “Look at that! Asia is right there. It’s not so far from Europe. There’s nothing in between but a little water! It would not be hard to get to Asia! Why, I could get there in a few weeks. All I would need to do is sail west!”

We can never be sure what was in Christopher Columbus’s mind when he first looked at Toscanelli’s map. We do know he made a plan to travel to the Indies based on Toscanelli’s map. Then, he set out to find someone who would pay for his voyage. In the end, he convinced King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain to pay for it.
The route Columbus planned to take
Now, here is the same map with something added. The light blue shows what is really there, not what Toscanelli thought was there. You can see the outline of North America and part of South America.

The orange parts of the map show the Asian lands Columbus expected to reach. The light blue outline shows the lands where he actually accidentally landed.

Toscanelli’s map explains a lot. It helps us see where Columbus got the idea of sailing west to reach the Indies. It also helps us see why he ran into the islands of the Caribbean and why he thought he was close to China.
The route Columbus actually took
Do you ever go on trips with your family? How do the adults in your family find the places they want to visit? Do they write down directions? Do they use maps? Do they look for landmarks along the way? Do they have an electronic device that tells them where to turn?

Early European explorers didn’t have most of those things. Most sailors in those days stayed close to land and looked for familiar landmarks. However, this would not work for explorers. They could not look for familiar landmarks because they were sailing into unknown waters.

Early explorers did have some maps but they were not always accurate. So how did the explorers keep track of where they were?
Things we use today to find places we want to visit
They had several tools that they might have used. One of them was a **compass**. A **compass** is a very simple device. It is just a little magnet that sits on a pin so it can spin. The pointer on the magnet points north. Back then, nobody knew why. Now, we know it’s because Earth has a **magnetic field**, which is strongest at the poles. Magnets are attracted to the **magnetic field** of the North Pole.

Using a **compass**, a sailor could figure out which direction was north. Plus, if he knew which direction was north, he could figure out south, east, and west. That was a big help.
Explorers also used the stars to keep track of their position. Sailors in this day used two gadgets. One was called a quadrant. The other one was called an astrolabe. The details of how these gadgets work are complicated but the basic idea is not. The idea is that you can keep track of your position on Earth by keeping track of where certain stars appear to be in the night sky. If you can tell where the sun, the North Star and other key stars are, you should be able to figure out where you are on Earth.

An astrolabe
Others may have kept track of how far they had traveled using a **method** called **dead reckoning**.

Here’s how **dead reckoning** worked: a sailor had a piece of wood that was tied to a rope. The rope was knotted at regular intervals. There might be a knot every five feet. The sailor would toss the piece of wood overboard while the ship was sailing. When the wood hit the water, the sailor would turn over an **hourglass**.

The sailor or the captain of the ship would then **watch** to see how much rope was pulled out of the ship and into the sea. If the ship was going fast, it would quickly leave the piece of wood behind. It would pull many yards of rope out of the ship before the **hourglass** ran out. If the ship was going slower, it would not pull as much rope out. Then, the person would count how many knots of rope got pulled out of the ship before the **hourglass** emptied out. If you have ever heard of a ship’s speed referred to as knots, this is a **forerunner** of that measurement of speed.

**Dead reckoning** helped sailors **keep track** of how fast and how far they had traveled.
A ship’s captain could use **dead reckoning** to make an **estimate** of how fast the ship was moving. Then, he could **estimate** how far the ship would travel in an hour or a day. He could use a **compass** to know which way he was heading. He could put all this together to make an **estimate** of where he was.
The building on the right is a fort in St. Augustine, Florida, where the Spanish established a settlement in 1565. It is the oldest continuously occupied European settlement in the United States. You can visit there today and still see the old buildings standing.

This fort was built by the Spanish in the 1600s. It is called El Castillo de San Marcos. That is its Spanish name. Its English name is the Castle (or Fort) of Saint Mark.

El Castillo de San Marcos was not the first fort the Spanish built in St. Augustine. The Spanish built seven or eight forts before they built this one. But these earlier forts were made of wood and were not very strong. Some of them were destroyed in wars. Others were wrecked by hurricanes. In 1672, the Spanish decided to build a new fort. This time, they decided they would use stone to make it strong.
The inside of the fort is shaped like a square. On each corner, there is a **bastion** shaped like an arrow. A **bastion** is a raised gun platform. The **bastions** stick out from the fort. They let the Spanish fire out of the fort in just about any direction.
This is what a **bastion** looks like from the ground.

Imagine you are a soldier. Would you like to attack a **bastion** like this? How would you do it?

If you tried to get close, Spaniards on top of the **bastion** would open fire. They would shoot at you with guns and cannons.

If you got close enough to set up a ladder, the men in the fort would tip it over. They might drop hot oil on you. Ouch!

You could try to attack with cannons. But the walls of the fort are thick and strong. A few cannonballs would not harm them. But don’t forget, the Spanish had cannons of their own. They would fire back at you and you would not have thick stone walls to hide behind!
A bastion
Can you guess what the walls of El Castillo de San Marcos are made of? Believe it or not, they are made of seashells! The Spanish used a kind of rock called coquina. Coquina is a mixture of fossils and seashells.

Look at the stone on the right. It is coquina. Can you see the seashells? Those shells are the remains of tiny animals that lived in the sea long, long ago.

The Spanish found coquina along the Florida seashore. They used it to build the fort.

Coquina turned out to be a good stone for building forts. It is softer than other rocks. That means it does not crack or **shatter** when cannonballs hit it. A cannonball might make a dent in a coquina wall or it might be absorbed into the wall. But, in most cases, it would not crack the wall.
Coquina
The fort was surrounded by a moat. It is no longer filled with water. It is now a dry moat.

There was only one way into the fort. You had to enter a mini-fort that stood just in front of the main fort. This mini-fort was called the ravelin.

A bridge led from the ravelin across the moat and into the main fort. The last part of this bridge was a drawbridge. It could be lifted up to keep people from getting in.

It was not easy to open the drawbridge. It took five men fifteen minutes to open it.

In this image, you can see the bridge that leads into the fort. It is on the left.

El Castillo de San Marcos was a strong fortress. It was attacked many times but it was never captured.
The drawbridge leading from the ravelin to the main fort
Chapter 5  Hernando de Soto

On May 30, 1539, the veteran conquistador Hernando de Soto led a group of Spaniards ashore on the western coast of Florida. De Soto staked a flagpole into the sandy beach and claimed the land for the king of Spain.

De Soto’s landing in Florida and map of prior Florida exploration.
De Soto was not the first Spaniard to explore Florida. Juan Ponce de León had *explored* the area in 1513 and again in 1521, but he had failed to *establish* a permanent Spanish colony in Florida. Another Spaniard, Pánfilo de Narváez [pahn-fee-lo de nar-vay-uz], also tried to *conquer* Florida but did not succeed. Many of his men died during fighting with the natives; others died from dehydration, being lost at sea, or drowning when a hurricane hit and sank their boats. In the end, of the six hundred men who began the *voyage*, only four men managed to get back to Mexico to tell the tale.

