

ECLECTIC READINGS

✕
EXPLORERS
AND FOUNDERS OF
AMERICA
✕



NEW YORK · CINCINNATI · CHICAGO
AMERICAN · BOOK · COMPANY

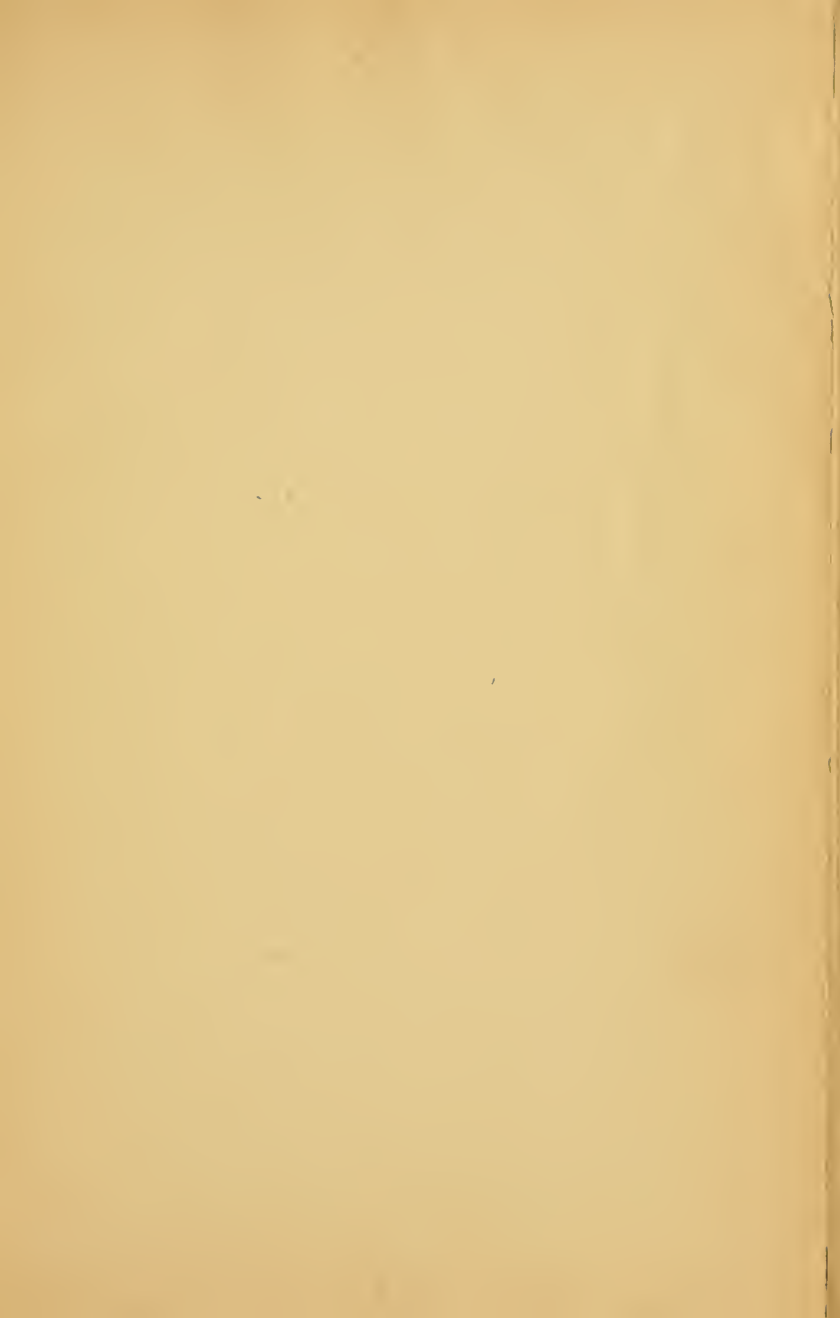


Class E 187

Book .F 68

Copyright N^o _____

COPYRIGHT DEPOSIT.





BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

EXPLORERS AND FOUNDERS OF AMERICA

BY

ANNA ELIZABETH FOOTE

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS,
JAMAICA, NEW YORK

AND

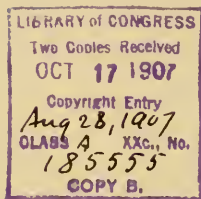
AVERY WARNER SKINNER

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ONEIDA, NEW YORK



NEW YORK ·· CINCINNATI ·· CHICAGO
AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

E187
5
.F68



COPYRIGHT, 1907, BY
ANNA ELIZABETH FOOTE AND AVERY W. SKINNER.

EXPLORERS AND FOUNDERS OF AMERICA.

W. P. 1

31

PREFACE

HISTORY is a record of human achievement. In the sense in which the term is commonly used, there can be no history where man has not labored. The story of a nation's progress is largely written in the lives of its great leaders. The processes of historic growth, the tracing of cause and effect, are abstract ideas which average children do not readily understand. If we are to create in boys and girls an interest in history and in historical reading, we must appeal to their love for life and action. It is, therefore, the easier way to teach history through biography. Fortunately, it is also the natural and the logical method with young children. Great leaders exemplify in themselves the ideals and purposes of the people whom they lead, and through a study of their lives young people may come to know something of the causes which make for national success or failure.

In the few centuries which measure the history of America, there are daring deeds of adventure to kindle the imagination; stories of devotion to principle and of heroic struggle to awaken sympathy and inspire patriotism. It is with the lives of the men who found and built America that this book has to deal. While the sketches are mainly biographical, the skillful teacher will be able to construct with her class a connected record of our country's progress. Around the lives of Columbus, of Magellan, of Drake, and of Hudson are grouped the daring voyages of discovery. In the stories of Cortez, of La Salle, and of many others, may be found all the material necessary for an adequate knowledge of the period of exploration. All the religious zeal, the self-denial, and the devotion to duty which characterized the era of colonization and settlement is told in the lives of the founders and early leaders of the colonies. It has been the purpose of the authors to draw a clear and interesting picture of the customs and manners of the

times so that, for example, the children might, after reading the lives of the Dutch Governors or the Puritan Fathers, have some knowledge of how the Dutch and the English lived in the early days of New Netherland and New England.

This book gives biographical sketches of the greatest personalities in the history of America, from the days of the earliest adventurers down to the Revolutionary War, and may be used advantageously in any of the grammar grades. It may be noted in passing that it contains all the biographical material required in the Syllabus of the New York State Education Department for the fifth grade, and also all the sketches required in the course of study for the 5 A and 5 B grades in the city of New York.

The material has been put in short sentences expressed in a conversational vocabulary. Each sketch is followed by suggestive topics for oral or written composition and for review, and a considerable amount of map work and outside reading is recommended.

It is to be hoped that the rich stores of information which the child has already gained from his geography will be constantly drawn upon and that the wealth of illustrative literary material now available will be used. Thus may be woven together history and geography, biography and romance, in such a way that each shall explain and illuminate the others. What does such association of related subjects mean for the child? Clearly, some appreciation of the causes which led to the industrial and social development of a great people, some quickening of the imagination, and some creation of a desire to imitate the examples of noble men and women, some admiration for courageous perseverance in the face of difficulties, and some respect for duty.

If we kindle these qualities of mind and heart, we shall make our children good citizens. Such fitting, such education, furnishes the well-informed mind, dignifies the cultured man or woman, builds a better and more permanent citizenship.

TO THE TEACHER

THE BIOGRAPHIES AND HOW TO USE THEM

EACH character presented in this book is a representative type of a period of activity or a phase of our country. These men are grouped chronologically, and, for the main part, by nationalities. The teacher should realize that many incidents and statements are included in each biography that are not vital to the child. Such material has been introduced to create the atmosphere of the times, and to make the characters more realistic and human. In no case should a child be required to memorize such material.

These thirty-four character sketches contain the material for a year's work in American history for grammar grades. They should not be crowded into twenty weeks, but should be allowed to follow one another through forty weeks. In the best history teaching for these grades, the first lesson period on each character is occupied by the teacher, who uses freely maps and blackboard sketches as she tells or reads aloud the story. The children should be permitted to ask to have explained points that are not clear. The following day the books should be placed in the hands of the children and the story read aloud by them. On the third day the information so acquired can be used as material for written reproduction or for a conversational exercise, oral reproduction, or simple recitation.

It is believed that no home work should be assigned at this stage of history teaching, but that every child should

have in his possession a book from which he can read the story of each historical personage whose life is to be studied. The teacher should always bear in mind that the great value of this work is to create a taste for history as preliminary to more serious work in higher grades.

The book contains a number of maps which should be used often, together with wall maps and the maps in the geography text-book; for historic incidents may be fixed most firmly in the child's mind through their association with the geographic knowledge already acquired. It is important, also, that the habit of localizing events through a process of map visualization be early established. The illustrations add much to the value of the book. The teacher should discuss them with the class, and will be able to supplement them with other illustrative material. This outside material, however, should be used wisely and with discretion.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
✓ LEIF THE LUCKY, SON OF ERIC	11
MARCO POLO	18
✓ COLUMBUS—THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA	24
✓ AMERIGO VESPUCCI—OUR COUNTRY'S NAME	38
✓ PONCE DE LEON—THE DISCOVERY OF FLORIDA	42
✓ FERDINAND DE SOTO—THE DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI	47
✓ BALBOA—DISCOVERY OF THE PACIFIC	57
✓ CORTÉZ—THE CONQUEST OF MEXICO	63
✓ PIZARRO AND THE CONQUEST OF PERU	72
MAGELLAN—CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF THE GLOBE	81
✓ JOHN AND SEBASTIAN CABOT	87
SIR FRANCIS DRAKE—ENGLAND'S GREAT ADMIRAL	91
SIR WALTER RALEIGH—ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION	103
CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH—JAMESTOWN	112
POCAHONTAS, THE POWHATAN'S DAUGHTER	126
MILES STANDISH AND THE PILGRIMS	136
JOHN WINTHROP AND THE PURITANS	150
ROGER WILLIAMS—THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND	160
HENRY HUDSON'S EXPLORATIONS	168
PETER MINUIT—A DUTCH COLONY IN THE NEW WORLD	175
PETER STUYVESANT, THE LAST OF THE DUTCH GOVERNORS	181
✓ JACQUES CARTIER—FRENCH EXPLORATION IN CANADA	187

	PAGE
CHAMPLAIN, THE FOUNDER OF NEW FRANCE	195
LA SALLE—FRENCH EXPLORATION OF THE MISSISSIPPI	208
THE CALVERTS AND MARYLAND—LORD BALTIMORE	219
WILLIAM PENN AND THE QUAKERS	225
OGLETHORPE AND THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA	235
KING PHILIP'S WAR	243
NATHANIEL BACON—THE GREAT REBELLION	253
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN—STATESMAN, SCIENTIST, WRITER	261
GENERAL BRADDOCK AND FORT DUQUESNE	274
MONTCALM, THE FRENCH GENERAL	281
GENERAL WOLFE, THE ENGLISH COMMANDER	287
SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON	296
INDEX	307

EXPLORERS AND FOUNDERS OF AMERICA

LEIF THE LUCKY, SON OF ERIC

IN the eighth and ninth centuries a bold and hardy race of seafaring men from the Scandinavian peninsula sailed up and down the North and Baltic seas and even as far south as the Bay of Biscay. These men not only captured English and French ships, but landed and destroyed much property near the coast. These Norse pirates were called "Vikings," a name derived from the word *viks*, meaning the narrow bays of Scandinavia which harbored the pirates' boats.

When Alfred was king of England, after years of war in defending his country against them, he made a treaty by which the northeast half of the kingdom was given to some of these invading Northmen. About the same time another band settled on the northern coast of France, and the French called them Normans and the district Normandy. Still others sailed westward and settled in Iceland. The people of Iceland to-day have books of legends called "sagas" that tell of the heroic deeds of early Northmen. One of their sagas tells of Eric the Red and his sons. Eric was a great Viking living in Iceland in the tenth century, who with a band of followers explored Greenland

and planted a colony there. Eric had three sons, Leif, Thorvald, and Thorstein, all of whom became famous seamen. In the saga we read the story that a ship carrying settlers from Iceland to Greenland was driven by a storm far out of its course, and that the sailors saw new and strange lands to the west. But they were so eager to reach Greenland that they turned about as soon as possible and made no effort to approach the new shore.

When the story was told on their arrival in Greenland, Leif, the son of Eric, determined to see whether there was a land farther to the west. As his father had explored Greenland, he also was ambitious to discover a new land.

In the year 1000 Leif with thirty-five men set sail. He is said to have been



Statue of Leif at Boston.

thirty years of age, "a large and powerful man and of a most imposing bearing, a man of sagacity and a very just man in all things." They took a southwesterly direction and before many days came in sight of a coast. "They sailed up to the land and cast anchor, launched a small boat and went ashore. As they saw no grass, but many flat stones, Leif called the country Helluland, or Country of Slates." This is supposed by many people

to-day to have been somewhere on the coast of Labrador. They then returned to their ships and followed the coast south until they came to a level, wooded land. The weather was fine and "there was dew on the grass; they touched the dew with their hands and putting their hands to their mouths, they never before tasted anything so sweet."



Landing of Northmen in America.

This country Leif named "Markland," or "Woodland," and it may have been the coast of Nova Scotia.

They again resumed their journey toward the south, until they probably reached Massachusetts or Rhode Island, where they landed and built booths and one large house. Here Leif decided to explore the country. He divided his company into groups. One half of the party, by turn,

remained at the house while the others explored the land. They were ordered not to go beyond a point from which they could return to the house the same evening, and not to separate from one another. On one of these exploring trips Leif's men found some luscious wild grapes, and later, discovering their abundance, Leif called the country Vineland. The next spring Leif returned home and on his way rescued fifteen men from a shipwreck, and was ever afterward called Leif the Lucky.

As his father Eric soon after died, Leif succeeded to the father's position of importance in the colony of Greenland. A year later Leif's brother Thorvald sailed away for the new land. He succeeded in landing where his brother had spent the winter, and found the booths and the house ready for use. When he landed, Thorvald is said to have remarked, "It is a fair region, and here I should like to make my home." Thorvald's band of men spent two winters here, collecting a cargo of timber to be taken back with them to Greenland.

The saga tells us that "one day they discovered on the sands three mounds. They went up to these and saw that they were three skin canoes with three men under each. They killed eight of the men, and one escaped. They went on over the headland and discovered certain hillocks which they concluded must be houses. They were then so overpowered with sleep that they could not keep awake; but they were startled from their slumber by a voice saying, 'Awake, Thorvald, thou and all thy company! If thou wouldst have thy life, board thy ship and sail away with all speed.' A countless number of skin canoes advanced toward them. Thorvald ordered the war boards

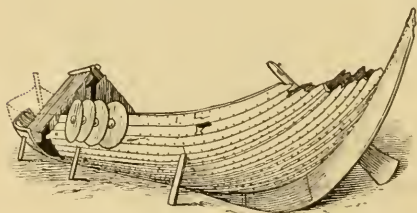
to be put up to protect the ships. After the Skrælings had shot at them for a time, they fled precipitately, each as best he could." Thorvald was wounded in the armpit and knowing that the injury was fatal, asked to be buried on the point of land that had first appeared so pleasing to him. A cross was placed both at the head and at the foot of his grave, and the men called the place Crossness. This is supposed to have been somewhere on Cape Cod.

Not long after Thorvald's men returned to Greenland a ship came there from Iceland. The skipper's name was Karlsefni. He spent the winter with Leif and heard the interesting facts about this new land to the west, and decided to take the trip. In the spring he sailed with one hundred and sixty men and several women. This expedition was fitted out with more elaborate supplies than any before, among them a drove of cattle. He landed where Leif had several years before built his booths. The Skrælings came in troops to see the strangers, but at first were frightened away by the bellowing of the cattle. One band of Skrælings in their fright stumbled into Karlsefni's booth. He caught sight of a bundle of furs that they had, and readily bought them with some milk, for which the natives had a great appetite. Later Karlsefni and his men exchanged strips of red flannel for mink, otter, and beaver pelts. After three years they returned home with a cargo of furs and lumber.

The word "Skræling" which so often appears in these accounts means a feeble or insignificant person. It is a term applied by the Northmen to any inferior people. They called Eskimos Skrælings, but we are not to assume that they found Eskimos in New England. The descrip-

tion of the Skrælings leaves us in no doubt about their being Indians. "They were swarthy in hue, ferocious in aspect, with ugly hair and broad cheeks. They were clad in skins, and their weapons were the bow and arrow and slings and stone hatchets."

Some years ago an old Viking ship was discovered, and Colonel Higginson has described it minutely. He says it was seventy-seven feet long and about seventeen feet wide. It had twenty ribs and would draw less than four feet of water. "She was clinker built; that is, had plates



Remains of a Viking ship.

slightly overlapped like shingles on the side of a house. The planks and the timbers of the frame were fastened together with withes made of roots, but the oaken boards of the side were united by iron rivets firmly clinched. The bow and the stern were similar in shape and must have risen high out of the water." There were sixteen oar holes on a side, and the oars were twenty feet long. This is supposed to have been an average Viking ship. Some, of course, were larger. There was no rudder, but on the right side was a long, wide oar called "steer-board," from which we get the word "starboard." Some hardy young Norwegians in 1893 crossed the Atlantic in a vessel built on a model of one of these Viking ships, to attend the Columbian Exposition at Chicago.

The most remarkable thing about these explorers was

their ability to direct their course without the aid of a compass. They depended solely on the sun and stars and ravens. Each ship that sailed carried a cage of ravens that served as pilots. When let loose, the ravens flew toward land, and the ship followed. Distance was estimated by a day's journey or half a day's journey. In this way Leif's brother and friends accurately followed his route and reached his stopping place.

Topical Outline. — Northmen in England, France, Iceland, and Greenland. Leif, son of Eric, finds a new land toward the west. Methods of seafaring. Who the Skrælings were. The sagas.

Map Work. — Locate on a map or a globe settlements made by the Northmen (map, p. 37).

Memory Selection. — Longfellow's "Skeleton in Armor."



Viking ship.

MARCO POLO

IN the thirteenth century Genoa and Venice, two cities on the Mediterranean Sea, were the homes of great merchants who owned many ships for carrying on trade be-



The known world in 1490.

tween the countries of Europe and Arabia, Persia, and India. In 1260 two merchants from Venice, by the name of Polo, made a longer journey than usual and at last

reached the ancient city of Cambulac, now Peking, China. Here they visited the ruler of the country, whose name was Kublai Khan. He was a most powerful prince, having conquered all the countries round about until he ruled over the greater part of Asia.

Kublai Khan had never before seen Europeans, and he received these merchants cordially. They were surprised to see so many beautiful things so far from the part of the world they considered civilized. Kublai Khan soon learned from his guests that although his people lived in great splendor, they were really very ignorant. The Polos told him much about the countries of France, Italy, and England; and when, after a few years, they were ready to return to Venice, Kublai made them promise not only to return to his court, but to bring one hundred teachers for his people. They did not, however, succeed in finding teachers who were willing to go so far from home.

The early story of Venice, the home city of these merchants, is very interesting. The city is built on a group of islands off the coast of Italy, and is supposed to have been founded by people who fled from the mainland when Attila the Hun and his army swept through northern Italy. These islands are connected by bridges, and the main streets are like canals, through which people go from place to place in boats called gondolas. Even back in the thirteenth century Venice was a beautiful city, having many fine churches and palaces.