Hernando de Soto knew about the *explorations* of Ponce de León and Narváez. He knew it would be dangerous to explore Florida, but he felt he could achieve more than the men who had *explored* before him. After all, de Soto had been in Peru with Francisco Pizarro, one of the most successful of all the *conquistadors*, when Pizarro captured and held for ransom the Inca Emperor, Atahualpa [ah-tah-wal-pa]. De Soto had helped collect the great ransom of silver and gold that made Pizarro very rich.

And de Soto, too, became a very wealthy man through his relationship with Pizarro. Hernando de Soto believed he could make even more money by *conquering* Florida and gathering up the gold that
was rumored to be there. De Soto invested much of his own money in his Florida expedition, and he prepared for it carefully. De Soto signed up lots of other experts, including soldiers, sailors, tailors, shoemakers, engineers, and priests. Most of the seven hundred men on his expedition were Spaniards, but there were a number of recruits from other countries in Europe. The expedition sailed from Spain in April of 1538. After a year in Cuba, de Soto and his men sailed to Florida, arriving at the end of May in 1539.
De Soto sent a scouting party inland and discovered an abandoned Indian village. Finding abandoned Indian villages was not unusual. By this time, many native people had learned that the arrival of Spaniards was usually not good news. Many chiefs decided that it would be best to avoid the Spanish so they abandoned their villages. Sometimes, they would return to the village after the Spanish moved away.

De Soto and his men established a base in the abandoned village and began to explore the surrounding land. They made a surprising discovery on their exploration when they found a Spaniard who had been
living among the natives and had learned a little of their language. His name was Juan Ortiz, and he had been a member of the disastrous Narváez expedition. Sometimes, Native Americans would adopt outsiders—including Europeans—into their tribes. The Spanish listened to his stories and decided to make Ortiz one of their translators.

De Soto left some men near the coast and took some other men to explore inland. He and his men made their way through swamps and forests. They found more

*De Soto and his men marching inland.*
deserted villages and helped themselves to whatever food and supplies were left behind. Some of the natives attacked the Spaniards as they marched. They would ambush, or attack, de Soto and his men in the swamps, and then run away. De Soto fought back viciously, hoping that if the natives heard how dangerous the Spaniards were, they would not attack.

By mid-September, de Soto and his men arrived at a village called Napituca [na-puh-tue-kah]. The local chief, Vitachuco [vee-ta-choo-ko], seemed friendly, but Juan Ortiz told de Soto that this friendliness might be an act. Ortiz had heard rumors that Vitachuco was plotting against de Soto.

De Soto decided to take no chances. He attacked the people of the village and took Vitachuco prisoner. Vitachuco wasn’t treated as poorly as other prisoners. He was allowed to keep some of his servants and often ate with de Soto. De Soto thought that if he kept the chief happy, Vitachuco and his people would cooperate with him. This plan seemed to be working, until one night Vitachuco and his people attacked. The Spaniards eventually won this battle and killed Vitachuco.
After that battle, the Spaniards went farther north into Florida. A native de Soto took as a prisoner told them of a city to the north in what is now South Carolina called Cofitachequi, [co-fit-a-chekwhee] where the chief was a woman who had lots of gold and pearls.

De Soto and his men went through what is now Georgia and into what is now north-central South Carolina. There they met la Señora de Cofitachequi, the Lady of Cofitachequi. At first, the Lady of Cofitachequi
was friendly, allowing them to stay in her village. She had very little gold, but she did have some pearls that she gave to the Spaniards as gifts. Later, however, de Soto arrested the Lady of Cofitachequi, held her hostage, and marched on.

No one is sure what happened to the Lady of Cofitachequi, but some historians say that she stayed with de Soto and his men for a while until she had a chance to escape through the woods. The Spaniards could not track her down because they were unfamiliar with the land. They never saw her again.

De Soto and his men went on a trek north and west through what is now Georgia and South Carolina, to the edge of the Blue Ridge Mountains. They passed through territory controlled by the Mississippians. Everywhere they went they looked for gold but had very little success. The de Soto expedition eventually reached the area now known as Alabama, where de Soto and his men fought one of their biggest battles. They killed more than two thousand Mississippians. Only twenty-two of de Soto’s men were killed, but about two hundred were injured, including de Soto himself. The Spanish also lost many of their horses. By November of 1540, the de Soto expedition had entered into Mississippian territory in northeastern Mississippi. They spent the winter in an
abandoned native village. Eventually, the Mississippian attacked, firing flaming arrows. The Spanish escaped only because their stampeding horses scared off the attacking natives.

With all of the constant marching and fighting, De Soto’s men grew very tired and were ready to go home. They didn’t believe that there much gold to be found in these parts of America. Some of them began to plan a mutiny against de Soto. De Soto, however, did not want to give up and go home empty handed. He pushed his men on. They marched and fought their way west.
In May of 1541, they reached the mighty Mississippi River. De Soto and his men constructed flatboats to carry the men and horses, and crossed the river at night to hide from the attacking natives.

After De Soto and his men crossed the Mississippi River, they explored what is now Arkansas. They met natives near what is now Camden, Arkansas, who lived in tipis and hunted buffalo. De Soto and his men spent the winter there.

De Soto crossing the Mississippi
By the spring of 1542, even de Soto was becoming **demoralized**. De Soto had found almost no gold. He had lost many of his men, and his horses could barely walk. His **translator**, Juan Ortiz, had died, and the other **translators** were having trouble understanding the local natives. All of these terrible events together became the “last straw.”

In May of 1542, de Soto came down with a bad fever. He spent his days in bed, but the fever got worse. He finally died on May 21, 1542. According to legend, de Soto’s men attached stones to his body and then sank it in the Mississippi River, so that the Native Americans would not find it and realize that De Soto had told them a lie about being immortal, or able to live forever.

The remaining men of the de Soto **expedition** made their way back to the Gulf of Mexico where they built seven boats. In July of 1543, they floated along the Gulf Coast, past Texas, and eventually made their way back to the Spanish **outposts** in Mexico. Throughout this difficult journey, the men on the de Soto **expedition** were the first known Europeans to explore the southeastern United States north and west of present day Florida.
De Soto burial in the Mississippi
Coronado Reports to the King

Francisco Vasquez de Coronado was a Spanish conquistador. He explored what is now the American Southwest in search of the Seven Cities of Cibola [SEE-boe-lə], which were said to have streets paved with gold. During the trip, Coronado wrote letters to the King of Spain. In his second letter, written in October of 1541, he described his march across the Great Plains to Quivira [Kee-VEE-rə], in modern-day Kansas. He told the king about the native people he and his men met. He also described the buffalo they saw, which he called “cows.” On the pages that follow is an edited version of Coronado’s letter.
Your Majesty,

After I sent my last letter, I met some native people from a distant land. They boasted of their land, which is called Quivira. They said the men there lived in large houses. They said their chiefs dined on dishes made of gold. I did not know whether to believe these reports. I made up my mind to go and see Quivira.

We set off last spring and reached the plains. These plains were vast—so vast that we could not see the end of them. They were flat and open with grasses that blow in the breeze. We traveled over them for more than 300 leagues. The plains were full of cows. There were too many of them to count. There was not a single day when we did not see some of them.
A buffalo, which Coronado called a “cow”
After 17 days, we met some native people. They are called Querechos [Ker-AE-koez]. They do not plant crops. They travel around with the cows. They eat the flesh of the cows they kill. They tan the skins of the cows and make clothes from them. They have little tents made of cowhide. They live in these tents while they travel around with the cows. They have dogs that carry their tents and poles from place to place.

We traveled 42 days more. At times, it was hard to find the way. On the plains, there are few landmarks. There are no hills. There are no stones, trees, or shrubs. All we could see was a sea of grass.

We lived on the flesh of the cows we killed. We went many days without water. Sometimes, what we drank was more mud than water. There are no trees on the plains except by the rivers. So, we could rarely find firewood.
Tents made of “cowhide”
After 77 days, we arrived in Quivira.

This was the place our guides had described. They had told us of stone houses that were many stories tall. But we found only little grass huts. There were only a few people in the place and they were as barbarous as the others we have met. They swore to obey Your Majesty and placed themselves under your royal lordship.

The natives gave me a piece of copper. I have sent this back to the viceroy of New Spain. I have not seen any other metal in these parts except this and some little copper bells.

We stayed in Quivira for 25 days. I searched the nearby lands to see if there is anything which could be of service to Your Majesty. Besides the land itself and people who live on it, I have not found or heard of anything. I am sure there is no gold here.
Copper
The land in Quivira is the best I have seen for producing crops. The soil is black. The land is well-watered by springs and rivers. I found some prunes like those in Spain. There are some nuts. There are also very good sweet grapes and mulberries.

I have treated the natives as well as was possible, as Your Majesty commanded. They have received no harm in any way from me or from those who went in my company.

This is my report. I have done all that I possibly could to serve Your Majesty. I remain Your Majesty’s humble servant and vassal,

Francisco Vasquez de Coronado
The plains with buffalo, called “cows” by Coronado
The expeditions of de Soto and Coronado showed that the age of the conquistadors was ending. Both men had hoped to find fabulous riches and outdo the achievements of Cortés and Pizarro. Both the expeditions of de Soto and Coronado ended unsuccessfully. Both found little gold. De Soto didn’t even make it home.
Coronado did, but he came home beaten down and demoralized because he lost the large investment he made in the expedition to find wealth. The Spaniards decided that there was no gold to be found in the parts of the North American mainland de Soto and Coronado had explored.

They began to focus their attention on the colonies they had already established farther south, in the Caribbean, Mexico, and South America. However, they did not forget about the rest of North America entirely. They established a few forts to protect their colonies and ships, and they sent some missionaries to convert the Native Americans to Christianity.

In the 1560s, the French had begun exploring the eastern coast of Florida. They set up a fort named Fort Caroline. Some men from the fort became pirates. They started attacking Spanish ships sailing in the Caribbean.

The Spanish decided to build their own fort along the coast of Florida to protect their ships and to keep the French from competing in that part of North America. They sent a man named Pedro Menéndez de Avilés [mehnen- dez day ah-vee-lace] to set up the fort. He arrived in August of 1565 and found a safe harbor where a river flowed into the Atlantic Ocean to build the fort and named it St. Augustine, after a Christian saint.
Soon after, the Spanish attacked and captured the French fort, Fort Caroline, and renamed it San Mateo.

St. Augustine, Florida, was established in 1565, twenty years before the English settlement on Roanoke Island and forty-two years before the settlement at Jamestown. There have been people living there ever since. In fact, St. Augustine is the oldest continuously inhabited European settlement in the continental United States.

The Spanish also sent missionaries who worked to convert the native people to Christianity. The missionaries set up communities called missions.
Pedro Menéndez, the first Spanish colonial governor of Florida, was an important influence in having missionaries brought to North America. Menéndez insisted that any ships coming from Spain must include a priest who could serve as a missionary. The Spanish set up a number of missions in the 1570s in Florida and on the islands off the coast of what is today the state of Georgia. Spanish missions were also established in Mexico, near the border of what we now know as the United States.

In the 1590s, the Spanish began establishing missions in what is known as the Southwest, including Spanish missionary
states we now call New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas. In the 1700s, the Spanish built many missions along the Pacific Coast of California. The Spanish did this not only to convert the natives to Christianity, but also to develop allies among the converted people in North America.

Many American cities in the Southwest began as missions named after Christian saints. Some examples include San Diego, San Francisco, San Jose, and Santa Barbara in California, and San Antonio in Texas. Every mission centered around a church. Missionaries would often live in one building, and the converted Native Americans would live within the mission in their own houses. Most missions also included farms and orchards.
Some natives were also taught crafts, such as carpentry, woodworking, weaving, soap-making, and candle-making. They also raised cattle, sheep and other animals. Most missions also had bakeries, craft shops, and storerooms for the crops grown on the farms and orchards.

In the missions, the native peoples attended a school where they received instruction from priests, who included religious teachings. They were taught about Christianity and the life, death, and resurrection of Jesus Christ. Adults and older siblings would also work in the mission’s farms or orchards, while young children were taught to read, write, and speak in Spanish—not their native language.

An old Spanish mission building
Some missionaries and conquistadors shared some similarities, but also had differences. Most missionaries were not trying to conquer people using force. Some were, however, trying to change the natives’ ways of life and promote Christianity and European ways of living. That meant some missionaries were trying to extinguish the natives’ traditional religion, culture, and language because they believed that it would be more helpful to them. Similar to conquistadors, some of the missionaries made enslaved the natives and forced them to work on the farms. Many local native populations also suffered the same fate as those who had first encountered Columbus: they became infected and died of diseases to which many of the Spanish had become immune.

Some Native Americans accepted Christianity and lived in the local missions. Many others did not like being forced to adopt the new European way of life and the Christian religion. They wanted to keep their language, their religion, and their traditional ways of life. Eventually, some native people rebelled against the missions in their areas.

In 1680, a Native American from the Tewa Pueblo tribe named Popé (Po-pay) successfully led a rebellion that evicted the Spanish from their pueblos. Once they regained control, the tribe restored their own religion,
culture, and traditions. It was only temporary, however, because about a decade after Popé’s death, the Spanish returned and reconquered the land.