On reaching Venice, Nicolo Polo found his son Marco, who was only six when he left home, a fine lad of fifteen. Marco was very glad to go with his father on the next journey to the court of Kublai Khan. Traveling in those

days was very difficult. All ships were propelled by oars or by sails, and oftentimes the merchant ships were attacked by the pirates that lay watching along the line of travel. Traveling by land was even more slow and difficult, for there were no railroads, few good roads, and fewer bridges over the rivers and streams. There were mountains with snowy tops to be crossed, and deserts of long stretches of sand, where the heat was intense and there was no water for man or beast. The peoples of Asia spoke strange languages, and some of them were savages. All of these difficulties were in the way of the Polos as they left their ships on the eastern shore of the Black Sea and started overland for Cathay, as China was called. On this return trip they passed through new sections of Asia and met many unfriendly people and robbers. We are told that they were more than three years in going from Venice to Peking.

Kublai Khan was delighted to see his friends return, and was particularly pleased with young Marco Polo. Marco was a bright boy and won friends quickly, for he learned the language of the people and adopted their kind of dress. Although the son of a rich man, Marco had known little of the splendid life of a king's family, and probably no king in Europe lived in such grand style as did Kublai Khan.

Marco learned the language and government so readily that he was soon employed as Kublai Khan's private secretary; then he was sent on important business, sometimes to remote parts of the empire. On these trips Marco had a large company of servants, and traveling was made much easier for him than for an ordinary



Polo traveling in China.

person. It gave Marco a fine opportunity to visit western China, Tibet, Indo-China, and some of the islands off the eastern coast of China.

This life continued for seventeen years. Marco's father and uncle were growing old and wished to return to Venice. Kublai was sorry to have them go, but he gave them valuable presents, and fitted them out with a fleet of fourteen vessels, and they returned by way of the Yellow Sea, Indian Ocean, and Red Sea.

Marco was about forty years old when he returned to Venice. The Polos were at first regarded with suspicion, for they looked shabby in their traveling clothes. Some days after their arrival they invited the Venetian nobles to

a feast at their palace. The guests were received by the three travelers dressed in rich Oriental robes of brilliant satin. During the feast these robes were several times changed, some being of damask, others of velvet, all richly embroidered and trimmed in a way very unfamiliar to the Venetians. The tables were set with curiously shaped dishes of gold and silver, and some of the food was strange, for the Polos had brought back with them some of the delicacies that they had learned to like at the table of Kublai Khan. Marco entertained them at that time, and often afterward, with interesting stories of his travels and experiences.

A short time after the Polos returned home, Venice had war with Genoa, and Marco Polo was one of the prisoners captured by the enemy. It was hard for a man who had traveled and led so active a life to be shut up in prison. So he spent the time there in composing an account of his travels and adventures. It is said that his keepers became so interested in his stories that they released him sooner than the other prisoners.

This book composed by Marco Polo can be found in many libraries to-day. It contains descriptions of the countries of Asia visited by him and his father, with descriptions of the court of Kublai Khan, and an account of Marco's thrilling experiences when on the secret missions of the Khan. It also gives an account of the resources of the countries in which he traveled, such as the diamonds of India and the rubies of Seilan (Ceylon). In time, the trade between these Eastern countries and Europe grew very large. The merchants and traders of Genoa and Venice were especially active in exchanging the products

of Europe (copper, iron, and wool) for the silk and cotton goods of China and India and the spices and precious stones of the East.

Marco Polo has been considered the prince of travelers of that time, for he not only visited more countries than other Europeans, but he told the story of his travels and adventures in a most interesting way. He was the first person to describe a trip across Asia from the Mediterranean to the Yellow Sea. He was the first to tell the world of the great wealth and vast area of China. He was the first European to describe the countries and people of Japan, Burma, and Tibet. He either entered Siberia or met people who had been there, for he very accurately describes the use of sledge dogs and of reindeer, which were unknown in the southland. These stories, when read by the Venetians and other Europeans, stirred many young men to follow his example of exploration and travel, and two centuries later we find Columbus starting out to find a shorter route to the wonderful lands of Cathay and India.

Topical Outline. — Travel in the thirteenth century. Marco Polo's home city, Venice. The boy goes on a journey with his father and uncle. Kublai Khan and his kingdom. Service of Polo to the Khan. His return to Venice after many years. War with Genoa, Polo taken prisoner. Polo's book influenced other men to travel.

Map Work. — Point out on a map (p. 18) or globe: (A) the countries described by Marco Polo; (B) the trade routes from Italy to the East.

COLUMBUS—THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

GENOA is a city at the northwest corner of the Italian peninsula, where the coast bends to the west near the border of France. The situation is picturesque, and affords the only harbor for miles in either direction. The range of mountains bending around but a few miles north of the city afforded protection in the early days. It is natural that such a city should be the home of sailors. From the earliest days men of Genoa owned ships and carried on trade.

The richest and most important trade was with Persia, China, India, and the islands of the Eastern seas. Here the Genoese merchants exchanged wool and metal goods for the silk, spices, rubies, and pearls of the East. These goods were brought by caravans overland from the East to Constantinople, and from there in ships through the Mediterranean Sea to Genoa.

In 1453 the Turks, who were unfriendly to the people of Europe, captured Constantinople. This made it unsafe for the people of Genoa any longer to go to India that way. The trade was too profitable to be given up, so men wanted to find a new route. At this time the young boys playing around the wharves of Genoa must have heard talk about these difficulties. Undoubtedly among the boys listening to the sailors' stories and watching the ships come and go, was one in whom every American child has an interest.

Christopher Columbus was born probably in 1446. He was the oldest son of a wool comber, or man who prepared wool for the spinners,—work now done by machinery. Although it was customary for boys to learn their father's trade, Christopher never seemed to like the business. The family was poor, but the boys were allowed to go to school, and we feel sure that Christopher did good work in language, in geography, and in map drawing. We know this because his letters, which we can read to-day, are well expressed, and copies of maps made by him are among the best of the time. It is likely, however, that his school days were few, and that he picked up much of his knowledge by observation, by reading, and by listening to the conversation of travelers. That is something that any boy or girl can do.

We are not surprised to learn that at fourteen the boy had decided to be a sailor. In those days the seas swarmed with pirates, and the crews of every ship had to stand ready to fight their way. It was a hard life, but it may have done much toward making Columbus a brave and determined captain and explorer. We are told that Columbus was in one of these sea fights when both of the ships took fire, and he with two or three others swam six miles to the shore.

About 1473 Columbus went to live in Lisbon, Portugal,



The boy Columbus talks with sailors.

probably because it was a flourishing seaport. Here he married the daughter of a sea captain. For several years Columbus earned his living by making maps and charts and by voyages to European ports. The Portuguese were very active seafaring people. About the time Columbus went there to live, sea captains were coasting along Africa to find a water route to India.

Although it had been twenty years since the Turks had taken Constantinople, no new route had been found to India, and trade had almost stopped. The Portuguese explorers went farther and farther down the coast of Africa; but it seemed that the distance around the Cape of Good Hope would be too long even if India could be reached that way.

Most people at that time believed the earth to be flat. A few scholars for hundreds of years had claimed that it is round, but this could not be proved. It seemed just as strange to those people then as it does to the boys and girls to-day when they are first told that they live on a round ball. An astronomer and geographer by the name of Toscanelli, who lived in Florence, Italy, had made a map showing the spherical shape of the earth and locating on it places visited by Marco Polo and places well known by Europeans.

Toscanelli wrote to the king of Portugal as early as 1474, and told him that China and Japan could be reached by sailing west, but the king did not believe it. Some of the letters and Toscanelli's maps fell into the hands of Columbus. Possibly that was the way the idea first came to him—we do not know. Both of the men supposed that the earth was somewhat smaller than it really is, and

neither of them dreamed of any land intervening between Europe and eastern Asia. Columbus had once made a trip to Iceland, but by that time the voyages of Leif and Karlsefni had long been forgotten. He had also read Marco Polo's book and had gained from it some knowledge of the countries of Asia.

Columbus was fearless, and he fully realized the importance of finding a shorter water route to India. He firmly believed that he could reach India by sailing west, but he had not enough money to fit out such an expedition.

First, it is said, he sought aid from his native city, Genoa, and failing there he went to Venice; but in both places he was regarded as an idle dreamer and received no encouragement. He next laid his plans before the king of Portugal, but the king would give no assistance. Columbus then went to Spain and



Columbus.

explained to a council of learned men what he believed could be done. Some of them said, "You cannot prove that the earth is round." Others said that the Sea of Darkness, as the Atlantic Ocean was then called, was filled with hideous monsters and no one ever returned who went out far from land. The greatest objection was

that success was too uncertain and the expense too great.

Columbus was stared at on the street and laughed at by old and young as either foolish or crazy. He did not give up, and for seven years he sacrificed everything for this one object. He asked assistance from King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, but they did not consent to help him.



The departure of Columbus.

His brother went to the king of England without success. Finally, Columbus started to lay his plan before the king of France. Then a priest, a distinguished captain, and one of the queen's officials convinced Isabella that Columbus's plan was a good one, and that Spain would gain great riches if a water route to India should be found.

Isabella recalled Columbus and fitted up at her own expense a fleet of three sailing vessels, called caravels, the *Santa Maria*, *Pinta*, and *Niña*. These ships were much smaller and lighter than the ships crossing the Atlantic

to-day, and all together there were only ninety sailors in the fleet. Even this small number of seamen were obtained with great difficulty. Criminals were pardoned and debts forgiven on condition that the men sail with Columbus. Others were forcibly enrolled for the voyage by order of the king. With such crews—of ignorant and unwilling men—Columbus had to deal, and the fact that he held them in check throughout this voyage upon what they called the Sea of Darkness shows something of his power as a leader of men. The compass, an instrument used to show direction, had been perfected but a few years before this, and Columbus had one. On August 3, 1492, they sailed away from Palos. They went first to the Canary Islands, where they had to stop to repair the rudder of the *Pinta*. They resumed their journey September 6, sailing due west.

Many sailors cried like children when these islands disappeared and nothing but the trackless ocean and blue sky could be seen. All went well for a week or two, when one day it was noticed that the needle of the compass no longer pointed in the usual direction, but varied a little toward the northwest. This alarmed even Columbus. But he had to conceal his fears, for the mutinous sailors wanted to turn back because they believed it would be sure destruction to go on. The sailors feared, also, that the winds which blew westward so steadily would prevent their ever returning. Columbus, however, succeeded in restoring order.

In a few days one of the crew saw a tropical bird which it was believed never goes farther than a hundred miles from land. Three days later, September 16, large patches

of seaweed floated near their ships. This was, at first, another source of alarm for the ignorant sailors; but the ships soon passed safely through these floating meadows of seaweed and grasses. Day after day some new sign of approach to land was seen, and the sailors took courage and worked with a will. Officers and men looked eagerly for land every day and were daily disappointed. Birds were seen flying in a southwesterly direction, so Pinzon, who commanded the *Pinta*, urged Columbus to change his course. Columbus set the rudders for a southwesterly course. If instead he had continued to sail due west, he

would have reached the coast of the North American mainland, which he really never saw.

On the night of October 11, almost five weeks after they sailed away from the Canary Islands, Columbus thought he saw a small moving light not far away. We can imagine the eagerness



First sight of land.
(Medal)

felt by all on board for morning to come. About daybreak on October 12, a sailor on the *Pinta* was sure he saw a strip of land. It was ten weeks since they had left Spain, and many of the men feared they would never again see land of any description. When the shout of "Land!"

was heard, some of the men fell to their knees and thanked God ; others wept for joy. They made ready at once to go on shore.

Columbus was dressed in a rich robe of scarlet, and carried the gorgeous red and gold flag of Spain. Other officers bore green banners on which the names of the king and queen of Spain were written. Still others clad in bright suits of armor carried crosses and other emblems. Spanish national music was played as they approached the island in the small boats. As they landed, all knelt and kissed the ground. Then Columbus arose, and striking the ground with his sword, took possession in the name of Spain and called it San Salvador (Holy Savior).

As Columbus supposed the land was in the Indies, he called the natives Indians. At first these Indians fled in fear, but soon crept back and began to worship Columbus and his men as superior beings from the sky. In his journal Columbus says : " As I saw that they were friendly to us, and perceived that they could be much more easily converted to our holy faith by gentle means than by force, I presented them with some red caps, and strings of beads to wear upon the neck, and many other trifles of small value, wherewith they were much delighted, and became wonderfully attached to us. Afterwards they came swimming to the boats, bringing parrots and other things which they exchanged for articles we gave them, such as glass beads. But they seemed on the whole to be very poor people. They all go completely naked. All whom I saw were young, not above thirty years of age, well made, with fine shapes and faces ; their hair short and coarse like that of a horse's tail, combed toward the fore-

head, except a small portion which they suffered to hang down behind."

Columbus later tells us that these natives painted the body with various bright colors, and made their javelins with sticks pointed with fish bones, as they had no iron.



Santa Maria.

He also gives a good account of his visit to the home of the king of the island, who was very friendly, and ordered several houses to be made ready at once for the visitors. Columbus was delighted with the hospitality shown him and with the singing birds and the fine fruit that grew on the island. The explorers visited Cuba and several of the neighboring islands, everywhere looking for those cities of wealth described by Marco Polo. Columbus really

believed he was among the islands off the coast of China, and that by sailing a few days farther he could reach that coast and deliver to the Khan a letter given him by the king and queen of Spain.

One morning while coasting along Haiti, or Hispaniola (Little Spain), as he called it, the largest ship, the *Santa Maria*, went aground on a sand bar. Soon the waves

had beaten her to pieces. As the *Pinta* had gone off on an independent expedition, there was but one ship, the *Niña*, left. This was too small to carry all the men back to Spain, so it was decided to take the timbers from the *Santa Maria* and build a fort in Haiti. Forty of the sailors with provisions for a year were left there. This was the first colony in the New World. Columbus also left seed and implements for planting grain and vegetables in the spring.

On January 4, 1493, the *Niña* sailed for Spain, and on the return voyage touched at



Lands found by Columbus in four voyages.

the Azores, where the explorers were treated with scant courtesy by the Portuguese governor of the islands. After delaying here some days they again set sail and on March 15 entered the port of Palos. On the same day the *Pinta*, commanded by Pinzon, also arrived. The town was wild with excitement when the news spread that Columbus had returned from a voyage to the Indies.

At Barcelona there was a great procession in his honor. Six Indians smeared with paint and decked with feathers led, followed by the sailors with strange plants and strange birds, both live and stuffed, that they had brought back with them. Columbus rode on horseback attended by some of Spain's greatest men. This procession ended at the residence of the king and queen, who were waiting in the throne room to receive Columbus. They showed him great honor



Return of

by rising as he entered, and after he had knelt and kissed their hands, they bade him sit like an equal in their presence. Columbus then gave an account of his voyage. He believed that he had visited the islands just off the coast of India and China, and that the great wealth of these countries was easily within reach of Spain. Ferdinand and Isabella were so pleased that they said Columbus should go on another voyage soon.

In September, 1493, Columbus sailed, this time with a fleet of seventeen vessels and fifteen hundred men, many of whom were young men of noble birth, all believing that they were going to the land of jewels, spices, and precious metals. Columbus on this voyage took with him horses and cattle, besides many vines and seeds. When they reached Haiti, where he had left the forty men, he found that



Columbus.

the fort had been destroyed and the only traces of the men were eleven graves. What became of the others was never known. At another place in Haiti he built a town which he named Isabella, and for three years he explored the surrounding country, visiting many small islands, besides Cuba and Jamaica, in which settlements were made. His disappointment was very great, for with all this time and effort he had failed to find the famous cities of India or Cathay or Cipango (Japan). He returned to Spain, and the king and queen were so well pleased with his reports that in May, 1498, he sailed for the third time, with six vessels. This time, directing his course farther south, he discovered more islands, and saw part of the northern coast of South America.

His health became poor, so he returned to Haiti, where he found the colony in trouble with the Indians. For two years he tried to settle the difficulties, but failed.

Some of the men sent a report to Spain complaining of Columbus. Officers were sent to investigate. His enemies caused his arrest, and he was carried back to Spain in chains. But the people regarded him as a hero, and Queen Isabella was sorry for the old man, so she pardoned any offense he might have committed and set him free.

In 1502, for a fourth time, he started out to explore further the coast of America, but he was shipwrecked off the island of Jamaica. He spent an unhappy year there and then returned to Spain. Queen Isabella soon died, and Columbus found he was without a friend, for the king and government officials and business men did not like it because Columbus had found neither the rich cities of India, nor large quantities of gold and precious stones. So the last days were very sad ones for the disappointed and friendless old man. He died May 20, 1506, not knowing that he had really discovered a new world.

Topical Outline. — Genoa, the birthplace of Columbus. Rich trade with India. Turks capture Constantinople (1453). Genoa needs new route to India. Columbus believes the earth to be round, and that India could be reached by sailing west. Ferdinand and Isabella fit out ships for him. The great voyage and discovery of a new land. Succeeding voyages. Columbus's services.

For Written Work. — I. Imagine you were a sailor on the *Santa Maria*, and tell how you felt when the Canary Islands disappeared from view. II Write a paragraph telling whether this work of Columbus was as great as if he had found the route to India. III. Describe the days of Columbus's old age.

Map Work. — Locate on a map or globe Genoa, Venice, Portugal, Spain, Palos, the Canaries, San Salvador, Cuba, Haiti, the Azores (pp. 18, 33, 37).

Memory Selection. — Joaquin Miller's "Columbus."



AMERIGO VESPUCCI — OUR COUNTRY'S NAME

SOME people have claimed that our country should have been called Columbia, in honor of the man who discovered it. That it was not is due largely to the fact that he and others of his time supposed that he had reached the islands east of India, or the East Indies. No one realized that these islands were a part of a new world. The name America is derived from Amerigo, the given or Christian name of the man who first explored the mainland of South America and recognized it as a continent hitherto unknown to Europeans.

Amerigo Vespucci (Latin form Americus Vesputius) was born in Florence, Italy, in 1452, of a well-to-do family. We know little of his boyhood save the fact that he received a good education, including superior training in map drawing and astronomy. He was genial by nature, or, as we say, he was good company, and had many friends. He became a merchant, but while still a young man he moved to Spain.

In Spain, Amerigo became associated with a man who furnished caravels for foreign exploration. Such business brought Amerigo much in company with navigators. The result was that in 1499 he sailed to the New World as pilot and scientific man with Ojeda. There are stories to the effect that he went on an expedition a year or so before this, but scholars can find no proof of such a trip. It

is certain that he was with Ojeda and visited the coast of South America from the mouth of the Amazon north past a country which they named Venezuela (Little Venice).



Amerigo Vespucci explores the coast.

They found valuable pearl fisheries and had many interesting adventures with the natives, which Amerigo describes very clearly.

After returning to Spain, he was appointed Pilot Major, that is, an officer whose duty it was to have supervision of all maps and charts and to examine all pilots in the use of nautical instruments before they were allowed to sail. Amerigo was well acquainted with Columbus and knew all about Columbus's work.