When the United States expanded to the south and west, it took over Spanish territory in Florida and the Southwest. Most of the Spanish missions were abandoned when Spanish lands came under control of the government of the United States, but a few of them still operate today, and many can still be visited. If you live in the Southwest, or can travel there, you can visit a historic mission yourself.
Chapter 8

John Cabot

John Cabot (known as Giovanni Caboto [JEE-oe-VO-nee CA-bu-toe] in his native Italy) had the same dream as Columbus: to reach Asia by sailing west. However, unlike Columbus, Cabot thought the best chance of reaching Asia would be to sail around the northern part of Earth, where the distance around would be substantially shorter than the distance at the equator. Cabot, like other explorers, wanted to find the Northwest Passage, which was thought to be a shorter route west from Europe to Asia. Finding a shorter route to Asia meant finding a shorter route to spices.

Many details of Cabot’s life and voyages are unknown. He did not keep records during his voyages nor was much written about his life. However, it is known that he was Italian and had support from King Henry VII of England for his voyages. King Henry VII gave Cabot a charter to explore and claim land for England.
John Cabot
Cabot made his first attempt to find the Northwest Passage in 1496. This attempt was a failure. He had a disagreement with some members of his crew. There was also a shortage of food and he ran into bad weather. Cabot decided to turn back for England.

Cabot tried again in 1497, with a single ship and a crew of 18. This time, he reached land, which he thought was Asia. However, this land turned out to be the coast of North America. It is not known exactly where he first sighted land, though. It may have been the coast of Newfoundland. Cabot spent a short time exploring the coast and it is possible that he sailed as far south as the Chesapeake Bay. During this voyage, Cabot found a large area of shallow water that was abundant with fish. This area, known as the Grand Banks, is still one of the best fishing areas in the world today. At any rate, Cabot and his men became one of the first European expeditions to see the landmass now known as North America.
The circled area is the Grand Banks.
Cabot sailed back to England with his news. Certain that he had found a new, shorter route to Asia, Cabot gained support for another, much larger expedition. This expedition left England in 1498, but it never returned. Nobody knows for certain what happened to Cabot and his men. In time, it became clear that Cabot had not, in fact, located the Northwest Passage. However, England based its later claims to North American territory on Cabot’s explorations. When Cabot had first sighted land, he had gone ashore and claimed it for England. Cabot’s exploration began England’s desire to explore and create settlements in North America.

The route Cabot intended to take to find the Northwest Passage
Do you think you could be a sailor on Cabot’s ship? Here is a description of what it might be like to be a young sailor.

On a ship, young boys served as pages. On land, a page worked for a knight. At sea, he worked for a captain. Pages did all sorts of odd jobs. They carried messages, mopped the deck, helped pass out food, and cleaned up after meals.

Older boys might be asked to work the bilge pumps. Even the best ships sometimes sprang a leak. If a ship leaked too much, it might sink. To keep that from happening, sailors had to pump water out of the ship using a bilge pump. This was a terrible job. The bilge water was disgusting. It smelled bad and it made the sailors sick.

After pumping bilge water all day, it would have been great to sit down to a nice, warm meal. Unfortunately, sailors did not get many warm meals. For most meals, they got hardtack.

A bilge pump used in Cabot’s time
**Hardtack** was a kind of bread that was baked over and over. **Hardtack** was so hard, it was tough to eat. Sailors had to soak it in a drink to soften it up. The good thing about **hardtack**, though, was that it would not **spoil** on a long **voyage**. It was so hard, bugs had trouble getting into it—unless it got wet. Once it got wet, weevils and other bugs could and did get into it. But you could usually see them and brush them off with your fingers.

If a **voyage** was going well, sailors might get other kinds of food. They might get a little salted meat now and then. They might get some fish or a few beans. But if supplies were running low, they might get nothing but **hardtack**.

The diet on sailing ships was so bad that many sailors got sick. Lots of them got a disease called **scurvy**. Today, we know now that **scurvy** is caused by a lack of vitamin C, found in fresh fruits and vegetables. In the Age of **Exploration**, people did not know this. So many sailors died.
Hardtack
After a long day of work, sailors were ready to fall into bed and rest their aching bones. They were ready—but there were no beds for them to fall into. The captain had a bed to sleep in, but the sailors did not. They slept on the deck. As the ship rolled back and forth with the waves, the sailors rolled with it.

Most sailors had to stand watch for part of the night. When that was done, they could sleep for a few hours. In the morning, they would get up and do it all over again. A sailor’s day started bright and early.

So, what do you think? Does a sailor’s life sound good to you?
Sailors stood watch on the platform high up on the mast.
John Cabot was not the only person who wanted to find a Northwest Passage to the Indies. English explorer Henry Hudson had the same goal. Very little is known about Henry Hudson’s early life, but we do know he had an interest in exploring Arctic geography.

Hudson made his first attempt to find the Northwest Passage in 1607, more than a hundred years after Cabot made his voyages. Hudson’s idea about how he might
get to the Indies was similar to Cabot’s. Hudson’s idea was to sail north, right over the North Pole. He knew the polar region was cold and icy, but he also knew that the sun never set during the summer months. He thought the summer sun might melt a lot of the ice, making it possible to sail over the top of the earth and come out on the other side of the world in Asia.

In May of 1607, Hudson embarked from England with a single ship called the *Hopewell*. Six weeks later his men sighted the eastern coast of Greenland. Hudson sailed along the eastern coast of Greenland and then turned and sailed northeast because of there was so much ice. During their voyage, he and his men saw many unfamiliar creatures, including whales, seals, and walruses.
In mid-July they reached the Spitsbergen archipelago [ahr-kuh-pel-uh-goh] which is a chain of islands that has an arctic climate. When Hudson tried to navigate this region, it was surrounded by pack ice, or frozen seawater. On May 16, Hudson’s ship almost got stuck in the ice. For a while, it was “touch and go.” A few days later, Hudson decided he could not reach the North Pole because of all the ice. He turned around and sailed back to England.

In 1608, Hudson made a second attempt to reach the East Indies by sailing the Hopewell across the North Pole. He sailed north of Scandinavia and Russia. He sailed more than two thousand five hundred miles, making it to the islands off the coast of Russia known as Novaya Zemlya (“New Land”). But again, there was so much ice in the water that he had to turn back.

In 1609, Hudson made a third attempt to find the Northwest Passage. This time he sailed for the Dutch under the Dutch East India Company. The Dutch East India Company was a trading company that formed to protect their trade in the East Indies. The company hired Hudson and told him to follow a similar route he had attempted on his previous voyage, sailing north of Scandinavia and Russia. The hope was that he would be able to sail over the top of the earth and land in
Asia. Hudson left Amsterdam, the Netherlands, in April of 1609, onboard the Dutch ship, the *Half Moon*. As he made his way north, he saw more and more ice. Eventually, there was so much ice that Hudson decided to give up and turn around in mid-May.

Instead of sailing back to Amsterdam, as he had been told to do, Hudson decided to sail west. Hudson sailed across the Atlantic and sighted Newfoundland on July 12. He sailed along the coast of North America, *exploring* much of what is now the east coast of United States. He and his men sailed as far south as Virginia, where the Jamestown settlement had recently been *established*. Then they turned north.
On September 3, they came upon a large river that emptied into the Atlantic. Hudson and his men explored the river, sailing upstream. When Hudson saw the river widening out, he thought the river he was exploring might be the Northwest Passage that he and explorers before him had been seeking for years. Farther upstream, the river narrowed, and Hudson began to think maybe it would not lead him through the continent. Nevertheless, it was an interesting discovery. Hudson claimed the area for the Netherlands and the Dutch.
Hudson and his crew encountered many Native Americans of the Algonquian-speaking tribes on their trip up the river. Some Native Americans tried to attack them but others visited the ship to trade. The Indians offered furs to Hudson in trade, and this started the fur trade along the Hudson River. One group invited Hudson to dinner. Later, Hudson described what he had experienced in his journal:

“I sailed to the shore in one of their canoes, with an old man who was the chief of a tribe consisting of forty men and seventeen women. These I saw there, in a house well-constructed of oak bark, and circular in shape, so

Hudson eating with Native Americans
that it had the appearance of being built with an arched roof. It contained a great quantity of maize or Indian corn, and beans of the last year’s growth; and there lay near the house, for the purpose of drying, enough to load three ships, besides what was growing in the fields. On our coming into the house, two mats were spread out to sit upon, and some food was immediately served in well-made red wooden bowls.

Two men . . . brought in a pair of pigeons, which they had shot . . . They supposed that I would remain with them for the night; but I returned, after a short time, on board the ship. The land is the finest for cultivation that I ever in my life set foot upon, and it also abounds in trees of every description. These natives are a very good people; for when they saw that I would not remain, they supposed that I was afraid of their bows; and, taking their arrows, they broke them in pieces and threw them into the fire.”

In late September, Hudson decided to sail back to Europe. He himself wanted to stay in the “New World” for the winter, but his men were tired of exploring and were threatening to mutiny.

The river Hudson discovered on his third voyage was later named after him. Even today it is known as
the Hudson River. Other Dutchmen came to this part of the world after Hudson. They built a city at the mouth of the Hudson River, on an island the Indians called Mannahatta. The Dutch called this city New Amsterdam. Later its name was changed to New York. Today, Manhattan is the name of one of the parts of New York City and New York City is the most populous city in the United States.

In 1610, Hudson set off on a fourth voyage. This time he was sponsored by two English companies—the Virginia Company and the British East India Company. Similar to the Dutch East India Company, these companies were also trading companies. Hudson’s goal was the same: to find a Northwest Passage, a water route that would lead through the American continent and allow ships to sail to Asia.
Hudson sailed west, but he stayed far to the north. He reached Greenland in early June. A few weeks later he and his men found a large strait that led into the center of North America. Hudson hoped it might lead all the way through to Asia.

On August 2, Hudson sailed out of the strait and into a large bay. Today this bay is known as the Hudson Bay, and the strait is known as the Hudson Strait. Hudson spent the next few months exploring the coast of the bay.
In November, his ship got stuck in the ice. He and his crew had to go ashore for the winter. It was a difficult, freezing cold winter. The men were fighting with Hudson as well as with one another. Several of them fell ill with \textit{scurvy}, a disease that preys on people who have not been eating a healthy, balanced diet.

When spring came, Hudson wanted to \textit{explore} some more. Most of the men on the ship wanted to sail back to England. A big fight broke out.

In the end, the sailors \textit{mutinied}. They put Hudson, his son, and some others they did not like in a small, open boat and sailed away. Henry Hudson, the great \textit{explorer}, was never heard from again.

\textit{Hudson} \textit{abandoned} by his crew
The French explorer Samuel de Champlain made his first voyages to North America around the time Henry Hudson was trying to find the Northwest Passage. Champlain earned a reputation for being a talented navigator by leading
a two-year expedition to the West Indies and Central America. The son of a sea captain, he was not born into high social status in France, but his accomplishments as a navigator and talented mapmaker earned him an honorary title of “royal geographer” from King Henry IV in his court.

In 1603, Champlain was invited to sail in a French fur-trading expedition to an area known at the time as “New France” in present-day Canada. Decades before Champlain’s expeditions, in 1534, a French navigator and explorer, Jacques Cartier, claimed the shores of the St. Lawrence River, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the areas now known as Newfoundland and Nova Scotia in honor of France. Cartier’s attempt to colonize an area around present-day Quebec failed at that time, but these explorations were only the beginning of a fur-trading relationship between France and the natives in the area of “New France.”

The goal of Champlain’s 1603 expedition was to trade with the native people in the area of “New France” and return home with beaver pelts and other furs that could be sold in France. During this voyage, Champlain talked to fur traders and fishermen and met native people of the areas he visited. He made a map of the St. Lawrence River, a long river that flows away from the
Great Lakes and empties into the Atlantic Ocean. When he returned home to France, Champlain published a report on his expedition.

By 1604, Champlain took part in an attempt to start a French colony in “New France” with a small group of colonists. They suffered a difficult winter in their original settlement near the mouth of the St. Croix River, during which almost half of the colonists died. After Champlain and a few men scouted the surrounding area, the surviving colonists moved to the area presently known as Nova Scotia. This colonization
attempt was not a success, but Champlain took this
time to explore and map areas along the Atlantic coast,
eventually sailing as far south as Cape Cod.

After **exploring** several possible locations along the
northeastern Atlantic coast, Champlain decided that the
best place for a French colony was along the St. Lawrence
River. Champlain **envisioned** this colony becoming a
control center for the fur **trade**. This was a sign of an
important change in the way Europeans thought about
North America. John Cabot and Henry Hudson had
been trying to find a way to go around America, or a

*French colonists leaving the settlement in winter*
way to go through it. They were not especially interested in America and its resources. They were interested in goods from Asia and the East Indies, such as spices and silk. They thought of America as something that was blocking their way. With Champlain, there was a new way of thinking.

Champlain was still interested in finding a Northwest Passage. He went on several expeditions where that was an important goal. But he and many of the men who came after him began to think of North America not just as an obstacle on the path to more profitable places, but
as a place that was **profitable** in its own right—and a place that might be worth settling.

In 1608, Champlain received permission to lead an **expedition** of three ships and about thirty-two colonists from France. He sailed up the river and **established** a settlement, which was named Quebec City. Only nine of the original colonists, including Champlain, survived the first cold winter in Quebec City, but more settlers arrived the following June. At first, Quebec City was little more than a fort, but Champlain had a dream—he hoped that Quebec City would be the capital of a large

*Settling Quebec City*
and prosperous French colony. He spent the rest of his life working to make that dream a reality.

Champlain set up a fur-trading station in Quebec City. Native Americans could bring animal furs to the city, and French traders would buy the furs and ship them back to France.

To make sure that the settlers at Quebec City would not be attacked by the local native people, Champlain made an agreement with some of the tribes who lived along the St. Lawrence, including the Huron and the Algonquin people. He supported these tribes in a war.