Amerigo claimed to have made, in all, four voyages to the New World — the same as did Columbus. The famous one was made in the service of Portugal. It was begun in May, 1501, when he crossed the Atlantic in a

southwesterly direction and reached the coast of Brazil. He followed this coast south, noting, as he went along, the manners of the natives, as well as the vegetation. He tells us that the climate and the country were so delightful that he thought the earthly paradise could not be far away. He described a bay which is supposed to be the mouth of the Plata River. This shows that he coasted a long way south. He then struck out into the Atlantic. He tells us that he met fearful storms, cold winds and hot in turn, and after many, many weary days he reached Lisbon in September, 1502.

Now Amerigo was a great talker, and people listened intently to his thrilling stories. Their interest may have led him to boast of the things he had done. Certain it is that he talked and wrote letters about his travels, while Columbus just reported to the king and queen and to the business men who fitted out his vessels. In one of Amerigo's letters he says: "I have found a continent more thickly inhabited by people and animals than is Europe, Asia, or Africa. It might properly be called a *new world*." We must remember that Amerigo and even Columbus at this time supposed that the parts visited by Columbus belonged to Asia and were in no way connected with this vast land visited by Amerigo. Maps were made according to this belief.

In time these letters of Amerigo were printed in Latin, French, and German and were widely read. Among the readers was a German college professor who was about to publish a geography. He was greatly pleased with Amerigo's intelligent account of his travels. In his new book this professor suggested that, as Amerigo had found the

fourth part of the globe (Europe, Asia, and Africa being the other three), the new continent should be called after him — America. Maps were made, and this land was named Amerigo's Land.

As time went on others visited the western hemisphere, and it was learned that a great continent lay to the north, connected with this southern continent by an isthmus. Then Mercator published a famous map showing the two continents and calling each America. In time they were distinguished as North and South America. To-day we wish our country to have no other name and believe it was a suitable reward to Amerigo for writing so well about his travels.

Topical Outline. — Amerigo Vespucci met many sailors and knew Columbus. His voyages to the New World. His exploration of South America. His letters about his voyages. New World called America from Amerigo's name.

PONCE DE LEON — THE DISCOVERY OF FLORIDA

AMONG the Spanish gentlemen who sailed with Columbus in his second voyage in 1493 was one by the name of Juan Ponce de Leon, then thirty-three years of age. He was of a noble family and as a boy had served as page in the king's household. When a young man he entered the army, and in 1493 had just returned from the war against the Moors. The name *Leon* is Spanish for lion, and a poet once said that Ponce was lion not only by name but also by nature.

After his trip with Columbus, Ponce de Leon returned to Spain and some years later was made military commander at the eastern end of the island of Hispaniola, now known as Haiti. If you look at a map, you will see lying just east of Haiti an island called Porto Rico. One day Ponce with a few friends visited this island and was well received by the chief. The Spaniards were delighted with the beautiful mountains and fertile valleys. They asked about gold, and the Indians pointed to the mountains. Ponce at once decided that this island should be conquered. He applied to the king of Spain for permission to add this beautiful island to his dominions. The request was granted, and Ponce led a great expedition to Porto Rico. The natives behaved very differently when they found that the Spaniards had come as conquerors and not as visitors. After months of hard fighting

the natives were overcome and Ponce de Leon was made governor.

The lion part of his nature daily showed more and more. He seized all the treasures of the natives, and in other ways ruled with great severity. Such treatment made the Indians hard to control. They greatly outnumbered the Spaniards, but were kept down by the fire-arms and the bloodhounds used by their conquerors. Ponce de Leon had one bloodhound that was rated as a soldier and drew full pay and allowance of food as such; for this dog was unusually fierce and obedient and could do as much harm to an enemy as could a soldier. There were many uprisings among the Indians, and every time they were defeated they were treated with greater severity than before. It appeared probable that in a few years the Indians would be largely killed off and the Spaniards could enjoy undisturbed the possession of this beautiful island.

We are told that Ponce de Leon was made governor for life. He was then over fifty, and the experiences of the soldier had so stiffened him that he seemed and felt very much older than he was. Not long afterwards an Indian story reached him that in a country to the north was a river whose waters made old men young if they bathed in them. There was also an island with a fountain whose waters possessed the same miraculous power.

Imagine this gray-haired, war-worn old man getting together vessels for an expedition to find the fountain of youth! People to-day would laugh to scorn such an undertaking. But that was a wonder-loving age. People told big stories and other people readily believed them.

Why should they not? Had not the past ten years been filled with most wonderful discoveries? An undreamed-of New World had been found; certainly a fountain of youth was small in comparison. Every man selected by Ponce de Leon to go with him expected to get the same benefit from the water. Then, too, all those left behind might be restored to youth on some later trip, if the first explorers were successful. There was great bustle and excitement when the expedition sailed away from Porto Rico one morning in the early spring of 1513.

Ponce de Leon directed his course at first to the northwest among the Bahama Islands. He made many stops and always asked about the fountain of youth. But no one seemed to know exactly where it could be found. Some had heard of both the fountain and the river and believed that they were not far off. We have no reason to think that Ponce and his men became discouraged, for they held their course, finding new islands almost every day.

Toward the close of March they saw a densely wooded coast to the west that looked much larger than any seen before. The winds for several days kept them away from the shore; but on Easter morning they succeeded in making a landing. The day was bright and warm. The fresh trees and flowers made the country look most inviting. The Spaniards felt that Nature had decorated herself with flowers for Easter Sunday, just as the churches at home were always filled with flowers on that day. The Spanish name for the day was Pascua Florida (Flowery Easter), so they called the country Florida. No one since has found a better name for the land.

Ponce de Leon and his men landed near the site of the present city of St. Augustine. They found the natives, they said, unfriendly. It is more probable that the Spanish made them unfriendly by treating them as they were in the habit of treating those in Porto Rico. They bathed in all the springs and streams they found along the coast for



Ponce de Leon looks for the fountain of youth.

many miles. But Ponce came out of the water each time the same old man that he was when he went in. It may be that he was stiffer and felt even older after so much swimming and bathing in rivers and streams so early in the spring. Certain it is that after a few weeks he gave up the search and started home to Porto Rico.

In spite of the disappointment in not finding the magic spring, Ponce de Leon realized that he had discovered

land not yet claimed by any European power. He thought Florida was an island, but an island much larger than any thus far found. He promptly went to Spain to report his discovery. The king was greatly pleased and gave him permission to conquer and to govern Florida as well as to rule in Porto Rico.

For several years after this, Ponce de Leon remained in Porto Rico, adding new luxuries from Spain to his island kingdom. He kept putting off the conquest of Florida, but finally, in 1521, he attempted the work that was suitable only for a young man. The natives of Florida had not forgotten the Spaniards, and proved even more fierce than they were during the first visit. They fought desperately to keep the invaders from landing. Ponce was soon wounded, and his age and broken health made it necessary to withdraw. His followers carried him back to Porto Rico. The wound did not heal, and in a few weeks he died. Instead of prolonging his life, the trip to Florida had been the means of shortening it. His work gave Spain claim to an indefinite amount of land on the mainland of North America, but its conquest was left to other Spanish adventurers.

Topical Outline. — De Leon with Columbus in the second voyage. Military commander at Hispaniola. Conqueror and governor of Porto Rico. The Indian story of a fountain of youth. De Leon's search for it. His discovery of Florida. What he did in Florida. His death.

For Written Work. — I. A letter that De Leon might have written to a friend in Spain telling about the magic spring and his hopes. II. Describe the first Easter day in Florida.

FERDINAND DE SOTO — THE DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI

At the time that Ponce de Leon was exploring Florida, there was a thirteen-year-old boy in Spain whose name was destined some years later to be connected with the new land. This boy was sturdy and strong and could throw most of his companions. He was not fond of books, but was naturally very quick to observe. He often surprised his family by his grasp of questions of business and of government. His father had many friends who had been on voyages to the New World, and the young boy heard the stories these men had to tell of their wonderful adventures. His name was Ferdinand de Soto.

De Soto went to the New World in 1519, and had not been there long before he had the chance to go out with the army to conquer Nicaragua. He soon showed great ability as a soldier, and by the time he was twenty-eight years old he was made commander of the troops. His next great expedition was with Pizarro in the conquest of Peru. After this he returned to Spain, taking with him, it is said, a million dollars as his share of the spoils. He married a distinguished lady and lived in princely style. He was much sought by society because of the stories of his sixteen years of thrilling adventures. This life soon proved unattractive to the man of action. He yearned for the excitement of conquest.

About this time Cabeza de Vaca returned to Spain after eight years of wandering in the wilderness between Florida and Mexico. He brought the curious story of El Dorado



De Soto sails for the New World.

(the Gilded Man). As the story circulated, it took the form that there was a tribe of Indians in the district called Florida whose chief was a gilded man. Every

morning this chief was bathed in some sticky liquid and then thickly sprinkled with powdered gold.

De Soto was just the man to lead the search for the kingdom of the Gilded Man. He was made governor of Cuba and Florida, with permission to fit out the expedition at his own expense, and as was usual he promised to give to the king one fifth of all the gold found. De Soto was then about thirty-eight years of age, and one of the richest and gayest cavaliers in Spain. Such a leader and such a prospect made the undertaking immensely popular. Rich men and poor men, old and young, men of high birth and of low birth, all flocked to the standard. Some sold their ancestral estates, others sold their little shops; but many had nothing to sell and were obliged to work their passage. All expected to get rich.

Choosing from among them some of the bravest and best, De Soto soon set sail for the New World. The expedition was like a monster picnic party. The leaders were gayly dressed, banners were flying, and music playing. Probably no other explorers ever left Spain amid greater rejoicing. They went direct to Cuba, and stayed there about a year. Then they set sail for Florida, after several weeks of bull-fights, balls, and masquerades. The feasting and merry-making lasted until the hour of sailing.

De Soto had with him nine vessels and five hundred and seventy men, — nobles in silken doublets, priests in long black robes, soldiers in glittering armor, mechanics, and serving men. He took also two hundred and twenty-three horses, a large number of bloodhounds, and a drove of hogs. It was a beautiful day in May when they landed on the western coast of Florida. They sent the ships

back to Cuba, where De Soto's wife was left as governor, and began their march inland. They were surprised to find the Indians very unfriendly from the first. They soon learned, however, that Narvaez had landed at this place some years before, and his cruel treatment of the natives had not been forgotten.

The day after landing, the Spaniards captured a prisoner who was dressed like the Indians and was, to all appearances, a savage, but who surprised them by speaking fluently in Spanish! This man proved to be Ortiz, a Spaniard who had been with Narvaez and was a friend of Cabeza de Vaca. He had been captured by the Indians and had lived with them for ten years. He joined De Soto's party and became their guide and interpreter.

The explorers marched northeast into the present state of Georgia. It was a very difficult undertaking. The forests were full of underbrush; swamps were numerous and almost impassable; some streams were too deep to ford, and bridges had to be made across them. Mile after mile, month after month, they pressed forward, seeking the treasures which the Indians always said were to be found farther ahead. They had to be constantly on their guard, for the Indians hid behind trees and with bows and arrows shot down any of the company when they could. The Spaniards found no gold and no splendid cities. But no one felt like giving up the undertaking, for surely, they thought, the gilded chief would soon be found. Very early in their march they took captive what Indians they needed to carry their luggage, so that the Spaniards could save their strength for greater work.

After months of toil the explorers reached the Savan-

nah River, probably fifty miles from its mouth. There, in what is now the state of South Carolina, they found a village of Indians more civilized than any met before this. Their ruler was a young Indian princess who received De Soto very graciously. She put to his use half of the houses of her village, and presented to him a pearl neck-



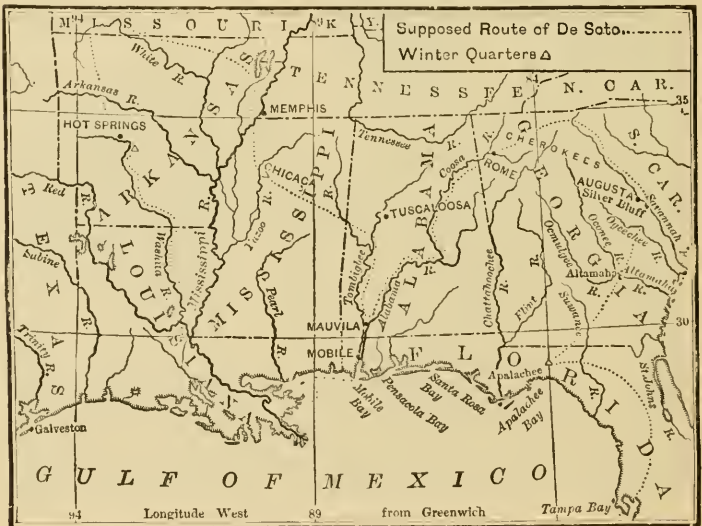
De Soto meets the Indian princess.

lace of great value. The Spaniards stayed there for many days and enjoyed the rest and hospitality of the place. Then the zeal to find pearls led them to search all through the town and even to open Indian graves. They found many pearls, but at the same time they offended many Indians.

Westward now the Spaniards went across the present state of Georgia, then turning southwest entered Alabama.

They met many savage tribes and endured great hardships. The men found their armor too heavy to walk in, and already many of their horses were dead. They also suffered from mosquitoes and malaria.

They had been two years on the march when they came into the country of a Choctaw Indian chief called Tuscaloosa, or Black Warrior. Tuscaloosa's town, Mauvila, was



Map showing De Soto's route.

surrounded by a high palisade, with only two small entrances at opposite ends. This palisade was chinked and plastered with mud so that it formed a solid wall, save for small slits for those within to shoot through. One hundred of the Spanish horsemen riding ahead of the main party reached Mauvila and, they claimed, were attacked suddenly by the Indians. As the town was full of women and

children, it is likely that they were attacked while they were trying to force their way within the walls. This led to a fierce battle in which the Spaniards lost many horses and men, but they succeeded in setting fire to the Indian houses. The fire spread until the whole town was burned, and Tuscaloosa and all his tribe were killed.

This place was located a little north of the present city of Mobile, which derives its name from Mauvila. So many of De Soto's men were wounded that he had to remain in that desolate place three weeks. Then he turned back to the northwest, passing through the present state of Mississippi. He came in time to a deserted Chickasaw village, where his men found food and shelter and settled down for the winter.

At this place the men did little but hunt rabbits and capture stray Indians, from whom they hoped to learn where gold was to be found. All was going well — the horses were getting fat and the men rested — when one windy night in January the war whoop was heard. The men sprang from their beds only to discover the roofs of their houses bursting into a blaze. The savages had shot into the thatched roofs arrows tipped with burning wisps of straw. The Spaniards sprang to their arms and let loose their bloodhounds. The fight was short, for the Indians suddenly fled. Many of their number were killed, but the loss of the Spaniards was forty men and fifty horses. Their provisions, clothes, and cabins were destroyed and almost their whole herd of hogs were burned. Here in midwinter we find De Soto and his men without shelter, obliged to repair their arms and make clothing of skins and straw mats. They worked busily the rest of

the winter in open camp, and the Indians did not again attack them.

With the first days of spring they once more plunged into the wilderness. The men would have been glad after these disasters to go home, but De Soto was determined to renew his efforts to find gold. A few weeks later they had another encounter with the Indians, a great force of whom lay in wait for them on their line of march. All these fierce attacks of the Indians were probably due to



De Soto discovers the Mississippi.

the cruelty early shown by De Soto, the news of which spread far. Within a year after De Soto landed in Florida there was probably not an Indian tribe south of the Ohio that was not ready to fight the Spaniards.

A few days after this last encounter De Soto and his men came to a river so wide that "if a man stood still on the other side, it could not be determined whether he were a man or not." This must be the "Father of Waters"

they had heard the Indians mention. We know it to-day as the Mississippi. De Soto wanted to cross, but his men had to cut down trees and build boats first. In three weeks four boats were ready. The crossing was begun some hours before daylight so as to avoid possible attacks from Indians as they were leaving shore.

They landed in Arkansas, and marched on for weeks without finding any cities of great riches. Then being in need of supplies they turned southward, crossed Arkansas and part of Louisiana, and came again to the great river. De Soto planned to build some larger boats and sail downstream to the Gulf and go to Cuba for supplies and more men. He would then return and plant a colony on the river and hold all the country in the name of the king of Spain.

Throughout the journey De Soto had led almost a charmed life, escaping injury in many battles; but now by the time he reached the river he had fallen ill. Hardships, exposure, and malaria had all weakened him so that his system gave way to a severe fever. He fought like a giant to throw off the sickness and to do his allotted tasks each day, but he found his sickness was stronger than his will. When he realized that he could not live, he called his men together and had them select a leader. Their choice fell upon a man pleasing to De Soto, his lieutenant from the first. Soon the great leader died. His men feared that the Indians might find his grave and learn that De Soto was dead, so they planned to hide the body. They made a coffin from the hollowed trunk of an old oak tree. After placing De Soto's body in it they weighted it down with sand and in the dead of night silently sailed out

into midstream and lowered it into the water. Surely no man had a nobler monument or a more enduring tomb.

It was four years since the brilliant De Soto had set forth from Spain with such fair promise. His followers, sadly diminished in numbers, were glad to give up the search for gold. They built rude boats and floated down the Mississippi to its mouth. Then, following the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, they made their way with difficulty to the Spanish settlements in Mexico. These men told the world of their experiences, and Spain claimed the land explored. De Soto's expedition, which had started with such high hope, failed to win wealth, but it helped to make known the extent of the New World.

Topical Outline. — De Soto sailed to the New World when fifteen; was made military commander; went with Pizarro to Peru and got a million dollars; returned to Spain; in 1538 sailed for Cuba and Florida to find El Dorado; landed in western Florida and began a long march; passed through seven states and endured great hardships. De Soto discovered the Mississippi River, but no rich cities nor El Dorado. By his work Spain claimed all the land drained by the Mississippi River.

For Written Work. — I. Write an account of the attack on Mauvila. II. Give an account of the difficulties on the march. III. Describe De Soto's burial at night.

Map Work. — Note the states crossed by De Soto and the route of the escape of De Soto's men.

BALBOA —DISCOVERY OF THE PACIFIC

AMONG a company of adventurers sailing for the New World in 1501 was a young man by the name of Balboa. He settled in Hispaniola (Haiti) and became a farmer. He probably did not know much about work, and cared less to do it, and soon found himself deeply in debt. Laws against debtors in those days were very severe. Debtors were kept in prison, required to work as slaves, and sometimes were even put to death. Balboa wanted to get away from Hispaniola to escape these penalties. But guards were set to watch all departing ships to see that no debtors left the island.

In 1510, when a vessel was to sail from Hispaniola with supplies for a colony in South America, Balboa saw a chance to escape. He got into a cask, had the head of the cask fastened on the inside, and was hauled from his farm to the vessel. People supposed that the cask contained provisions. After the ship was well away from land, imagine the surprise of those on board to see a man crawl out of that cask! At first the captain was angry, then he saw how funny it was. He began to admire the pluck of Balboa, and soon realized that this was no ordinary man. We are told that Balboa was a tall, well-knit young man with reddish hair and very bright eyes. He had the manner of a gentleman and soon won the friendship of all the officers on board.



Balboa crawls out of the cask.