*Champlain trading with native allies*
against the Iroquois, a large group of tribes who lived to the south in what is now New York State. Champlain led expeditions against the Iroquois and in 1609, he became the first European to visit the lake that is now named for him, Lake Champlain. In 1615, he became the first known European to arrive at the Great Lakes. There was more than just a military alliance between Champlain and the tribes, however; they learned things from each other as well. Even the name of the new city, Quebec, was borrowed from the Algonquian language spoken by many Native Americans throughout North America. The word Quebec comes from the Algonquian word “kebek” meaning “where the river narrows.”

Champlain made several trips to France to recruit new settlers and secure French government support of his colony. He eventually married and brought his new wife to settle with him in Quebec City. He also brought missionaries to “New France” to teach the native people about Christianity. The missionaries worked with the fur traders and the settlers to extend French settlements farther inland. In the end, Champlain was successful. The colony of Quebec did not just survive; it prospered. It became the first permanent French settlement on the continent of North America. The areas that made up “New France” remained part of the French empire for
more than a hundred years and in time became part of a larger country now known as Canada.

Over the last couple of weeks, you have learned about many European explorers and their expeditions. You have learned that they were all so intrigued by stories of wealth, spices, and gold that they decided to explore unfamiliar lands and seas. These explorers embarked on investigative travels to find answers to their questions.
Now it’s our turn to ask a question: Who was the first known European to “discover” America?

As you have heard, Christopher Columbus is the European often credited with “discovering” the Americas. While searching for a route to the East Indies, he accidentally bumped into islands in the Caribbean, now known as the West Indies.

However, Viking explorer Leif Eriksson, another European, had also traveled to the Americas. Eriksson landed in Vinland, which is in present day Canada and is now called Newfoundland.

Historians believe that the Vikings landed in North America about five hundred years before Christopher
Columbus and John Cabot. John Cabot landed in the same area as the Vikings. Though Newfoundland was not continuously inhabited, it had certainly been by the time Columbus landed in the Caribbean.

All of the European explorers we’ve learned about—Columbus, Ponce de León, de Soto, Coronado, Cabot, Hudson, and Champlain—landed in many different parts of the Americas, claiming their discoveries in honor of their countries. But it’s important to remember that when these explorers made landfall, they learned there were already people living in North America. Who were these people?

What do you remember about the Native Americans? These people had already been in the Americas for many, many years. Though archaeologists debate exactly when and how they arrived here, most agree that they came from Asia between fifteen thousand and fifty thousand years ago.

Strong evidence that suggests there were about twenty million native people in North America when European explorers first arrived. That means that for every one of Columbus’s men who scouted out North America, there were ten thousand Native Americans already living here!
The native peoples lived according to their own customs and cultures, planted corn and squash, and built great civilizations in the Americas. Europeans exploring and later settling in the Americas brought with them their own cultures and curiosity, as well as diseases. The Europeans brought great changes to the natives’ way of life.

Although we cannot know for sure who were the first people living in the Americas and when or how they arrived, what we can say for certain is that the history, culture, and legacy of both the Native Americans and the European explorers are still evident today.
Many of the Frenchmen who came to North America in the 1600s and 1700s were fur traders. These traders traded with the native people. They gave them European goods in exchange for animal skins and furs.

The traders collected many kinds of fur but they were most interested in beaver pelts. Beaver hats were popular in Europe. You could sell beaver hats in England, France, Germany, and Russia.

Why were beaver hats so popular? For one thing, beaver fur is thick. It is thick enough to keep your head warm in a cold Russian winter and it is waterproof. Rain runs off a beaver hat. Your head stays dry.

Some hat makers used the beaver fur as it was. They made soft, puffy hats. Others processed the beaver fur to make felt. The smooth, waterproof felt was
then formed into hats. Felt hats did not look like they were made of beaver fur. But, they were. In many parts of Europe, there were no beavers left. Hunters had killed too many of them. The beaver had almost gone extinct. Europeans could not get beaver pelts at home. So, they were willing to pay for beaver pelts imported from North America.

Samuel de Champlain and other Frenchmen took the lead in the fur trade. They set up trading posts in North America. There were trading posts along the Atlantic Coast. There were trading posts in Quebec and along the St. Lawrence River. There were even trading posts farther west, along the shores of the Great Lakes.

On the page that follows is an adaptation of Champlain’s journey down the River of the Iroquois to the lake that came to bear his name: Lake Champlain.
July, 1609

We continued on our journey until we came to an island. The island was about three leagues long and had the finest pine trees that I had ever seen. We went hunting here and captured some wild animals.

The next day, we started out again, floating down the river as far as the entrance to a large lake. There were many pretty islands there. They all contained many fine forests and lush meadows. There were too many birds to count. Also, we saw all kinds of wild animals such as deer with their young fawns, bears, and many animals that move from the mainland over to the islands and back again. We captured many of these animals as well. There were many rivers that emptied into the lake as well as dense forests of fine trees. I found chestnut trees on the border of the lake. I had never seen trees like this before. There were great numbers of fish in the lake.

I noticed that many of the mountains in the distance to the north had snow on top of them. I was told that the Iroquois lived there and that there were many beautiful valleys with fruit and grain there.
Lake Champlain in the fall
Many different native groups lived in these lands. The French made treaties with some of them, including the Algonquin [al-GON-kwin] people and the Huron [HYER-on] people. The French agreed to trade with these people and not fight with them.

The native people would bring beaver pelts to trade. In some cases, they would bring pelts they had gathered themselves. In other cases, they would bring pelts they had obtained by trading with other native people.

The French would barter with the native people. They would give the native people things they wanted in exchange for the beaver pelts.
A beaver has thick fur that was used to make hats.
Many of the things the native people wanted were made of metal. Most native people did not make their own metal products. They had to trade for these items. Many native people traded furs for knives and ax blades. Others traded for kettles and fish hooks. Still others traded for glass beads from Europe, which were highly desirable.

The French would gather up lots of beaver pelts. Then, they would ship the pelts back to France and sell them. They made a lot of money doing this, so they did it again and again.

As time went on, the French learned what the native people liked. They learned that many native people would trade beaver pelts for wool blankets. Some would trade for tobacco. Others would trade for guns and gunpowder.

Items like tobacco, kettles, and fish hooks were traded for pelts.
In 2011, the people of Canada put an image of a beaver on the back of their nickel. They did not put the beaver on their nickel because he is cute. They put the beaver there because the fur trade is an important part of the history of Canada. For two hundred years, the fur trade was a source of income for the French and the native people alike.
 Lots of people think that Columbus was the first to arrive in America. But that’s not right. There are at least two other groups of people who settled in North America and both of them got there many years before Christopher Columbus.
One group was the Vikings.