When the supply ship reached its destination, the men found most of the colony destroyed. It was decided to abandon the place, so they took on board the survivors and were about to sail away. But where should they go? Balboa came forward and described a place he had once visited, called Darien. His account sounded so attractive that the commander decided to go there.

In a few days they reached Darien and took possession of the village and with it got a large quantity of food, besides gold ornaments to the value of fifty thousand dollars. Balboa was in high favor because this good luck had come as a result of his suggestion. Shortly afterwards he was selected as one of the rulers of the settlement.

Balboa showed ability in winning the confidence of the Indian chiefs. One after another became his ally. Those who opposed him were conquered and their villages were plundered for gold. The natives soon discovered that the Spaniards wanted gold, and they took delight in telling of the wonderful cities of gold belonging to other tribes of Indians. Over the mountain, they said, was a temple whose interior was all gold. In another direction there were small rivers across which the people stretched nets and caught gold nuggets as they came downstream. Expeditions set out in these directions, but found none of the wonderful places. But the Indians had often told Balboa of a vast ocean beyond the mountains. It seemed to him a greater thing to find this water than to find gold, so he decided to make the effort.

- It was a difficult undertaking. The forests were dense, the mountains rocky, and there were many unfriendly Indian tribes to be met. Balboa was a daring man and a good leader. On September 1, 1513, with one hundred and ninety men, several bloodhounds, and a few Indian guides, Balboa started for the mountains. The heat was intense. There were no roads, and the men had to climb up and down rocky cliffs and wade through marshes and tangled vegetation, at the same time dragging or carrying their supplies and guns.

On the third day out an Indian chief showed Balboa a high mountain in the distance, from the top of which he said the ocean could be seen. The next four days they traveled only thirty miles, but that was far enough to bring them into the territory of a chief who was a deadly enemy of Balboa's guides. When the chief saw their small num-

bers, he attacked them, but his Indians fled in terror at the first discharge of the Spaniards' guns, and their village was left to the possession of Balboa and his men. It contained a large quantity of gold and jewels, besides fresh food supplies.

As this village lay at the foot of the last mountain to be climbed, Balboa left there a large number of men with the sick and wounded, while he and sixty-seven others went on up the mountain. They started at daybreak and in the cool of the morning hours climbed to the top. About ten o'clock they came out from the forest and found only a slight ridge ahead of them. The guides said the water could be seen from the top of this. Balboa asked his men to wait below while he alone went to the top. When the brow of the hill was reached, a wonderful vision was before him. Just beyond a green strip at the foot of the mountain lay glittering in the sunlight a vast ocean never before seen by a European. Balboa called his men, planted a cross, and in the name of the king of Spain formally took possession of the ocean and all lands washed by it. This occurred September 26, 1513.

After sending for the members of their company left at the Indian village, they went down the western slope to the water. Two days later Balboa took a canoe and pushed out to sea, while his companions stood on the shore and watched him. He was the first European to ride on the waters of the Pacific Ocean.

After returning to the shore, he took a banner showing the royal arms of Spain, and waded knee deep into the water. He drew his sword and struck the water, solemnly declaring the ocean, with all its islands and all lands



Balboa takes possession of the Pacific.

washed by it, to be the property of the king of Spain so long as the world endured.

Balboa and his men spent a month exploring the coast in the vicinity, and then returned to Darien. The report brought back, together with many thousand dollars' worth of gold and pearls, produced great excitement. A ship was sent to tell the king of Spain of the success of the expedition and to carry him one fifth of the gold. Balboa

was for a while considered a great man, but his success and popularity made some people jealous.

From the day that Balboa left the newly found ocean he had dreamed of exploring its shores farther to the south, where the Indians said were rich cities. In the course of a few months he made ready to leave Darien to carry out this wish. Since there were no ships on the Pacific coast, nor any means of building them there, Balboa decided to cut the timbers and shape them in the shipyard at Darien and then to carry the parts over the mountains and put them together on the other side. In this way two fine ships were made on the Pacific coast and were almost ready to sail to the south when Balboa found that he must have more pitch and more iron before it would be safe to go far from land. So he returned to Darien to get these supplies.

When he reached there, he found that his enemies had been circulating false reports about him. Some claimed that he had exceeded his orders and that he was guilty of treason because he had gone ahead and done things without the authority of his superiors. After a brief examination he was sentenced to death. He declared his innocence of the charge of treason, but nothing could save him. So perished one of the few Spaniards who believed that geographical discovery is better than gold.

Topical Outline. — Balboa sailed to the New World in 1501; lived in Hispaniola and got badly in debt; escaped in a supply ship to Darien, where he rose in favor and became a ruler. The Indians told him of a great ocean to the west. He crossed the mountains and discovered the Pacific Ocean. His death.

For Written Work. — Balboa's experience in crossing the Isthmus of Panama.

CORTEZ — THE CONQUEST OF MEXICO

HERNANDO CORTEZ was a little boy seven years old when Columbus started on his first voyage. It is possible that his earliest recollections were of tales of adventure and exploration. His father belonged to the aristocratic class in society and had many friends among those interested in these voyages to the New World. Cortez was a handsome boy, fairer in complexion than most Spaniards, and had large brown eyes. His manners, we are told, were those of a little prince. His father wished to make him a lawyer. At the age of fourteen he was sent away to school, but after two years he came home with little knowledge of law. For two years after this he seems to have passed his days in idleness. He was gay and companionable and had many friends among the explorers and adventurers.

At eighteen he received an appointment in the army and gained some slight experience in military matters. Then fresh reports of successful voyages to the New World reached Spain. Young Cortez believed that gold as well as glory could be gained in the New World by courageous young men. He knew then that he had always intended to follow just such a life.

In 1504, at the age of nineteen, Cortez sailed under Quintero for Hispaniola with letters to the governor. He was well received and was given a large grant of land with enough native slaves to cultivate it. But Cortez was only

a boy. He did not enjoy being a farmer, but he kept the land for the income it brought him. He offered his services in the governor's army, and was several times engaged in putting down uprisings of the natives. He was restless, and when a company was sent out in 1511 to conquer Cuba he was ready to go. He did brilliant work as a soldier, and was given an office in Cuba's new government.

When the reports of Balboa's splendid discovery and of the gold and pearls of Darien reached Cuba, the Spaniards there became at once eager to explore further those lands to the west. An expedition was sent out in 1517 that visited Yucatan. They found houses built of stone and many indications of a more advanced civilization than that on the islands. When a second expedition returned from Yucatan, the people in Cuba were wild with excitement; they believed that the kingdom of Kublai Khan had at last been found. A still larger expedition was then prepared with Cortez, then thirty-three years of age, in command. A better man for the work could not have been found. He was daring, planned well, and was very prompt.

Cortez started on the 19th of February, 1519. He had eleven ships, carrying seven hundred Spaniards, two hundred Indians, sixteen horses, and fourteen cannon. His banner was of black velvet, with a great cross embroidered in red, and the mottoes, "Friends, let us follow the cross." and, "If we have faith, we will conquer."

We will leave Cortez and his men on the sea going to Mexico, while we go on ahead and learn something of the people and country he will find. In Mexico at that time were many tribes of natives, but only the Aztecs are of

interest to us now. Their ruler was called Montezuma. His seat of government was on the site of the present capital of Mexico. Under the dominion of Montezuma were some towns absolutely subject to him, while other towns had more or less self-government, but paid him tribute.

The climate and vegetation varied. Some places were dry and barren, others had a most luxuriant growth of shrubs, flowers, and trees. The Aztecs, unlike the Indians of the north, carried on agriculture; but they knew nothing of horses. They had made great progress in spinning and weaving cotton, and they worked in metals. They understood the process of combining tin and copper to make hard bronze tools, but they did not use

iron, although there was an abundance of it in the mines. Their work in gold and silver was very fine. The Spanish goldsmiths admitted that this work of the Aztecs was better than they could do. The Aztecs understood the cutting of precious stones, but the most ingenious was their work in feathers. Many birds of beautiful plumage were found



Aztec ruins.

in the country. The Aztecs wove the feathers into gauzy fabrics for dresses and into heavy curtains and all sorts of ornaments.

The Aztecs had no alphabet or method of writing save by the use of rude pictures. In this respect they were no more advanced than the Indians of the north. They had no commerce, and for this reason are regarded by some as only half civilized, or indeed barbarians. The most curious thing about the Aztecs was their religion. They worshiped many gods, chief of whom were the dark god and the fair god. Their gods demanded very rich gifts and many human sacrifices. The principal reason for carrying on war was to get victims to kill on the altars in their temples. The dark god and the fair god were opposed to each other as day is to night; and after many furious battles, the Aztecs believed the god of darkness had driven the sun god out of the sky. He was not even allowed to stay on the land; so with his companions he had gone off toward the west. Some said he sailed away, others said that he was burned and then ascended to the sky and became a morning star. In any case it was prophesied that he would return some day, coming from the east.

Cortez and his Spaniards first landed on an island northeast of Yucatan. The largest building was the temple. Cortez and a few of his men marched up to it, and seeing some hideous-looking idols they knocked them down, and the priest set up an altar in their place. The natives were horrified, and expected their gods to strike the strangers with thunderbolts. When they saw that nothing serious happened, and that their idols were unable to rise and strike in self-defense, the natives accepted

readily the religion of the Spaniards. Cortez was delighted. After getting fresh supplies of food he sailed away around the coast of Yucatan, stopping occasionally, until he came to the site of Vera Cruz, where he landed. Without delay men were ordered to cut down trees to build shelter.

While this work was going on, Cortez received the natives, who came flocking up from all directions. He was surprised to see their friendliness, for they brought fruits, flowers, and gold ornaments. Some of them bowed in worship before him, for they really believed their sun god had returned. This landing place was in Montezuma's dominions, about two hundred miles from his palace. Runners reached him in a very short time not only with the story of the coming of strangers, but with pictures of the men and their wonderful boats, and of the terrible monsters which they afterwards came to know as horses. Montezuma was alarmed. His counselors were divided. Some thought the sun god had returned. He was to come from the east, and of course then must come by water. Others feared the strangers might not be gods, but men from another Montezuma in another country. They sent back the message to Cortez that he had better not try to come to Montezuma's hall because the way was difficult and dangerous.

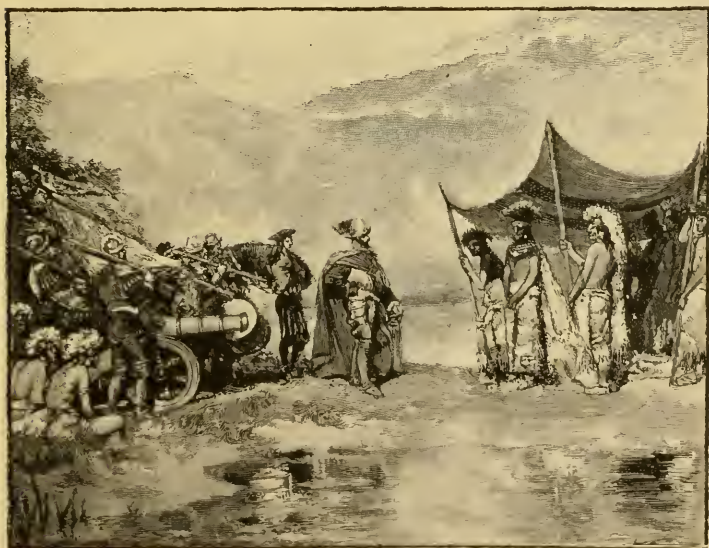
Poor Montezuma made a sad mistake when he sent valuable presents with this message. Among them, we are told, was a large amount of fine cotton goods, several cloaks of the curious feather work, a helmet filled with gold, and two round plates of gold "as big as cart wheels." Cortez received these with delight and sent back to

Montezuma a carved arm chair, a crimson cap, some bracelets, and ornaments of cut glass. Before the messengers were allowed to depart, the horses were brought out and were pranced around in lively manner. Then the cannon were fired and the ships in the harbor were shown off. The bright armor of the Spaniards answered well the description of the appearance of the sun god. When this was reported to Montezuma, he sent another present and positively commanded Cortez not to come nearer but to go away as quickly as possible.

These affairs had lasted several weeks, during which some discontented Spaniards wanted to return to Cuba; but Cortez was determined to march on Mexico city. He had no authority to compel the men to follow him, but to prevent their return to Cuba he destroyed his ships. The march began. The way led over low, marshy land, across hot, sandy plains, then up steep mountains swept by cold winds and blizzards of snow.

In some places the natives fled in terror. In other parts they came and worshiped the white men, bringing offerings of gold and even human victims to be slain as a sacrifice to them as to their gods. Now and then a tribe was warlike and resisted the advance of the Spaniards. On one occasion the natives drew up in battle array and with insane fury attacked the horsemen. We must remember that they had probably never before seen a horse, and they supposed that the horse and the rider were one — a curious kind of animal. They succeeded in killing one horse and went wild with delight when they found it was possible. The Spanish fire-arms gave Cortez and his men a great advantage, and after one day of fighting the

natives held a council of war. The wise men decided that these strangers must be the children of the sun. While the sun shone they could not be defeated; in the darkness they would be powerless, so they decided to attack them by night. Cortez was on the watch, and before the natives could make an attack the Spaniards had advanced and scattered them in all directions. This, of course, proved to the poor natives that the visitors were not even ordinary gods, and peace resulted. They eagerly formed an alliance with Cortez, and hundreds of them entered his army to march on to Mexico city.



Cortez meets Montezuma.

Montezuma was told of their approach. He had tried very hard to keep them away. It was a serious moment

for him. He ordered the people of the city to remain in their houses. With an escort of soldiers he went out to meet Cortez, not to welcome him, for he feared these wonderful strangers.

The capital city of Montezuma was located on an island in a lake. Several causeways of solid masonry connected it with the mainland. After greeting Montezuma, Cortez and his men marched straight over one of these bridges into the city. Montezuma took a fancy to the dauntless Spaniard, and gave him one of the greatest buildings in the city for the use of his men. Cortez took possession, planted his guns, and posted guards. The Spaniards then visited the places of interest. After a few days the inhabitants became familiar with the strangers, and the more they saw them, the less they considered them gods. Cortez saw that the situation might be serious if the people should suddenly attack him. He found an excuse and took Montezuma prisoner; then he had his men collect the arms of the Aztecs and burn them. For six months things went very well. Cortez set up altars for Christian worship in the temples. He built boats, carried on some mining operations, and collected much gold.

Cortez was then called to Vera Cruz and left his lieutenant in charge at Mexico city. While he was away some Spaniards foolishly attacked a company of Aztecs engaged in a sacred dance. The outraged people sprang to arms. Cortez returned just in time, and had the imprisoned Montezuma address the people, but they stoned him. The Spaniards could not hold the place, for the Aztecs were two hundred times as numerous. So Cortez fought his

way out of the city ; but lost four hundred and fifty men killed, and more than half the horses.

For several months Cortez traveled among the neighboring cities subject to the Aztec chief, and won their friendship and made them allies. He also received reënforcements from Vera Cruz. Then with a hundred thousand natives and over one thousand Spaniards, Cortez renewed his attempt to take the city. After a siege of three months and many days of hard fighting the Aztec war chief surrendered in person to Cortez. He was received in a friendly manner and entertained in a way suited to his rank.

Cortez restored order and established a government for the city and the country round about. His fame spread far into South America. For several years Cortez prospered. But, as often happened, unfriendly reports were sent to the king of Spain ; and Cortez went to Spain to defend himself. He had conquered a vast empire for the king and had brought him enormous wealth ; but in spite of all, the king's displeasure was shown. Cortez was keenly hurt over the treatment, and retired into seclusion, where he died.

The Spanish governed Mexico until the nineteenth century. The people became Christians. The language of Mexico is Spanish, and there is little left to-day of the Aztec civilization.

Topical Outline.—Cortez sails for the New World when nineteen years old (1504) ; leads an expedition to Yucatan, looking for the cities of Kublai Khan ; enters Mexico and meets the Aztecs. The Aztec civilization, and the "fair god." Montezuma sends presents. Cortez goes to Mexico city. Great territory and much gold taken.

For Written Work.—I. Write a paragraph giving reasons for the success of Cortez. II. Tell why the Aztecs thought that Cortez was their "fair god."

PIZARRO AND THE CONQUEST OF PERU

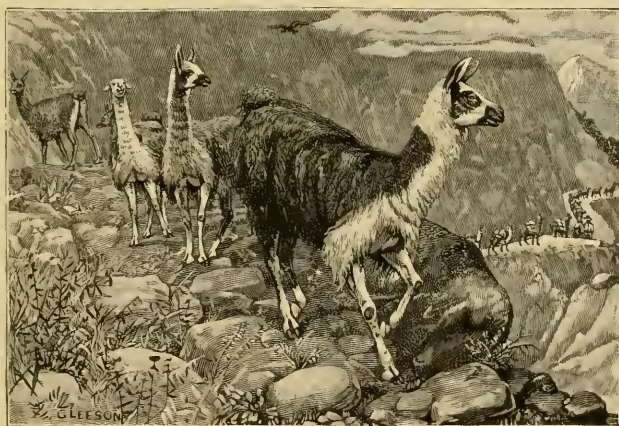
ON the Pacific coast, you remember, Balboa heard that rich countries lay to the south ; and he had planned an expedition down this coast when he was killed. Among Balboa's followers who knew his plans was a man by the name of Francisco Pizarro. He was of Spanish birth but without education.

After the death of Balboa, Pizarro was for a few years a cattle farmer in Panama. But during this time he never forgot Balboa's belief that riches could be had farther south. Day and night this cattle farmer dreamed and planned. He talked the matter over with two men — Almagro, a laborer, and De Luque, a priest and teacher. Finally a partnership was formed with them. Pizarro should be commander and leader ; Almagro should get men to enlist and secure supplies ; De Luque should raise the money necessary.

People at Panama ridiculed the plan. Cortez had hundreds of followers when he swept Mexico with such brilliant success, and nothing less dashing would for a moment meet the popular favor. Few men could be found willing to go. But Pizarro was strong of heart, and in November, 1524, just five years after Cortez entered Mexico, he left Panama with eighty men and four horses. For many weeks their ship crept down the coast, landing

occasionally, without anything of value being found. The adventurers heard news of a rich kingdom farther south, but their supplies gave out and they were obliged to return to Panama. On a second expedition, Pizarro went farther, till supplies were again low. Some of the men lost courage and returned to Panama. Pizarro and sixteen men took shelter on an island and waited seven months for reinforcements and supplies to be sent by Almagro.

It was not long after they resumed their journey that success came to them. They landed in the northern part



Llamas, in Peru.

of Peru and entered a rich city. They found a temple whose walls were lined with plates of gold. One of the palaces was supplied entirely with gold dishes, besides many ornaments of gold. The people were friendly. But Pizarro knew that they would not be friendly long if he took what he had come for. He knew also that with his small band of men he could do nothing by force. So he

told his men to make friends with the natives, learn their ways, their manner of life, their language, their religion, what they thought of their visitors, and also their methods of warfare and how the city could best be attacked. When this friendly visit of inspection was finished, Pizarro returned to Panama for troops to conquer the country. He carried back with him some llamas, some beautifully made gold and silver vases, and two young natives to be taught Spanish so they could act as interpreters.

While troops were being raised at Panama, Pizarro went to Spain. The king showed him great favor and made him governor of all lands conquered by him. Honors were heaped upon him by people of high rank. In 1530, with his four brothers and some enthusiastic followers, he returned to Panama, and soon afterwards started for Peru. He had less than two hundred men and fifty horses, but a little later he was joined by about one hundred more men and more horses.

On landing in Peru, Pizarro selected a favorable site on the coast and built a fortress. Leaving there a small garrison, he started on a twelve days' journey eastward over the mountains to the camp of the Peruvian monarch, called the Inca, who had been victorious in a recent civil war.

Strange messages reached the Inca. Couriers hurried to tell him that white and bearded strangers most curiously clad came up out of the sea. The horses were unearthly monsters to them as to the Aztecs in Mexico, and the firearms were thunderbolts. The Inca decided it was best to make friends of these mysterious strangers, and he sent presents to them and bade them welcome.

The march over the Andes was most difficult. The Spaniards struggled through narrow, rocky passes in bitter cold winds; in many places they were obliged to lead their horses. The end of the journey was welcome. But a chill of fear seized most of the Spaniards when they discovered that they were approaching the camp of a victorious army of fifty thousand soldiers.

Pizarro and our friend De Soto (who afterwards discovered the Mississippi), with an escort of thirty-five horsemen, rode on ahead to greet the Inca. They were received with splendid ceremony, and the Inca accepted Pizarro's invitation to a conference the next morning. The Inca and his men had betrayed a superstitious fear of the Spaniards, so Pizarro knew his success depended on taking advantage of this by acting quickly.

Early the next morning everything was made ready. Mass was said, and the men waited in hiding for the Inca to come. It was nearly sunset when he arrived, seated on a throne of gold, carried on high by men of noble rank. Soldiers and attendants surrounded him. As they entered the village where the Spaniards were staying, they saw Pizarro waiting in full armor to receive them. Soon a priest came forward and read through an interpreter the doctrines and history of the Church. Following this, he read that the Pope had given the kingdom of the Incas to the Most Catholic King of Spain. In conclusion the priest ordered the Inca, under penalty of fire and sword, to accept this religion and to pay tribute to the king of Spain. During this reading the Inca's followers pressed closer and closer to their leader. When a Bible was handed to the Inca, he threw it on the ground.

Pizarro saw the moment was ready, and gave the signal. A gun was fired. The war cry "St. Iago" (Santiago) rang out, and the Spanish soldiers and horsemen dashed among the Peruvians. The Inca was seized and his attendants were killed. The remainder of the Inca's army, panic-stricken, fled. Pizarro's success was complete. With less than two hundred men he had put to flight an army of



The Spaniards attack the Inca's escort.

fifty thousand. He was in possession of the field, with the Inca his prisoner. The superstitious natives thought the Spaniards must be superhuman, and, paralyzed with fear, they kept at a distance.

Pizarro treated the Inca as a prisoner of rank, but let him know that he could gain his freedom only by paying a

large sum of gold. The room in which the Inca was kept was twenty-two feet long and seventeen feet wide. A line was drawn on the wall nine feet from the floor, and the Inca promised gold enough to fill the room even with that line. A smaller room was also to be twice filled with silver. This enormous quantity of precious metal was to be collected in two months. The offer was readily accepted, and the Inca was to be free as soon as the treasure came. Temples and palaces were stripped of their gold and silver ornaments. Every day natives came heavily laden with golden dishes, statues, and sheets of gold that had lined the walls of temples.

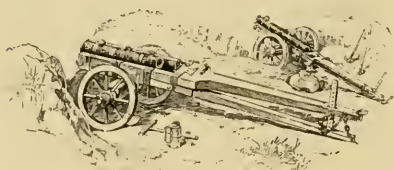
While waiting for the collection of the ransom, Pizarro with twenty horsemen journeyed to a famous temple, destroyed the images, threw out a great wooden idol, and seized a large amount of treasure. The natives did not raise a hand against the Spaniards. This seems strange to us. But they believed that no one but their consecrated priests could enter the shrine without instant death. When the Spaniards did not drop dead, the natives thought they certainly were gods. This notion was strengthened because crosses were set up and the worship of the Catholic Church was at once conducted.

And now at length the Inca's rooms were filled with the ransom. It is estimated that the gold alone was worth from fifteen to twenty million dollars of our money. Pizarro accepted the treasure, but he did not let the Inca go. The Spaniards made excuses day after day to keep him longer. Finally they charged the Inca with sending out messages to his people asking them to rise and fight the Spaniards for his freedom. He was tried by Pizarro and his generals,

found guilty, and sentenced to death by burning at the stake.

The poor Inca, weeping like a child, begged for his life. Two hours after sunset he was led forth and baptized. The Spaniards did not think they had the right to burn a Christian, so the Inca was hanged. The next morning he was buried with the Christian burial service. We are glad to know that De Soto was away at this time and disapproved of the execution.

Pizarro and his men now marched south and took the holy city of Cuzco. They plundered the temples, the royal palaces, and even the tombs of the kings. Cuzco was a city of three hundred thousand people, the streets were well laid out, and many of the houses were built of stone. The inhabitants fled or surrendered, and the Spaniards placed



Spanish cannon.

their cannon on the fortress and prepared to enjoy the luxuries at hand.

Meanwhile, Pizarro had sent one of his brothers to Spain to report his success and to send the king his share of the gold. The king was pleased, and raised Pizarro to the rank of marquis.

Before long the Spaniards in Peru laid out, near the coast, a new town that they called Lima. Other Spaniards came from Panama and Spain to make their homes in this rich land. Three years passed. Another Inca had been chosen. The natives had seen enough of the Spaniards to believe now that they were men, not gods.

The Indians had endured much, their homes had been taken, their temples robbed, and their Inca murdered. Silently the vast population in town and country made plans to drive the hated Spaniards out of the land.

Multitudes gathered around Cuzco armed with axes and lances, wearing their quilted cotton doublets instead of armor. They surrounded the city and stealthily set fire to many buildings. For six days their fighting continued. The city was half burned, and many Spaniards were killed, but the slaughter of the natives was terrible. Their weapons were useful only in a personal engagement, while the cannon of the Spaniards could kill many even at a distance. Finally the leader of the Peruvians jumped from one of the battlements and was killed, and the remaining men scattered. The Spanish were again victorious and in full possession of the whole country.

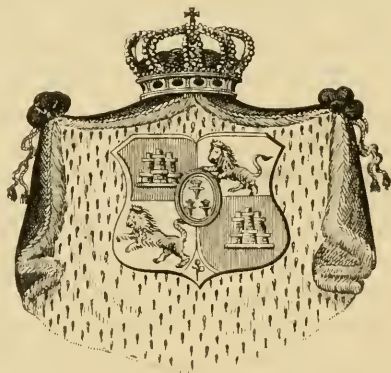
Pizarro began building roads, and introduced grain and vegetables from Europe for cultivation. Rich mines of silver and gold were worked. Thousands of Spaniards came there to live, and in ten or twelve years Peru was an important Spanish colony. Pizarro lost influence after younger Spaniards came to Peru, and as he grew older, he found he really had no friends. He had always been very stern with his companions and friends, and most cruel to his inferiors and enemies. His skill and treachery had won for Spain another empire, but they had won no friends for himself. One day in 1541, some Spaniards who had been injured by Pizarro surrounded his house in Lima and killed the old man.

From Peru, expeditions were sent out to other parts of South America, and by the end of the sixteenth century,

the Spaniards held nearly all the land, save Brazil, which was occupied by the Portuguese.

Topical Outline. — Pizarro, a Spaniard who had been with Balboa, heard of rich cities south of Panama. He started for Peru in 1524, found rich cities, and reported to the king of Spain. The king made him governor, and he raised soldiers to conquer Peru. He captured the Inca, got a large ransom, and then put the Inca to death. Spain soon had possession of nearly all of South America. Pizarro's enemies killed him when he was an old man.

For Written Work. — Write a paragraph giving your opinion of Pizarro's treatment of the Inca.



Spanish coat of arms.

MAGELLAN — CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF THE GLOBE

WHEN Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean in 1513, men began to see that the New World was a continent lying between Europe and eastern Asia. As yet no one had actually found Asia by sailing west. The mystery of the question was very attractive. But hunting for gold occupied the attention of explorers. The search for a new route to the Indies was again taken up in 1519 by a man named Magellan.

Ferdinand Magellan was born in the hill region of Portugal in 1480. As a young boy he became a page in the royal household at Lisbon; then he entered the Portu-



The Victoria, one of Magellan's ships.

guese army and served in northern Africa and later for seven years in India. While in India he came to know the European merchants who did business there, and learned the great value of the trade with the East Indies. The desire to find the western route seized him as it had years before seized Columbus. He went to the king of Portugal and asked permission to make an effort to find

such a route. The king refused. Magellan was so sure that he could reach the East Indies by sailing west that he did just what Columbus had done some years before; he left Portugal and offered his services to the king of Spain. The king of Spain must have been well pleased, for he readily granted Magellan's request.



Magellan trading with the natives.

This was a time when the Spanish shipyards were the busiest places in the country. Men worked early and late to fit out vessels for the many men starting out to see the wonders and to get the riches of the New World. Magellan did not succeed in getting new ships, but five old ones were put to his use. Supplies were collected to last for two years. It is said he took twenty thousand little brass bells and five hundred pounds of glass beads to exchange for spices in the East Indies.

On the twentieth day of September, 1519, Magellan, with five ships and two hundred and eighty men, left Spain, and two months later they reached the coast of Brazil. They followed the coast south, and in January reached the mouth of the Plata River, which they thought was a strait leading to the ocean discovered by Balboa. They sailed up the stream and soon discovered that the water was fresher the farther they went. Magellan then knew that it was a river, so he went back to the coast.

At every stopping place the natives flocked around the Spaniards and eagerly took glass beads and little bells in exchange for sweet potatoes and fruit.

On reaching the Atlantic, Magellan continued his course south, keeping as close to the shore as possible. We must remember that the Antarctic winter is at the time of our summer. Every day's sail brought them into more severe weather. Finally, the last day of March, 1520, they anchored for the winter in a sheltered bay called Port St. Julian. Food was getting scarce, and little could now be bought from the natives. The sailors had never seen such weather, and their hardships were so great that many wanted to return to Spain.

The prospect of waiting for a long, severe winter to pass was unendurable to most of them. The men blamed Magellan for their distress; they honestly believed that no passage to the west was to be found. They feared that they would perish from starvation or from cold. Magellan was stout-hearted. He believed that they had gone too far and endured too much already to give up the undertaking. He punished the rebellious sailors; he cheered up the discouraged, and promised rewards to the faithful.

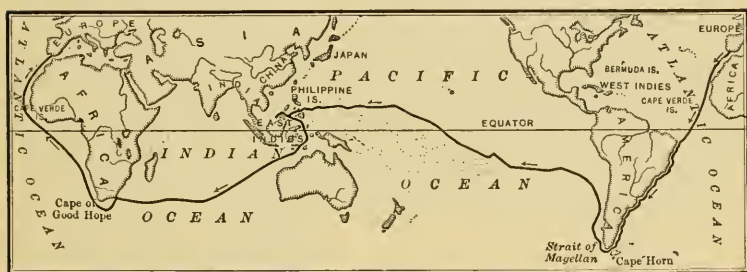
With the first signs of spring, late in August, they again started on their way. They made little progress for weeks because of the storms. But one October day they came to a break in the coast. On both sides there were high mountains. Sometimes the channel was narrow and deep ; then it would become broader, with many islands. Each day the sailors reported that the water was salt. This was good news to Magellan, and he felt sure this was a strait that led to the great ocean on the west. It took five weeks to pass through that strait, which to-day we call the Strait of Magellan.

It is said that when they passed out into the ocean Magellan was so glad that "for joy the tears fell from his eyes." The water seemed so calm, after the heavy storms on the Atlantic coast and in the strait, that Magellan named it the Pacific Ocean. One of his ships had been wrecked, and one deserted him in the strait, so that he now had only three.

For weeks and months the three ships sailed on in a northwesterly direction, but no land was seen. No one had imagined that the earth was so large. Probably many of the men even gave up the notion that the earth was round, for they came to no lands. The fear of endless water ahead of them was terrible. They could not go back, for that would surely mean starvation. Food now was so low that they ate pieces of leather that served as rope coverings on the ship. This leather was very hard from exposure to sun and rain, so they tied it to ropes and let it float for three or four days in the water. This softened it so they could eat it. Nineteen men starved to death and twenty-five were very sick when finally in March

they reached a group of islands. The inhabitants of these islands brought them plenty of bananas, oranges, and cocoanuts, but they stole anything that took their fancy. For this reason the Spaniards called the islands the *Ladrones*, a Spanish word meaning "robbers."

Ten days later Magellan reached a group of larger islands which we call to-day the Philippines. He made friends with the king of the island of Cebu, who promised that his people



First voyage around the world.

would trade only with Spaniards. The king and his people also accepted the Christian religion and were baptized.

Some neighboring islands owed allegiance to the king of Cebu, and when they were ordered to trade with the Spaniards and to accept the new religion, they refused. War followed, and Magellan was wounded and soon died. Only two ships out of the original five were now left, and less than half of the men.

It was with heavy hearts that the Spaniards sailed away, for the king of Cebu had turned against them and would not give up Magellan's body. They sailed south to the Moluccas, where they took on board all the cloves they could stow away. They exchanged all the red cloth, bells,

and beads they had; then the men bartered their jackets. The *Victoria* had on board twenty-six tons of cloves.

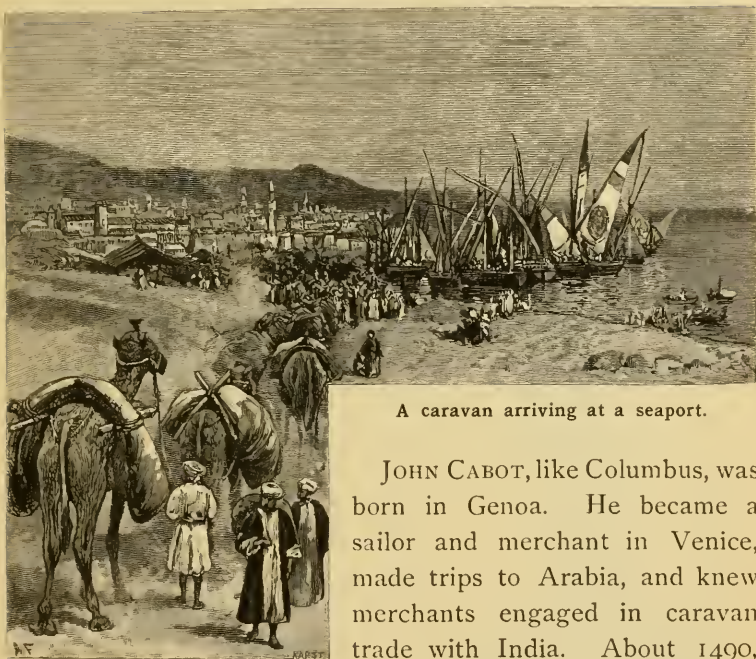
The homeward journey was then begun. One ship started for Panama; but the *Victoria* rounded the Cape of Good Hope and reached Spain. It was just three years since the fleet under Magellan had sailed away. The great voyage of the *Victoria* around the world proved not only that the earth was round, but also that the country discovered by Columbus was probably not a part of Asia, but altogether a separate continent.

Topical Outline. — Magellan sailed in 1519 to find a water route to India; coasted along South America; spent a winter at Port St. Julian; and in the spring passed through the Strait of Magellan to the Pacific Ocean. After a long voyage he reached the Ladrone Islands and then the Philippine Islands, where Magellan was killed. His ship, the *Victoria*, completed the voyage and reached Spain after an absence of three years.

For Written Work. — I. As a sailor with Magellan write of the hardships of the voyage. II. Write a paragraph on what the voyage proved.

Map Work. — Trace the route of Magellan, locating especially the Strait of Magellan and the Philippine Islands.

JOHN AND SEBASTIAN CABOT



A caravan arriving at a seaport.

JOHN CABOT, like Columbus, was born in Genoa. He became a sailor and merchant in Venice, made trips to Arabia, and knew merchants engaged in caravan trade with India. About 1490, for some reason, he went to England and made his home in Bristol, a very great seaport. Ships from Bristol had made many trips to the Mediterranean, to Iceland, and to Norway. They had the reputation of sailing farther than the ships from any other northern port. John Cabot soon became known as the most daring of all the merchant captains of this famous port.

The year before Columbus first sailed, Cabot had ships

out on the Atlantic looking for an island that was supposed to lie southwest of Ireland.

It is possible that Cabot met Columbus's brother, Bartholomew, when Bartholomew went to England to get help for the first voyage of Columbus. Whether this is so or not, Cabot early had the belief that India, China, and Japan could be reached by sailing west. The trade was worth the effort of finding the way.

There was great excitement in Bristol when the news reached there that Columbus had really sailed across the Atlantic and had reached the Indies. Cabot was just the man to appreciate the value of the work of Columbus. He also wanted to discover a new route to the lands of the East. If Columbus had reached the Indies, he, by keeping to the north, might reach China and Japan. So straight-way he went to King Henry VII for permission.

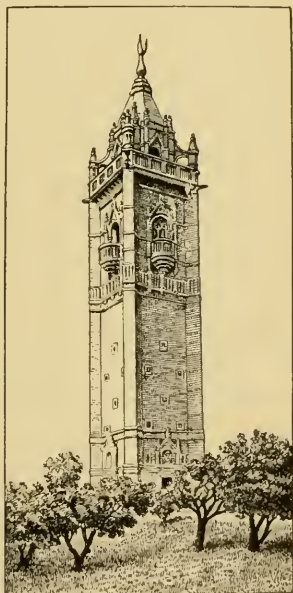
King Henry gladly gave him leave "to sail to the east, west, or north with five ships carrying the English flag, to seek and discover all the islands, countries, regions, or provinces of pagans in whatever part of the world." King Henry wished no wars with any countries, — he kept England in peaceful relations with all her neighbors, — so he warned Cabot not to sail to the south, for fear he might have trouble with Spain.

Instead of getting the five ships promised, Cabot had to sail with only one. He had with him his son Sebastian, a boy of twenty, and a crew of eighteen men. The little ship was called the *Matthew*. They sailed early in May, 1497, directly across the Atlantic. The sea was very rough, and it was six weeks before they reached the rocky coast of Labrador. Although it was the middle of June,

the coast appeared barren. Cabot was probably disappointed, but he sailed south close to the shore for several hundred miles. He was amazed at the great numbers of fish he saw. He landed now and then and took possession of the country in the name of the king of England. We have no record of any trouble with the Indians, for Cabot stayed nowhere long. By the last of July the *Matthew* and all on board sailed into the harbor of Bristol.

Cabot hastened to the king and reported that he had discovered the coast of China. He thought he had. But we know he had discovered North America instead. King Henry was pleased, and gave Cabot a present equal to fifty dollars of our money. He also allowed him a pension of one hundred dollars a year. This seems a small sum as a reward for the discovery of North America, but Henry thought it was generous and Cabot evidently was satisfied. In those days money was scarcer than it is at present, so that men were glad to work for a few pennies a day.

Cabot was now the hero of the hour. He dressed in silks and was called the Grand Admiral. Everybody wanted to see the famous man, and he was pointed out to the curious wherever he went.