The Vikings lived in Northern Europe, in Scandinavia. They sailed around a lot, **raiding** and robbing as they went. The image above shows you some of the places they **explored** and some of the Vikings who were **explorers**.

In 982, some Vikings left Iceland and settled in Greenland, which is part of North America. They arrived there about 500 years before Columbus sailed. The Viking settlements on Greenland grew for a while. Archaeologists **estimate** there were probably 3,000 to 5,000 Viking settlers there at one point.
Eventually, however, the Vikings left. Viking settlements in Greenland seem to have been abandoned in the 1400s, not long before the voyage of Columbus.

The Vikings also explored lands west of Greenland. Around the year 1000, the famous Viking explorer Leif Eriksson visited a land he and other Vikings called Vinland. Most experts believe Vinland was somewhere along the coast of Newfoundland, in modern-day Canada. There is evidence that some Vikings settled in Newfoundland. In 1960, the ruins of a Viking village were found there. This village may have been part of Vinland.

The Vikings definitely got to America before Columbus. So maybe we should say the Vikings were the first Europeans to settle in North America. But before we decide, we need to look at another group that settled in North America.
A reconstructed Viking structure at L’Anse aux Meadows in Canada
Another group to settle in North America was the Native Americans.

Although we call these people “Native” Americans, they did not always live in the Americas. They came to America from Asia. When and how this happened are subjects of much debate.

Some historians think the first settlers made their way to North America a little more than 15,000 years ago. Others think the first people came to America many years earlier—perhaps even 40,000 years ago. Some experts think these people came by land, at a time when Alaska and Asia were connected by land. Others think they may have traveled along the coast in boats.
The map above shows how we think human beings spread around the earth. Experts think the first humans lived in Africa. About 100,000 years ago, some humans moved out of Africa and into the Middle East. About 70,000 years ago, a group of humans moved into southeast Asia. About 15,000 years ago—or possibly earlier—some of these people crossed from Asia to the Americas. It is believed that many people also came to North America by various ship routes.

New archeological discoveries continue to be made every day about early settlers in North America. These discoveries change our understanding of who lived in North America in the past.
Chapter 13 Caribbean Words

Did you know that some words we use every day come from the Caribbean, an area of islands between North and South America? These are words that were used by native people before Columbus and the conquistadors came. Later, they were picked up by Europeans who came to the New World, including English speakers.

For each of the following words, there are clues that will help you try to guess it.
The area inside the gray line on the map is part of the Caribbean.
Clues for Word #1

• This word describes a big storm.

• The winds in this storm swirl around in a big circle. This kind of storm is sort of like a tornado but it’s much bigger. However, unlike a tornado, this kind of storm usually travels over water. It gets weaker when it travels over land.

• People who live on the east coast of the U.S. have to worry about this kind of storm. The winds it brings can damage houses near the beach and can even knock houses to the ground.

• The name of this storm sort of rhymes with window pane.

What is the word? (Turn the page to see the answer.)
A tornado
Answer to last riddle: *hurricane*

The word, hurricane, comes from the Carib language. The people of the Caribbean know all about hurricanes because several of these big storms sweep through the Caribbean every year. Most of the storms occur in the summer and the fall.

**Clues for Word #2**

- This word is a kind of boat.
- This is a small boat that seats two or three people.
- The people in the boat face forward and use paddles to make it go. The person in front usually pulls straight back using a paddle. The person in back uses a paddle to steer.
- It’s best not to stand up in this kind of boat. If you do, it might tip over.
- This word sort of rhymes with bamboo.
The effects of a hurricane
Answer to last riddle: *canoe*

The people of the Caribbean used canoes to paddle from island to island. They cut down a tree. Using tools and fire, they dug out a canoe from the tree trunk. People in other places also used this kind of boat. But the word, canoe, comes from the Caribbean.

**Clues for Word #3**

- This word names a kind of food and also a kind of cooking.
- If your dad cooks outside over a smoky fire, he probably likes this kind of cooking.
- Some people like to cook pork this way. Other people like to cook beef or chicken.
- Another way to say this word is BBQ.
A dugout canoe
Answer to last riddle: *barbecue*

The people of the Caribbean cooked food over an open fire and called it barbricot. This is where the word, barbecue, sometimes spelled as barbeque, came from.

**Clues for Word #4**

- This is a vegetable that was unknown in Europe before the Spanish arrived in the New World, but then it quickly spread around the world.

- Some people like to eat this vegetable baked. They might put butter on top or maybe sour cream.

- Other people like to thinly slice this vegetable and cook it in hot oil. This makes chips that crunch in your mouth.

- Still other people like to cut this vegetable into long, skinny rectangles and fry it. If you’ve ever had french fries, you have tasted this vegetable.
Barbecue cooking on a grill
Answer to last riddle: *potato*

The potato is a New World crop. This root vegetable was grown in what is now Peru, in South America. It was also grown elsewhere in the Americas. The people of Peru called it the papa. The Caribbean people called it the batata. The Spanish called it the patata. We call it the potato.

The potato was eventually carried back to Europe. People discovered that it was *cheap* and grew well in many countries. By the late 1700s, lots of farmers in Europe were growing potatoes. The potato became an important crop.

French fries seem to have been invented a little later, probably in France. Thomas Jefferson mentioned fried potatoes around 1805, probably learning about them from a French cook.

Today, french fries are very *popular*. You can order them in tons of restaurants all around the world.
Potatoes and french fries
Glossary for
The Age of Exploration

A

abandon—to leave somewhere, never to return (abandoned)
abounds—occurs in great quantities
accurate—correct
achievements—special accomplishments that come from great effort or hard work
Algonquian—a member of the Native American people who lived in what is now Canada
archipelago—a chain of islands
ashore—on land
attempt—an act of trying

B

barbarous—wild, sometimes violent
barter—to trade by exchanging goods and services instead of paying or accepting money for them
bastion—a raised gun platform in a fort
bilge pump—a device used to remove water from the bottom part of a ship
boast—to brag (boasted)
charter—a formal document that gives rights to a person or group of people; kings often issued charters to explorers so explorers would search for land and treasure on behalf of the king

cheap—does not cost much

claim—to say something belongs to you (claims, claimed)

compass—a tool used for finding directions with a magnetic pointer that always points north

conquistador—a former warrior, usually from Spain, who took control of something by force (conquistadors)

continuously—without stopping

convert—to change from one form to another; to change from one religion to another (converted)

convince—to talk someone into something by giving good reasons (convinced)

copper—a reddish-brown mineral found in the earth

cultivation—the growing of crops; the caring for crops

dead reckoning—a way to measure speed when traveling through water by throwing a knotted rope with a piece of wood on the end overboard and observing how much of and how fast the rope is pulled into the water
demoralized—weakened in courage, confidence, or spirit

destroy—to completely ruin so that it no longer exists (destroyed)

disastrous—refers to something that causes great suffering or loss

device—a piece of equipment that does a specific job

distant—far away

embarked—left for a trip or journey

envisioned—imagined what something would look like or be like

equator—an imaginary line around the middle of the earth that is equally far from both the North Pole and South Pole

establish—to start something that is meant to last a long time (established)

estate—everything a person owns

estimate—to make a guess based on information you have; a guess made based on information you have

evidence—information that helps show if something is either true or not true

expanse—a large, open area

expect—to think something will probably happen (expected)

expedition—a long trip made for a specific purpose (expeditions)
expensive—costs a lot of money
explorer—a person who sets out to find new things
(exploration, explorations, explorers, explored, exploring)
extinguish—to cause the end of something; to put out a fire