Cabot memorial at Bristol,
England.

The next spring the Cabots set out for a second voyage. This time they had five or six ships. They thought Japan, or Cipango, as they called it, could be reached by keeping their course toward the southwest. After reaching the continent they sailed southward for many hundred miles — almost to Florida. They entered the bays and scanned the shore, but could not see any cities. When they landed they saw no signs of the wealth of the Asiatic countries. They saw no cultivated fields, no orchards. Then probably dawned upon them the knowledge that this was not an old country, but one unknown to civilization. The Indians of the north did not have the riches that the Spanish found among the Indians of Mexico and South America.

Just when the fleet returned to England we do not know. Little more is known about John Cabot; but we hear much of the work of his son Sebastian, who made other voyages both to the northwest and to the northeast. Sebastian some years later went to Spain and sailed for South America. In 1518 he was appointed Pilot Major in Spain and was regarded as a famous geographer.

The work of the Cabots gave England claim to a large part of North America, but it was many years before any other English ships sailed to explore the New World.

Topical Outline. — John Cabot was born in Genoa; became a merchant in the Indian trade, and went to Bristol, England. When he heard that Columbus had found India by sailing west, he thought that he could find China and Japan by sailing northwest. He explored the coast from Labrador far southward. England later claimed the land because Cabot first visited it.

Map Work. — Trace the route of Cabot from England to Newfoundland (map, p. 37).

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE — ENGLAND'S GREAT ADMIRAL

OF all the explorers in the New World during the sixteenth century there is not one whose life was more thrilling than that of Francis Drake. He was born fifty years after Columbus and Cabot found the way to the western world. The first we hear of Drake was when a group of Protestants fled for their lives from one of the west counties of England. One man and woman had with them a blue-eyed, fair, curly-haired little boy just beginning to walk. This boy was Francis Drake. The Drake family found protection with a relative who was a shipowner of Plymouth, and for a time made their home on an island in Plymouth harbor.

Francis's father was appointed as reader of prayers for the royal navy, and the family was given an old war ship to live in. On all sides could be heard the hammers of shipbuilders and the songs of the sailors. The most familiar sights were the water, the masts, the guns, and the towering hulks of old war ships.

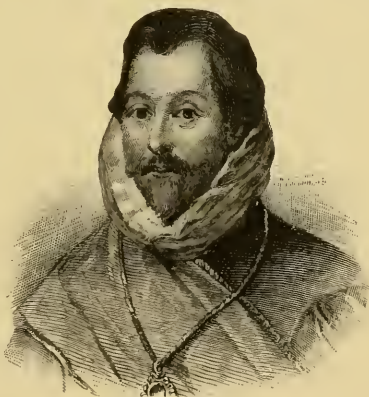
Those were days of bitter religious troubles. Men differed widely on some questions, and when they differed there were often high words and much suffering. Francis and his playmates heard these questions talked so much that they played politics. England was unfriendly to Spain. The boys played war with Spain. In snowball fights the fort to be attacked was always a Spanish fort.

As a young boy, Francis was apprenticed to a skipper who traded with France, Holland, and England. The work and exposure molded the growing boy into a sturdy, thickset, well-tempered man. When the shipmaster died, he left his ship to Francis. The young man carried on the trade for a few years, then sold his ship and entered the service of his relative, William Hawkins, and sailed as purser on a short voyage.

In October, 1567, Drake as pilot sailed with Sir John Hawkins on an expedition carrying negroes from Africa to be sold as slaves in the Spanish settlements of South America. Even very religious men at that time saw no harm in this business. They said it was one form of missionary work, for the negro was taken from heathen Africa and given to a Christian master who could teach him the true religion. It may in some cases have made a better man of him, but years later people believed the system very bad. Hawkins and Drake on this voyage sold five hundred negroes and received in exchange gold and pearls. One of their six ships became disabled in a storm, and they were obliged to enter the harbor of Vera Cruz for repairs. In the harbor they found twelve Spanish ships with valuable cargoes on board. The next day others arrived. England and Spain were jealous of each other. But Hawkins told the Spaniards that he would not touch their treasure if he might be allowed to repair his ship in the harbor so it would be safe to sail for England. The agreement was made. For three days all went well. Then suddenly, in spite of their promises, the Spaniards attacked the English vessels. Two of the ships escaped, but the others were sunk with all the gold and pearls on board. Hawkins

and Drake bitterly resented this treacherous attack and vowed they would have revenge.

Every time Drake made a voyage after this he robbed Spanish colonies and captured Spanish ships. He said that this was not wrong, because the Spaniards got their gold by robbing the Indians. Spain had been highly successful in winning wealth in the New World, but we know that her success was not permanent. Her explorers sought for riches and adventure, but cared little for the dull life and slow growth of an agricultural colony. As a result, the riches Spain so easily obtained in Mexico and Peru were as rapidly spent at home in extravagant living and in useless wars with some of the other nations of Europe. We can readily believe that as soon as Drake directed some of this stream of ill-gotten gold to his own pockets, the Spaniards began to fear and hate him most



Sir Francis Drake.

heartily. At last the Spaniards asked Queen Elizabeth to punish "the master thief of the western world," as they called him. Queen Elizabeth did not punish Drake. She believed he would yet be of great service to her, and we shall find that he was.

Years went by, and the relations between England and Spain became more unfriendly. Neither country was

ready to make war, but each wanted to injure the other. Drake one night was summoned to the queen. No one ever knew what took place at that audience. But the next day and in the days following Drake was a busy man preparing for a new voyage. No one seemed to know for what country the expedition was bound. Some thought it was for Egypt, others for America. Drake did not say.

On November 15, 1577, the expedition started from Plymouth. There were five ships, well armed, and provided not only with necessary supplies, but with many luxuries. This was particularly true of the *Pelican*, Drake's flagship. His table was supplied with gold and silver dishes, and his cabin was furnished with chairs and couches covered with rich satin and velvet. The fleet went first to the coast of Africa, where Drake captured five or six vessels with valuable cargoes, and then to the Cape Verde Islands. Here the sailors were told the plans in full. Drake wished to plunder Spanish ships and Spanish colonies on the Pacific Ocean, and to do this he would have to follow the dangerous route of Magellan around South America. There was dissatisfaction among Drake's men. Some wanted to return to England. Many were frightened over the prospect of hardships that Magellan had endured. But Drake was master of the situation, and the ships headed for Brazil. They met fierce storms. The ships were hard hit, and two had to be abandoned. On they went down the coast, and the storms became fiercer. It was Magellan's experience over again.

On June 20th, midwinter in that latitude, they entered Port St. Julian, the very port where Magellan had spent a winter nearly sixty years before. Some of the sailors

were disobedient. The gentlemen on board had in some cases refused to work with the sailors. Drake took them aside and told them that all distinctions in rank must be laid aside; every man must do his allotted task. Very soon, through fair treatment by Drake, good discipline was restored. The ships were repaired and cleaned ready to resume their journey as soon as spring came. Drake's flagship was renamed the *Golden Hind*.

Late in August, 1578, Drake entered the Strait of Ma-



Drake's route around the world.

gellan, and in spite of the rough weather his skillful seamanship brought the ships through to the Pacific in two weeks. Magellan had been five weeks passing through. They were well in the Pacific when a gale struck them and one of the ships went down with all on board. Another went back to England. The *Golden Hind* was all that was left of the fleet. Fair weather and good wind attended her now, and she sailed north, looking for prizes.

In the harbor of Valparaiso, Chile, lay a Spanish ship called the *Grand Captain of the South*, with a cargo of gold and wine. The sailors were lounging about waiting

for orders to start for Panama, when suddenly a strange ship entered the harbor. The Spanish ship saluted as to a friend, but it was at once attacked, and after a short struggle it was captured. For three days Drake's ship lay in the harbor and collected dainties, then sailed away with the prize ship under command of one of Drake's trusted men. For many weeks the Englishmen had been on short rations, but now they had food and delicacies in plenty. They required the Spanish pilot of the *Grand Captain* to guide them to the chief seaport of Peru, near Lima. On their way they often stopped and captured whatever they wished.

In one port they learned that a ship had just left for the north with a cargo of silver on board. Drake gave chase. In a short time he overtook her lying at anchor in a small bay. When Drake went on board not a man was found nor an ounce of silver. Just two hours before, the Spaniards had heaved the cargo overboard and the men had fled inland. Drake sent both Spanish boats adrift, for they were slower than the *Golden Hind* and only a hindrance to him.

It was February 15th, in the dead of night, that the *Golden Hind* slipped into the harbor near Lima. Drake went from ship to ship in the harbor, but found no treasure. He learned, however, that a large vessel, called the *Spitfire*, had just left for Panama with a big cargo. Drake did not wait for morning, but started out at once to overtake this treasure ship. But for three days there was a dead calm, and Drake's ship lay just outside the harbor, unable to move. The soldiers of Lima had been warned, and they made ready to attack the strange ship, now

recognized as that of the much-hated "master thief," Drake. Just as the Spanish were sure of capturing the *Golden Hind*, a stiff breeze sprang up, and off she sailed in pursuit of the *Spitfire*.

The chase was not so important that Drake was willing to let go any chance of taking treasure at hand. He made several stops and got some gold at each stop. At one place he learned that the *Spitfire* had left but two days before. Drake then determined to catch her soon. He offered a gold chain to the first man who sighted the treasure ship. On they raced. When the *Spitfire* was seen, young John Drake, the nephew of the admiral, claimed the chain. The *Golden Hind* wanted to slacken speed until night, so heavy casks were dragged astern. At nightfall in one bound the *Golden Hind* was alongside of the *Spitfire*. A single shot brought her to terms. For three days side by side the two ships ran away from the coast. For three days more they lay side by side. When they parted, the *Golden Hind* had increased her cargo by thirteen chests of Spanish gold dollars, eighty pounds of pure gold, twenty-six tons of pure silver, and more jewels than could be counted.

So huge was the booty that Drake thought now of home. At one Spanish settlement he swooped down and found court in session. He captured the judges and made them order every man to leave the town. Then Drake and his men helped themselves to all the food they needed, and the next day sailed away. In another harbor he captured a vessel with two Chinese pilots on board, for Spain had already opened up a great trade with China across the Pacific. This was an important capture; for

the pilots had the secret charts by which the Chinese trade was safely conducted.

Drake now sailed north as far as Vancouver, in search of a passage back to the Atlantic. But he soon gave it up and returned to the Bay of San Francisco. Here the English landed. With some ceremony a post was planted upon which was nailed a brass plate engraved with the name of Elizabeth, queen of England. The country thus claimed by Drake for his sovereign was called New Albion. In the sheltered harbor of San Francisco the English built a fort and dockyard for the repair of their ship. The Indians gathered about them in great amazement and actually worshiped these first Englishmen to visit their shore. The relations between visitors and natives were very friendly, and after a month the Englishmen sailed away to the southwest.

In the meantime the Spaniards of South America were watching for Drake. They sent ships to head him off at the Strait of Magellan, and a strict watch was set at Panama. For months no Spanish ship with valuable cargo dared start for any port.

But Drake crossed the Pacific and visited the Philippines, where Magellan had been killed sixty years before. Then he turned south through the East Indies. Once the ship struck a rock; for days the men labored to free her, but she stuck fast. Seeing no prospect of escape, they made solemn preparations for death. They partook of the sacrament of communion, and offered prayers to God for forgiveness, when suddenly the wind changed and they slid from the rock in safety. Picking their way past strange islands, they entered and crossed the Indian Ocean. They

rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and, with no further mishaps, headed for England. In the fall of 1580 a worm-eaten, weed-clogged, and weather-beaten ship sailed into Plymouth harbor. It was the *Golden Hind*.

The king of Spain had asked that the pirate Drake be punished. Drake was warned that his enemies were at



Queen Elizabeth knights Drake.

work against him. He was not afraid. He went with a part of his treasure at once to his queen, and reported all he had done. A few weeks later Queen Elizabeth honored him with a visit on board his ship. Before she left she made him a knight. The *Golden Hind* was unseaworthy, but Elizabeth ordered that it should never be destroyed.

A few years later the quarrel with Spain broke out. The king of Spain collected a great fleet that he called the Invincible Armada, and made ready to attack England.

Before they could start, Drake, with thirty ships, had sailed straight toward Spain. In a bold dash into the port where the Spanish fleet was collecting, he captured one ship with a most valuable cargo on board, and burned and destroyed others. Drake then returned to England and sent word to Elizabeth that he had "sing'd the Spaniard's beard."



Drake receives the surrender of a Spanish ship.

A year later (in 1588) the Armada came to England. The fleet was made up of a great many very large ships. The English ships were smaller, but had better guns. The two fleets met in the English Channel. A little English ship could fire at a Spanish ship, then dart away and hit another, for the Spanish ships were clumsy and could not maneuver. The Spanish rammed their own ships often in trying to escape the rapid English ships. This was not the worst, for the mortal enemy of Spain had command. They dreaded Drake worse than Satan, whose agent some

really believed him to be. It certainly looked satanic, the next night, to see fire ships racing down among the clumsy Spanish war ships. Some were burned, Drake captured twelve, and others fled, only to be destroyed by storms. Only half the Armada reached Spain, utterly defeated. England rang with cheers for Drake and the English navy. The king of Spain did not again attempt to conquer England.

Drake, accompanied by Sir John Hawkins, made another expedition to the New World, but was taken sick on the voyage, and on January 28, 1596, when fifty years old, he died on board ship. His body was placed in a leaden casket and buried at sea. Two of his ships were sunk at his side. A salute of cannon was fired. The rest of the fleet returned to England, and Drake's companions, servants, and sailors, all had a good word to say for him. He was generous; he shared treasure and profits according to rank with all. He was good to his prisoners. He never allowed his men to illtreat a woman or child. With one accord men said, "There will never be another man like Francis Drake." There probably never has been.

It is said that Sir Walter Raleigh, whose life we are soon to study, was with Drake on some of his adventurous voyages, and it is probably true that Raleigh was in command of a part of the English fleet that defeated the Armada.

Francis Drake was the first Englishman to sail around the world. He was the first European to explore the western coast of the United States. He was the successful commander of the English at the defeat of the Spanish Armada, and was rightly regarded as England's greatest admiral.

Topical Outline.— Drake's boyhood at Plymouth, England. His first work as a sailor. His voyages with Hawkins. The battle in the harbor of Vera Cruz. How Drake got revenge. Drake's great voyage: the preparations, the purposes, the results. Defeat of the Spanish Armada.

For Written Work.— I. Drake's nephew John tells of chasing the *Spitfire*. II. Write a paragraph on how the Spaniards at Panama felt toward Drake.

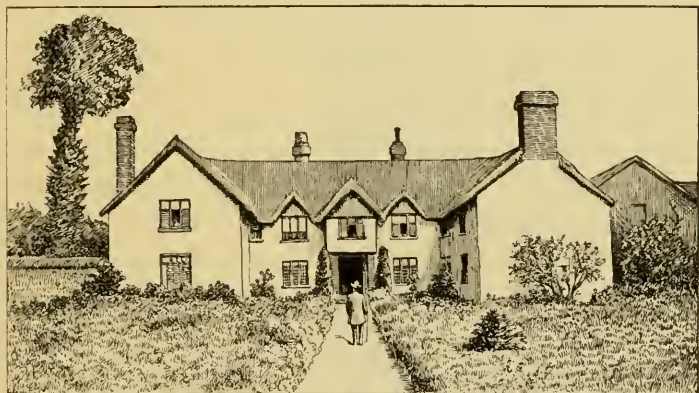
Map Work.— Trace the route of Drake on his voyage around the world.



The Spanish Armada.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH — ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION

FOR over eighty years after the Cabots discovered the mainland of North America, no attempts were made to settle the country. English seamen were bent on finding a northwest passage to India, and upon slave trade with



Raleigh's birthplace in Devonshire.

the Spanish settlements. It was Walter Raleigh who made the first great effort to colonize the country claimed by England.

Walter Raleigh was born in 1552, in Devonshire, the home of many of England's finest seamen. His father was a gentleman of rank and wealth. Nearly every country gentleman in Devonshire and Cornwall owned swift

ships for commerce and plunder. At every fireside there was much talk of the daring exploits and profitable trips of these ships. Of Raleigh's early days we know little. He was doubtless well trained and cared for during his early boyhood, for we find him as a young man splendidly developed, with good health and fine manners. He did well also in his studies.

At eighteen years of age Raleigh left Oxford and went to France to join the army of the Huguenots, French Protestants who were at war with the Catholics in France. When he returned to England five years later he was a mature man and a skillful soldier. He was also an attractive man, six feet tall, with thick curly hair and sharp gray eyes. It is said that he could win any one to his side of a question after a brief argument.

One day, it is said, Queen Elizabeth with a few of her attendants, when about to enter a boat, had to cross a muddy place. The queen hesitated an instant and glanced about. Raleigh, standing near, threw his crimson velvet cloak with gold embroidery and lace trimming over the wet place. The queen graciously acknowledged the courtly act, stepped on the cloak, and then went on to her boat. Not long after this she sent for Raleigh to visit her, and until her death was a good friend to him.

Raleigh entered the English army and served in Holland; then he was sent as captain of English troops to Ireland. After his military service in Ireland he remained in England for some time. He had wealth and a beautiful home. His education, experience, and judgment made him very valuable to the queen, and he was much at court. One writer says, "Raleigh did well whatever he under-

took ; as a soldier he was among the best, as a sailor he had no superior, as a statesman he had few equals, and as a business man he belonged to the twentieth century."

Court life in Elizabeth's reign was very gay. Men dressed most extravagantly, and no man had more gorgeous clothes than Raleigh. He had many suits of brilliantly colored satin and velvet. He is said to have worn a hat with a pearl band, and the jewels on his shoe buckles were worth several thousand dollars. But the most remarkable thing was a complete outfit of silver armor glittering with many diamonds. Some people thought the queen gave these things to her favorite, but Raleigh had large business interests and was very successful in them.

Raleigh lived in an age of great undertakings. The work of Drake and other explorers he believed was good, but he also believed that it was time for England to begin to colonize. It was not enough, he thought, to claim new lands ; but it was necessary to take possession by sending out people to live in the New World. Raleigh saw that England at this time needed America. England's island home was not large. Her population was growing rapidly. There were more men to work than there was work to be done, so wages were low. Many



Portrait of Raleigh, showing dress of the time.

farms had been turned into sheep pastures because the price of wool was high. It took fewer men to tend sheep than to raise and harvest grain. For a time there were no wars, and the soldiers and sailors were out of employment. Then, too, England still hated Spain, and English colonies in America would check Spain's power. Probably back of all there was a desire to find gold and to extend England's power and trade.

Raleigh's half brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, had attempted to form a colony in Newfoundland, but had not succeeded. He found, as did most explorers, that the business of exploration and colony planting was expensive. Ships had to be fitted out, supplies furnished; and some one had to pay the bills. Then, too, there was always the danger of disease and of disloyalty or disaffection among the colonists. Therefore, Raleigh determined to make his own fortune before he attempted to carry out his great scheme of colonization. In this he was soon successful, and the way was clear to begin his work.