F
felt—thick cloth made from wool, fur, or other fibers
fine—excellent (finest)
flavor—taste (flavors)
forerunner—something that came before
fort—a large building constructed to survive enemy attacks
fortress—a strong fort
fossil—a bone, shell, or other remains of a plant or animal from millions of years ago that has formed rock (fossils)
funding—money provided for a special purpose

G
gadget—a small tool (gadgets)
grind—to crush something into small pieces or powder (ground)
hardtack—hard bread that has been baked many times
honorary—relating to a position or title awarded to a person who is honored, or greatly respected, as a sign of achievement or rank
hourglass—a tool for measuring time; it is a glass container with an upper part and lower part connected in the middle by a narrow tube and sand falls from the upper part into the lower part in a fixed amount of time, usually an hour
hull—the outer covering of a seed or fruit
humble—respectful, not thinking you are better than others

iceberg—a large mass of ice floating in the ocean (icebergs)
import—to bring in from somewhere else (imported)
impressive—deserving attention or respect
in exchange—the act of giving something and receiving something of similar value in return
income—money earned, mostly from working
investment—money used to earn more money

keep track—to continue to be aware of (keeping track, kept track)
kernel—seed
landfall—the very first land a person sees or reaches after a flight or voyage by sea
landmark—an object on land that is easy to see and recognize (landmarks)
landmass—a large, continuous area of land, such as a continent
league—a distance between 2.4 and 4.6 miles
lordship—authority and power of a lord or high-ranking person
lush—covered with healthy, green plants

magnet—a piece of metal that attracts iron or steel and has a north and south pole; Earth is a magnet (magnets)
magnetic field—the area around each pole of a magnet that has the power to attract other metals
mainland—a large area of land, not including islands, that makes up the main part of a country or region
maize—corn
method—a way of doing things
missions—communities set up to convert groups of people from one religion to another
moat—a deep ditch, usually filled with water, dug around a fort or castle to prevent enemy attacks
mulberry—a dark purple berry (mulberries)
mutiny—a refusal by followers to obey the rules and orders of the person in charge; rebellion

narrowed—became narrower, or not as wide (narrow)
navigator—a person who decides which direction to go or which route to take, especially on a ship or airplane (navigate)
noble—a person from a family of high social rank, similar to patricians in ancient Rome (noble)

obtain—to get (obtain)
occupied—lived and worked in
outposts—military stations some distance away from the main base
overrun—to exist in large numbers
overwhelm—to take over completely

page—a boy servant (page)
party—a group of people brought together for a specific purpose; a specific person
pelt—an animal skin with fur still on it (pelt)
peppercorn—a dried berry from a plant that is used to make pepper (peppercorns)

plain—a large, flat area of land with no trees (plains)

popular—liked by many people

precious—very valuable

profitable—makes money

property—buildings, land, and livestock that someone owns

prune—a dried plum (prunes)

raider—to attack by surprise (raiding)

ravelin—a small building you must pass through first in order to enter a fort or castle

rebel—to fight against the person or people in charge (rebelled, rebellion)

reputation the public opinion by which someone or something is perceived

royal—relating to a king or queen

scarce—hard to find

scouting—exploring or searching for something (scouted)

scroll—a paper rolled up into a tube (scrolls)
scurvy—a disease caused by not eating enough fruits or vegetables with vitamin C, leading to spongy gums, loose teeth, skin spots, and sometimes death

shallow—not deep

shatter—to suddenly break into many small pieces

shortage—when there is not enough

slash—to make a path by cutting plants (slashed)

solid—firm and hard

spice—a substance from a plant that has a specific smell or taste and is used to add flavor to food (spices)

spoil—to become rotten and not able to be eaten

status—the position of someone compared to others in that group

steer—to control the direction of

strait—a narrow passage of water connecting two larger bodies of water

substantially—great in size, value, or importance

tan—to turn animal skin into leather using a specific process

territory—a large area of land with defined boundaries

throne—the power and authority of a king or queen

trade—to exchange something you have for something someone else has; the act of exchanging goods (traders, traded, trading)
trading company—a group formed and hired to explore, find resources, trade, buy, and sell goods for a profit

trading post—a place far away from towns where people buy, sell, and trade things (trading posts)

translator—a person who can communicate by changing the words of one language to another

treaty—a formal agreement between groups of people, often to stop fighting (treaties)

U

unfamiliar—not known, not experienced

V

vassal—a person who is loyal and serves a lord or king

vast—very great in size or amount

viceroy—a person sent by the king to rule a colony

voyage—a long journey, usually by water

W

watch—the time that someone is on duty to guard or protect something

weevil—a small beetle (weevils)

whiz—a person who is extremely skilled at something

wreck—to destroy, ruin (wrecked)
Acknowledgments

These materials are the result of the work, advice, and encouragement of numerous individuals over many years. Some of those singled out here already know the depth of our gratitude; others may be surprised to find themselves thanked publicly for help they gave quietly and generously for the sake of the enterprise alone. To helpers named and unnamed we are deeply grateful.

Contributors to Earlier Versions of These Materials


We would like to extend special recognition to Program Directors Matthew Davis and Souzanne Wright, who were instrumental in the early development of this program.

Schools

We are truly grateful to the teachers, students, and administrators of the following schools for their willingness to field-test these materials and for their invaluable advice: Capitol View Elementary, Challenge Foundation Academy (IN), Community Academy Public Charter School, Lake Lure Classical Academy, Lepanto Elementary School, New Holland Core Knowledge Academy, Paramount School of Excellence, Pioneer Challenge Foundation Academy, PS 26R (the Carteret School), PS 30X (Wilton School), PS 50X (Clara Barton School), PS 96Q, PS 102X (Joseph O. Loretan), PS 104Q (the Bays Water), PS 214K (Michael Friedsam), PS 223Q (Lyndon B. Johnson School), PS 308K (Clara Cardwell), PS 333Q (Goldie Maple Academy), Sequoyah Elementary School, South Shore Charter Public School, Spartanburg Charter School, Steed Elementary School, Thomas Jefferson Classical Academy, Three Oaks Elementary, West Manor Elementary.

And a special thanks to the CKLA Pilot Coordinators, Anita Henderson, Yasmin Lugo-Hernandez, and Susan Smith, whose suggestions and day-to-day support to teachers using these materials in their classrooms were critical.