On March 25, 1584, a charter was granted giving to Sir Walter Raleigh and his heirs "free liberty to discover barbarous countries, not actually possessed by any Christian prince, to occupy and enjoy the same forever." The queen was to receive one fifth of all precious metals found. The charter also stated that "the inhabitants were to enjoy all privileges of free citizens of England." Raleigh or his representatives were "to have power to punish, pardon, govern, and rule; the laws were to be as near as possible to those of England." We see by this that a charter was a contract between the sovereign and the settlers, as well as a written permission to plant a colony.

The charter was necessary in order to secure to the colonists all the political and religious rights they had enjoyed in the mother country.

In April of this year Raleigh sent out two ships to explore the coast north of the Spanish settlements in Florida for the purpose of finding a suitable place for settlement. The explorers entered a harbor in what is now North Carolina, and landed. Grapes were found in great abundance, very large cedar trees grew there, and the land seemed most fertile. On further search they found this land to be an island twenty miles long.

The natives proved to be friendly, and brought skins, coral, and pearls to the white men and offered them in exchange for some tin dishes that took their fancy. The Englishmen visited other islands in the chain extending for miles along this coast, and decided it was a good place to settle. They returned to England, and Raleigh was well pleased with their report. Raleigh was one of the few men of the age who considered fertile land and commerce as good as gold.

He made his report to the queen, and she named the land Virginia and approved of Raleigh's plans for settlement. Great preparations were now made; sixteen vessels were fitted out with furniture, food, and all things necessary to make homes in a wilderness. The queen gave money, and Raleigh and his friends invested much more. Queen Elizabeth refused to let Raleigh himself go; but the expedition sailed in April, 1585, with four hundred men on board. They went a roundabout way, stopping at some of the Spanish West Indies and then sailing up the coast of North America. It was June when they reached Roanoke

Island, selected for the colony. The Indians were at first friendly, but one day a savage stole a silver cup, and the Englishmen most foolishly burned a town in revenge for

the petty theft. Such treatment was not forgotten by the Indians, and trouble followed.

When the ships returned to England, more than one hundred colonists remained in the colony.

Early the next summer Sir Francis Drake with several ships came along and called to see the settlers. He arranged to leave ammunition and food for them, and to take letters back to England to their friends.



Roanoke Island and vicinity.

But when the time came for Drake to leave, the settlers insisted upon going home with him. A few days later a ship with supplies arrived from England, only to find a few empty houses.

The deserting colonists reached England in Drake's fleet in July, 1586, and brought with them Indian corn, potatoes, and tobacco. Raleigh made the habit of smoking fashionable at the court, and this custom created a demand for

tobacco, which later made the colony of Virginia prosperous.

In April, 1587, another company of one hundred and fifty, with John White as governor, left for Virginia. They landed on Roanoke Island and built houses. The summer passed pleasantly. A little granddaughter to Governor White was born. She was named Virginia Dare and was the first child born of English parents in North America. It was found that more supplies were necessary, and Governor White returned to England to get them. When he went he left eighty-nine men, seventeen women, and eleven children in the new colony, and promised to return as soon as possible.

When Governor White reached England, excitement was intense over the coming of the Spanish Armada. So many soldiers and sailors were called for to defend England against the Spaniards, that few men could be found ready to go as settlers to Virginia. But Raleigh succeeded in fitting out two ships for Governor White. They sailed, but were waylaid by the enemy. It was two years before Governor White was able to go back to America, and then he went as a passenger in another man's ship. When he arrived at Roanoke, the settlers were not there, but carved on a tree was "Croatoan," the name of an island sixty miles south. It had been agreed that if the colonists left the island before White returned, they would carve on a tree the name of the place to which they went. But a storm now threatened, and in spite of White's protests, the captain of the ship sailed away without going to Croatoan.

After this, Raleigh at his own personal expense sent

out five expeditions to find the lost colonists, but nothing was ever heard from them.

Thus the first English colony in America was a failure, partly because of inexperience and partly because the war with Spain prevented its proper support. But the experiment aroused in the English people a desire to plant colonies in the New World. Within a few years, largely as a result of Raleigh's effort, English-speaking settlements were established at Jamestown and at Plymouth, and the foundations were laid for a new nation beyond the sea. Raleigh had spent a large fortune in attempting to plant a colony in Virginia. Each attempt had failed. But he never lost hope, and once he exclaimed, "I shall yet live to see Virginia an English nation." He did so, but he saw it from prison.

Raleigh had been an acknowledged favorite of Queen Elizabeth; he had been a successful business man, as well as a poet and a soldier. All of these successes made him so conspicuous in society that men were envious of him. He had warm friends but many bitter enemies. In 1603 Queen Elizabeth died, and James I became king. James did not like Raleigh, and listened to the reports of his enemies. Raleigh, in one of his trips, had got into trouble with the Spanish authorities; James wanted to secure the friendship of Spain, so Raleigh was accused of treason on the ground that he had exceeded his authority on his exploring trips. He was tried and imprisoned, and finally, in 1618, when sixty-six years of age, he was put to death, some people said to please the king of Spain.

One writer says of him, "Raleigh had a commanding place in a grand age." "His love and faith in the future

of England, as the mighty mother of empires and mistress of the seas, demand for him the judgment that he was a towering Englishman."

Topical Outline.—Raleigh's boyhood in Devonshire. A soldier in France. His return to England. How he won the favor of Queen Elizabeth. Service in the English army in Holland and Ireland. Life at court. What Raleigh thought about colonization. The first Roanoke colony. The second colony. The efforts to find the lost colonists. Disfavor at court and death.

For Written Work.—I. Write a paragraph telling why England needed America at this time. II. Tell what you think became of the lost colonists.

Map Work.—Locate Devonshire (map, p. 137) and Roanoke (map, p. 108).



"She was named Virginia Dare."

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH — JAMESTOWN

TWENTY years after the failure of Raleigh's colony, the English tried once more to make a settlement in America. The man most closely connected with this undertaking was Captain John Smith, who was then less than thirty years old. In order to understand his fitness for the work we must take a look at his earlier life.



Captain John Smith.

John Smith was born in England in 1579, the son of a prosperous farmer. He was by no means an ordinary boy, but full of energy and pluck, and mentally as sharp as steel. His boyhood was in the days of the great English explorers. He heard tales about the deeds of Drake and Frobisher, in the wonderful new land beyond the western seas. His active brain wandered from the lessons at

school to the great things he could do, and one day when he was thirteen he made ready to start on a career of adventure. He sold all he had to get money for his enterprise. His property consisted of his schoolbooks and the satchel in which he carried them.

His plan required that he make his way to the seacoast,

where he could find a ship to sail away. We must remember that he lived in an age when neither trains nor trolley cars were known. He started, but after walking a few hours he decided to return home and start again some other day. Day by day he found himself busily occupied with so many interesting things to do that he did not succeed in getting off to the seacoast. Then one day, when he was just past fifteen, all was changed by the death of his father. His mother had been dead for years. John inherited some land, and he said his guardians were more particular about his estate than about himself. He was bound as an apprentice to one of the greatest merchants in that part of England. The work was distasteful, and probably his mind was too full of sea dreams for him to be useful to his master, who was glad to be rid of him.

In a short time John got a chance to go to France in a merchant vessel. The voyage was short, but was worth much to John because France was having civil war, and he soon found his way into the army. This furnished quite as much excitement as the life of a sailor. He later went to Holland and fought the Spaniards there. When nineteen, he left the army and decided to see the world. He soon fell among thieves, and all he had was stolen. But the plucky lad made friends of the country folk, and one day he met an English earl who had known his father. This man took John on a tour of the cities of southern France. At Marseilles John decided to take passage on a ship bound for the Holy Land. During the voyage, a great storm came up, and some superstitious persons on board thought that this strange boy in some mysterious

way was the cause of the storm, so they threw him overboard. John tells us that he was a good swimmer, and seeing an island near, he made for it. This island was uninhabited, but John spent the night there and the next day was rescued by the captain of a passing ship. The ship got into a fight with another, and John had a chance to use his skill as a soldier. He says that when the fight was over, he had a most valuable little box in his possession and a thousand dollars in money.

In time he reached the land of the Turks, and found a place in an invading army. He tells us that he devised a code of signals by torches which proved so successful that he was soon promoted to be captain of a company of cavalry. One day he was wounded and left on the field. The Turks saw that he was well dressed and wore a rich armor, so they held him for ransom. This was fortunate, for had he been left on the field, he would have starved. As it was, his captors cared for him and cured his wounds. As no ransom was offered, he was sold into slavery, but after a time he succeeded in making his escape, and returned to England in 1604. He was then only twenty-four years of age, but his experience was varied enough for a man of fifty. He had endured such hardships that he was well fitted for a pioneer life in a new country.

About this time some English merchants organized a company, known as the London Company, for the purpose of trade and colonization in Virginia. They also hoped to make careful search for a water route to India. The London Company had little difficulty in finding men willing to go out as colonists, for the notion prevailed that Virginia was a land of great riches.

Captain John Smith became a member of this company and did much in getting the expedition ready to sail. There were three vessels, which carried one hundred and forty-three passengers. Of this company only twelve were manual laborers, and one hundred and two were gentlemen who considered it a disgrace to work. There were a few cooks, four carpenters, a perfumer, a barber, and a tailor, but no women. All expected to get rich in a short time. Certainly this was not a very good selection of people to endure the hardships of pioneer life in the wilderness.

The colonists set sail December 19, 1606, but storms prevented their going out of sight of land for six weeks. Then, instead of striking straight west across the Atlantic, they went south to the Canary Islands, then sailed for the West Indies, and did not reach the coast of Virginia until April, 1607. They entered the Chesapeake Bay and sailed up the wide mouth of a river which they called the James, in honor of their king.



The Virginia coast.

When they landed, one of the men wrote that he "found nothing worth speaking about but fair meadows and goodly tall trees, with such fresh water running through the woods as I was famished for." They had been sailing sixteen days under a hot sun with no chance to fill their water casks afresh. The beautiful dogwood was in blossom, and "all the ground was bespread with



The settlers build homes.

many sweet and delicate flowers of divers colors and kinds." They decided that "heaven and earth had never agreed better to frame a place for man's habitation." They went back to their ship to spend the night, and opened the sealed box that had been given them by the agent of the London Company, on starting, with instructions that it was not to be opened until they reached Virginia. They found within it the names of the men selected as the Council to govern the colony, and Captain John Smith's name

was one of them. Within a year he proved to be the only man capable of serving as governor.

Some Indians shot a few arrows at them that first night, but were frightened away by musket shots. The chief of the Rappahannocks paid them a visit in a few days. He marched at the head of a band of Indians clad in most fantastic dress. One side of his head was shaved, and over this he wore a plate of copper. The hair on the other side was wound up into a knot and dyed red; into this were stuck two long eagle feathers. His body was stained crimson, and his face was painted blue. He wore a chain of wampum (shell beads) about his neck, and ornaments of pearls in his ears. The interview was friendly, and the Englishmen thought that they would have no trouble with the Indians.

The colonists chose a site on the peninsula between the York and the James rivers, and began to lay out a town which they named James City, or Jamestown. This at first seemed a good place for a settlement; but it was low and swampy. To-day it is deserted, and only a few ruins mark the site. The colonists planted potatoes, melons, cotton, and pumpkins. They cut down trees and split timbers and hewed logs and built homes. There was cooking to do, and washing and scores of other disagreeable tasks to perform, and the men preferred to explore. It was a strange country, and they wished to see the sights and hunt for gold.

The work was heavy, and many of these men had never done a day's labor in their lives. They were hard to manage; they often behaved like petulant children because the governor tried to make them build houses for shelter dur-

ing the winter. Then, too, the ships were to be sent back to England, and they wanted to send some kind of cargo. They wasted many weeks of valuable time trying to find gold, and the cold weather of autumn was on them before they were half ready for a winter in the wilderness. They planted so late in the spring that neither grain nor vegetables were ready for use in the fall. The supply of food got so low that only worm-eaten barley was left. Their misery was increased by the attacks of the Indians. It was necessary for each man to watch every third night, "lying on the cold, bare ground," and this exposure brought fever to nearly every man in the colony. Sometimes there were not five men able to shoulder a musket. Half of the colonists died, and the rest were finally saved by food obtained from the Indians.

The red men brought corn, persimmons, and turkeys and other wild fowl, but this first supply did not last long, and when the colonists wanted more, they were suddenly unable to get any. Captain John Smith believed that this was due to poor management in dealing with the Indians. He knew the Indians had corn, and he determined to get it peacefully if he could, forcibly if he must. He took a few men in two small boats and sailed up the James River. He bartered chisels for corn enough to last two weeks, and returned with it to the hungry men; and on other trips he secured more corn.

Smith then set off on an exploring expedition to find the Pacific. He sailed up the Chickahominy River, till the water proved too shallow for the boat. Leaving men in charge of the boat, Smith hired a canoe, and with two of his men continued his journey for twenty miles. They

were suddenly attacked by Indians; the two men were killed, and Smith was taken captive. The Indians took Captain Smith to their chief.

It was a desperate moment for the captain, but he was equal to the occasion. He pulled his compass out of his pocket and held it up, saying that by it he could tell directions and the time of day. He talked on about the sun, moon, and earth, making his story mysterious. But Smith was tied to a tree, and the Indians stood about and drew their bows as if to shoot him. Then they stopped to examine the compass. When they saw the needle move as they turned the compass, and found that they could not



Smith shows his compass.

touch it because of the glass, they were sure it was bewitched. They thought Captain Smith was a "medicine man" capable of magic. The chief took a fancy to him, and probably feared to put a "medicine man" to death; so Smith was untied while the Indians danced and yelled about him to ward off any magic spell. Then a great feast was prepared, but Captain Smith says that because of his uneasiness his appetite was not very good. He was well treated, though carefully guarded.

Before Smith was captured, he had wounded a young Indian by a pistol shot. The Indians asked him if he could cure the young man. He said he had a bottle of water at Jamestown that would cure the man, if they would let him go to fetch it. The Indians were too shrewd to allow this, but offered to send runners for whatever he wanted.

Smith seized the chance to let the English at Jamestown know what had happened. He wrote a letter, and three messengers took it to the settlement. According to Smith's instructions, the colonists treated the messengers well. They shot off the big cannon to impress them, and they displayed all the trinkets they could. The Indians were highly pleased, and returned with exactly the things Smith said he would send for. This made the Indians think that Smith either could foretell what would happen, or was able to "bewitch a piece of paper so it could talk." Thoroughly convinced that Captain Smith was a "medicine man," the Indians performed some mysterious ceremony with sticks, rattles, and songs, which lasted all day. Then they feasted merrily, and invited Captain Smith to become a member of their tribe.

Although the Indians treated their captive with great respect, they did not release him, but took him to visit other villages, and finally to the great Powhatan himself. This old chief received the prisoner with great ceremony. He was dressed in a robe of raccoon skins, with a chain of pearls around his neck. He was surrounded by many squaws and other attendants.

As Captain Smith entered the presence of the Powhatan, he was hailed with shouts. Then one of the squaws brought

water to wash his hands, and another brought him a bunch of feathers instead of a towel to dry them. Food was served. After this the Powhatan's counselors took their places around the room, and Captain Smith was carefully questioned. The Powhatan asked why the English had



Smith tells stories to Pocahontas.

come to his country; why Smith had sailed up the river; why he had sailed so far, and not farther. Smith answered the questions in such a way as to please the Indians. But the Powhatan probably decided that the English settlers could best be driven out if their leader, Smith, was disposed of.

We are told by Captain Smith that he was bound and

placed with his head upon a block of stone to be killed. At this critical moment the Powhatan's little daughter, Pocahontas, sprang forward and asked that the prisoner be saved and given to her. Many writers doubt the truth of this story told by Captain Smith in his book of adventures, but it is a good explanation of his escape from death. Among the Indians, if a woman had lost a relative in battle, she had the right to adopt a prisoner in his place. Smith tells us that the Powhatan decided that the prisoner should live to make hatchets, bells, and other trinkets for the little princess Pocahontas.

After a few days Smith was allowed to return to Jamestown, reaching there in January, 1608, just twenty-three days after he started out to explore. On the day of his arrival, a ship from England brought a hundred new colonists. They had been there but a few days when one of them accidentally set fire to a cabin, and half the houses were burned, besides clothing, beds, and food. The London Company in England had sent word by the captain of the vessel that gold should be sent back on the return of the boat. So, instead of repairing their houses, many of the new men went off digging for gold in frozen ground. Captain John Smith was disgusted. He rightly believed no gold was to be found there. So when the next ship came, he set men to work to get tar, pitch, and potash to send to the London Company. He also sent a letter in which he told the Company to send no more worthless gold hunters to Virginia. "Give us carpenters, gardeners, and blacksmiths; thirty men who can work are better than a thousand such as are here," he said.

The captain of the vessel and some of the newcomers

had visited the Powhatan, and trading with the members of the tribe had aroused ill-feeling. The Powhatan probably was angry because more Englishmen had come, so he planned to destroy the colony. He might have been successful had it not been for Pocahontas, who one dark night slipped away from home and ran off to warn the English at Jamestown. The Powhatan must have been surprised a few days later when he received a message from Captain Smith, saying, "We are all ready for you. Come whenever you choose."

Captain John Smith watched over the colony. He could manage the Indians. He bought corn from them when no one else could, but he had great trouble with his own countrymen. Many of them were so shiftless they would not try to get food until they were starved to it. It was possible to shoot game and to fish. They could raise vegetables, if they tried. The food was kept in a common storehouse, all the colonists got daily rations, and when the supply was gone, they expected the governor to furnish more. Finally Captain Smith, now the governor, said that a man who would not work should not eat. Each man was then required to work six hours each day before he could have his rations allowed. This was a good plan, and saved the colony from disaster as long as it was enforced. Captain Smith says the men were much given to swearing; but he made a rule that any man caught swearing should be punished by having a can of cold water poured down the sleeve of his uplifted right arm. The swearing soon stopped.

During this time Captain Smith had made many voyages up the Chesapeake Bay, and up the York and Potomac

rivers, to find a passage to the Pacific. He sailed hundreds of miles, and made such an excellent map of the coast explored that no better took its place until a hundred and fifty years later. One day in 1609 a bag of gunpowder exploded in his boat and wounded Smith so that he was obliged to go to England for medical treatment. After he recovered his health, he visited the New England coast and made a map of it. He then returned to England, where he wrote five or six books about America and seamanship. He died in England in 1632, at the age of fifty-three.

Possibly Captain John Smith's services to the Virginia colony are best shown by the conditions after he left. The Indians gave much more trouble, and the winter of 1609-1610 was one of terrible famine. The colonists could not get corn from the Indians. They carelessly let rats get into their grain. No one proved able to direct affairs. The men lived in idleness as long as any food lasted, and made little effort to increase the supply. Then they ate rats, mice, and even their dogs, instead of venturing into the woods to shoot game or to catch fish and shoot wild ducks on the York and James rivers. Of about five hundred colonists who were at Jamestown when Captain Smith left in October, 1609, only sixty were alive the following June, when a relief ship came from England.

But at last there was a change for the better. Good workmen were sent over. The men learned to plant their corn early in the spring and to care for it and have food of their own in the fall. Each man was allotted a portion of land to cultivate, and he provided for his own needs, and in time was encouraged to sell his surplus. Women

were sent over to make comfortable homes for the men. The colonists prospered by raising tobacco, for which there was a good market in Europe. By the time of Captain John Smith's death in 1632, Virginia had many thrifty people and many good homes.

Topical Outline. — Smith's boyhood and early adventures. The London Company. The voyage to America and the landing at Jamestown. How the colonists wasted time. Smith captured by the Indians. His clever way of entertaining his captors. Pocahontas. Smith's return to Jamestown. How he governed the colony. His explorations and his map. His return to England, and later life.

For Written Work. — I. Explain how the Jamestown colony might have got along with less suffering. II. Tell of the services of Smith to the colony.

Map Work. — Locate Jamestown, Chickahominy River, Chesapeake Bay.



Piece of armor found
at Jamestown.

POCAHONTAS, THE POWHATAN'S DAUGHTER

OF all the names of friendly Indians, there is none that has such romantic interest as that of Pocahontas. This name, however, so familiar to us, was only a nickname given by the Powhatan to his little daughter. Her real name was Ma-ta-oka. A chief's daughter was always given much more freedom than other girls, and this young girl played with the boys of her tribe, and was so successful in feats of skill that her doting father called her Po-ca-hon-tas (a regular tomboy). The Indians were always reluctant to give their names to strangers, for they believed an enemy would be more successful in conjuring up evil spirits with one's real name. So when the English came to Virginia and heard of the Powhatan's little daughter, they were told her nickname rather than her real name.

Although Pocahontas was the daughter of a chief, her home was not very different from those of other little Indian girls of her tribe. They lived in long, low houses that would accommodate about twenty families. The framework of this long house was made of bent saplings with an arched roof. The whole was covered with sheets of bark nicely matched to keep out wind and rain. A broad central passageway extended through the house from end to end. On each side of this hall-like space were apartments, or stalls, eight feet wide. Here were bunks built against the walls and

spread with deerskin robes, where the members of each family slept. In the passageway, at equal distances apart, were fire pits where the food for four families was cooked, and around which the families gathered in winter to keep warm. The chief's fire was usually in the middle of the long row, and occasionally that fire was not shared by other families. This was the principal distinction enjoyed by the chief, who had been raised to leadership by the choice of the members of the tribe.

Around the house was what we should call the garden and farm. In these fields the Indians raised corn, pumpkins, melons, beans, and tobacco. The crops were tilled entirely by the women. The men and boys were hunters and warriors — never gardeners. The garden work was not very hard as the squaw did it, and in those days there was little housework for Indian women to do. An old Indian once declared, "Squaw love to eat meat; no husband, no meat. Squaw do everything to please husband; he do everything to please squaw; no squaw, no corn. All live happy."

Corn was the staple article of food. Green corn was roasted in the coals, and eaten as a vegetable; and ripe corn was kept for the winter food. The colonists learned from the squaws to make hoe cake, ash cake, and corn pone; to cook hominy, samp, and meal gruel; and to pop corn. The Indian word for popcorn meant, "the corn that flowers." The New England colonists learned from the Indians how to serve a meal of baked beans. It was also from the Indians that the colonists learned to make delicious maple sugar. The hunters shot deer, and caught fish in the autumn and cured them with salt and smoke

and put them away for winter use after the days for hunting had passed.

The bow and arrow ranked highest among Indian weapons. The arrows were tipped with flint, or with the sharp point of a deer horn, or with the spur of a wild turkey. Each hunter had a personal mark on his arrows so he could not only recover them, but always tell whose shot brought down the game. In war this marking of arrows often settled the dispute as to the right to scalplocks. The iron tomahawk, or hatchet, that proved so deadly in

colonial wars was introduced among the Indians by European traders. Before that, the Indians had clubs of hard wood, sometimes edged with flint, and a few stone tomahawks. They showed great skill in making stone mallets and various tools and implements.



Indian quiver with arrows.

The skins of the animals killed for food were carefully dressed, made soft and pliant, and fashioned into all sorts of garments for men, women,

and children. Many of these were artistically trimmed with bead work, fringes, or feather work.

There was in the heart of the Indian much of the play spirit. It is good to think that Indians, old and young, enjoyed games. Some of these were games of strength, skill, or endurance; others were just for pure fun. For

some games the contestants often went through a course of dieting and training, just as college athletes do to-day. Probably the most common game was lacrosse, which was played with a small ball by six or eight players on a side. Each player had a stick that looked much like a long, slender tennis racket. The field was eighty rods across, with a gate of two upright posts at each side. One of these gates belonged to each party, and the contest was to see which party could carry the ball through its own gate. The Indians held tournaments in which they tested their skill in throwing javelins, and in leaping, wrestling, and archery. In winter the game of snow-snakes was very popular. The snakes



Indian runner.

were made of tough hickory, six or seven feet long. The head was turned up like a sleigh runner, and tipped with lead. The game consisted in throwing these snakes so that they would run or slide a great distance over the snow.

A fireside game was played with deer buttons or with peach stones. The game in each case was to take six or eight buttons or stones and throw them to see which

side came up. Whole evenings were spent by Indians sitting flat on the floor around a blanket on which these buttons or stones were thrown. This game was much used for gambling. But the plays in which Pocahontas excelled were making cartwheels and turning handsprings. She had a brother about her age, and doubtless the sturdy little girl developed skill for such sport through love for the little brother playmate. We are told by the secretary of the



Indian boys shooting.

Jamestown colony that "she did get the boyes forth with her into the market place and make them wheele, falling on their hands, turning their heels upward, whome she would followe and wheele so herself all the fort over."

The education of Indian children was a matter of training, to teach them how to do what was expected of them as men and women.

The boy was the future warrior. He was trained to jump, run, swim, and wrestle. At an early age he began to practice with the bow and arrow. The target for practice was often a bunch of grass fastened on the top of a stick. When the boy was seven years old, he was required to keep his first fast. This was an all day's watch upon some high or exposed point. Here, smeared with white clay, he remained alone without food, and called upon his selected Manitou, or spirit, to make him a great warrior.

These fasts continued at regular intervals until he was sixteen, when in a five days' fast in solitude, a dream was supposed to reveal to him some bird or beast that would be his mysterious protector through life. This creature must be hunted and killed by the boy, its skin made into a pouch, or bag, and always worn by him for good luck. The Indian boys were trained to endure all sorts of suffering or torture without a word of complaint. Boys were rarely punished, but were expected to be respectful toward their elders and truthful to all but enemies.

The education of the girl was to prepare her, also, for the work of her life. She early learned to pick up sticks of wood for the fire. She aided in planting corn and in grinding it, and she was the nurse girl for her younger brothers and sisters. The girl was taught to serve the men and boys of the family. As this was the highest aim in the life of the Indian women, no girl considered it a hardship. Much beautiful beadwork was done by Indian girls. They made the wampum belts of little black and white shells. Sometimes a strip of wampum, with designs in different-colored shells, was given when a treaty was made. This wampum was Indian money, and such a belt showed its value as readily as would a belt of gold dollars.



Wampum.

Indians were superstitious and curious. The white men at first awed and interested them. Indian runners rapidly spread the news of the arrival of Europeans in any part of

the country, and every village was eagerly alert to see the strangers.

While Captain John Smith was kept by the Powhatan, the little ten-year-old Pocahontas found him a most interesting curiosity. She was fearless, with the natural inquisitiveness of a girl and of an Indian combined. This paleface was the first she had ever seen. His hair and beard were very funny. His shining clothing was much more wonderful than the deerskin garments familiar to her. His pockets were full of the most beautiful trinkets. Never in her life had Pocahontas seen such curious toys as the captain's compass and his pocketknife. No wonder that the little Indian girl interfered to save him when she saw the warriors threaten to kill him.

Had the captain not found Pocahontas genuinely interesting, he was shrewd enough to know that it was worth while to be kind to her. So when he left the lodge of the Powhatan a few days later, he left a firm friend in the chief's daughter. She long dreamed of the white man and his presents, and in her own willful fashion determined to go to the English settlement to see all the wonders of which he had told her.

Within a year Smith and some other Englishmen again visited the Powhatan. Little Pocahontas was so delighted that she got her girl friends together and entertained the guests with some gay little dances. Her first visit to Jamestown was a curious expedition for a child. Some Indians had been taken prisoners and held by the English. They belonged to the Powhatan's tribe. One day in the autumn of 1608, Pocahontas came to Jamestown and asked for the great captain. He was genuinely glad to see his

little friend, but was almost convulsed with laughter over her stilted little speech "entreating the liberty of certain members of her tribe detained by the captain and his friends." Smith was clever enough to know that Pocahontas had been "coached" for her part by her wily old father, and that she was too valuable a friend to lose. He assured her it gave him great pleasure to grant her wish. He then took her around the village, and delighted her with many curious presents. Needless to say, she returned to her father full of praise for the Englishmen.

After this, Pocahontas was a frequent visitor. Sometimes she came to play with the white children, and at other times she came on important errands. The Indians had become hostile.. Three times they plotted to destroy the great captain and his people, and each time Pocahontas found a way to warn her friends of their danger. One night an appointment had been made for the Indians to bring corn. The captain and a few men had gone to the place of meeting in the woods. They were waiting for the arrival of the Indian porters, when Pocahontas suddenly appeared in breathless haste and warned them, saying, "Be guarded, my father; the corn and the good cheer will come as promised, but even now my father, the Powhatan, is gathering all his power to fall upon you and kill you. If you would live, get away at once." The captain was so grateful to her that he gave her his pocket compass, because that was, above all things, what interested her most. But the Indian girl was wise enough to refuse the gift, for she knew it would betray to her father that she had warned the English whom her father regarded as enemies. The captain and his men hurried back to James-

town and made ready for an attack, and Pocahontas returned to her people, whose plans she had frustrated.

It was not long after this that Captain John Smith returned to England, and Pocahontas felt that the increasing troubles between her people and the white men made

it unsafe for her to visit Jamestown. We hear nothing more about her until four years later, in 1613, when she was treacherously kidnaped by Captain Argall and held as hostage for the friendship of the Powhatan. Although but sixteen, she had been married to a young chief who had been killed in an Indian fight. She was no longer the sturdy little athlete of earlier days, but a dignified Indian widow. She was



Marriage of Pocahontas.

well treated, and soon Master John Rolfe, an industrious young Englishman, became interested in her. He said that he married her for the purpose of converting her to Christianity. Whether that is true or not, he took her to England, where she was received by society as an Indian princess. She met Captain John Smith again while in England. Just as she was to sail for Virginia, in 1617, she suddenly died, leaving one son. John Rolfe in time

returned to Virginia, where he became a most successful grower of tobacco. The little son of Pocahontas grew to be a man, and his descendants intermarried with many of the old families of Virginia who have been important figures in American history. Many people are living to-day who can trace relationship to Pocahontas.

Topical Outline. — The name Pocahontas. Indian food; clothing; weapons; hunting; games; education. Pocahontas and John Smith. Visits to Jamestown. Warnings by Pocahontas. The kidnaping. Marriage to Rolfe. Death.

For Written Work. — I. Pocahontas tells a little English girl of the good things to eat made from corn. II. What Pocahontas thought of England.



Indian papoose.

MILES STANDISH AND THE PILGRIMS

UNTIL the seventeenth century most European countries had a state church, and all people were expected to worship in the manner prescribed by law. England's established church was what we call to-day the Episcopal Church. There were people in England who did not like the forms and ceremonies of this church. They objected to the use of the prayer book, to the minister's wearing a surplice in the pulpit, to the making of the sign of the cross in baptism, and to the use of the ring in the marriage service. They claimed that such forms had no religious value or meaning; that the people should live good lives and worship in any manner they wished. They made an effort to simplify or purify the church, and for this reason were in ridicule called Puritans. They were so conscientious that neither ridicule nor persecution turned them aside from what they thought right.

Some Puritans separated from the Church of England and held services in private houses or in the open air. These were called "Separatists." They were arrested as lawbreakers, and fined or imprisoned. About the time the Jamestown colony was planted, a band of these Separatists from Scrooby went to the city of Leyden, in Holland, where they could enjoy freedom of worship. They stayed in Holland twelve years.

These Pilgrims, as we call the Separatists after they

begin to travel, were mainly farmers, and had difficulty to earn their living in the Dutch city or gardens. Their children were obliged to attend Dutch schools, and were fast losing the use of the English language. The sons of the Pilgrims entered the Dutch army and navy, and the young people began to intermarry. The Pilgrims feared that if they stayed in Holland any longer, their families would become Dutch.



Holland and part of England.

They decided that they would like to go to America. They sent two men to get permission of the London Company to settle on its land. The company was glad to get them for colonists, and gave them a charter of privileges. But it was agreed that the Pilgrims should make a new settlement and not join the Jamestown colony. This was, of course, what the Pilgrims preferred to do. They set sail in the *Speedwell* from Delft Haven, not far from Leyden. In England they were joined by the

Mayflower and a few of their friends, and in August, 1620, the two ships started for the New World. The *Speedwell* proved unseaworthy, and the ships had to return to Plymouth in England. Some passengers were transferred to the *Mayflower*; others were left behind. It was the middle of September before the *Mayflower* sailed away from Plymouth with one hundred and two colonists on board.

The *Mayflower* would be a queer-looking ship to us to-day with her three-decked stern, high forecastle, and



The *Mayflower*.

stumpy masts. The main deck after-house was divided into tiny cabins for the women, and in the deck-house above were the officers' quarters. Between decks were the cabins and bunks for men and boys. The "deck space," or middle of the ship, was so low that the waves frequently broke over and washed

off articles left there. The passengers did not all eat at one table, but each family or group of friends had their meals in picnic fashion. The ship was none too strong, and it carried a very heavy load. It encountered heavy seas and high winds, and many times the Pilgrims feared that their ship would go to pieces. As they approached the coast of North America, they were carried out of their course by the Gulf Stream, and instead of reaching the mouth of the Hudson River, they found themselves off Cape Cod. In November, 1620, after nine weeks at sea, the *Mayflower* entered Cape Cod Bay.

It was an interesting company on board. There were

the master of the ship, his mates, and the crew of rough sailors who cared nothing for a colony. Then there were nineteen women, who had been used to the conveniences of civilized life and comfortable homes. There were forty-four men, and thirty-nine boys and girls of various ages, besides one tiny baby born about the time they reached Cape Cod. Of these men John Carver was the governor; Elder Brewster was the minister; Edward Winslow one of the rich men; William Bradford an influential young man who for many years was governor, and wrote the history of the colony. John Alden was a young carpenter hired to come with the Pilgrims, and Miles Standish was the experienced soldier who trained the men and boys for the defense of the colony. None of these people were very rich, but most of the families brought one or more servants, and all persons, including the minister and the governor, were willing to work.

When the ship entered Cape Cod Bay, the Pilgrims knew the land there was not under the control of the London Company. Some effort was made to go farther south, but the winds were against them, and they decided to settle where they were. As they had no government, Bradford says, "It was thought good there should be an association and agreement that we should combine together in one body and to submit to such government and governors as we should by common consent make and choose." There, in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, was drawn up and signed what is known as the "Mayflower Compact." By this the first civil body politic was organized in America, and government by consent of the governed was first set up. The Pilgrims asked John Carver to continue as their governor.



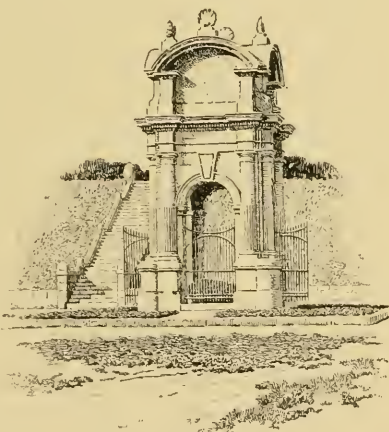
Signing the Mayflower Compact.

Captain Standish formed a company of twenty of the stronger men for his little army. They had no attractive uniforms like modern soldiers, but all wore armor. This consisted of a steel helmet and iron breastplate, or a coat lined with quilted cotton. Their arms were swords and clumsy flintlock muskets. While the *Mayflower* lay at anchor, these men made many explorations on foot and in their shallop, or boat, to find a suitable place to settle. One day they dug into a curious-looking mound and found some weapons and dishes. In another mound they discovered several baskets of corn. This pleased them

greatly, for some of the corn might be used for food, while the rest might be saved for the spring planting.

Finally, near the end of December, they decided on Plymouth as a good place. This harbor is on the mainland opposite Cape Cod, and had some years before been visited and named by Captain John Smith, whose map the Pilgrims had. The men reported that at Plymouth could be found clay for bricks, sand for mortar, stones for chimneys, and trees for logs. Just back from the harbor was a hill where the cannon could be mounted for defense, and a spring of good water was near. The report was eagerly accepted by those waiting on board ship.

It was on December 21 that the exploring party first entered Plymouth harbor. Tradition says that they landed on a rock on the beach. In 1764 the Sons of Liberty of Massachusetts undertook to move this rock back from the beach, where the sea continually washed its sides, and to carry it into the town of Plymouth. The rock broke in two, and only the upper part was carried to the village. Afterwards it was taken back to the shore, where it can be seen to-day with a pretty little shelter built over it.



Plymouth Rock to-day.

The *Mayflower* left her anchorage and crossed to

Plymouth harbor. Everybody had work to do, and gladly did it. Some of the strongest men cut down trees; others began to build houses. Campfires were built every day, for which the children gathered twigs and branches. The women cooked, and washed clothes. In a few weeks seven log houses and a storehouse had been put up. As soon as a house was finished, some of the company stayed in it, instead of returning each night to the *Mayflower*. By the last of February the fort was completed, the four cannon were mounted, and all the supplies were brought from the ship and put into the storehouse.

The weather was very changeable, and the people had to sleep in close and crowded quarters. Many took colds and died of consumption. It was a sad winter. Bradford's wife was drowned early; within a month after landing, Rose Standish, the captain's wife, died. After her death Captain Standish went from house to house helping to care for the sick, sitting up nights so that members of the family could rest. Governor Carver died in April, and William Bradford was then elected governor, which office he held for thirty-seven years. By the end of March, forty-seven of the small band of one hundred and two had died. Nevertheless, when, on the 15th of April, the *Mayflower* returned to England, not one of the Pilgrims went back.

The Indians did not molest the colonists, but watched them closely. One day when Miles Standish and another man left their axes in the woods while they went to dinner, the Indians stole them. Indians were often seen lurking about, but they did not visit the colonists until the middle of March.

Then one day a straight, tall young Indian walked slowly down the one street of Plymouth. He had in one hand a bow, and in the other two arrows. As some of the men approached him, he said in English, "Welcome, Englishmen, welcome!" Naturally the colonists were surprised, and they collected around him. The Indian said that his name was Samoset, and that he had learned to speak their language from the English fishermen on the northeast coast. He was very friendly, and told the colonists many things they wanted to know. One bit of news was that a plague had broken out a few years before among the Indians of the district near Plymouth, and the whole tribe had died, so that there were none to dispute the right of the English to settle there. At night the colonists tried to say farewell to Samoset, but he said that he wished to stay all night. So they gave him food and made him a bed, but they watched him all night for fear he might be an enemy. He slept quietly, and in the morning bade them good-by and promised to come again. They gave him a knife, a bracelet, and a ring, and he went away happy.

In a few days Samoset returned, and this time brought Squanto, another Indian who could speak English. Squanto afterward became a frequent visitor. One day he came with the message that Massasoit, the chief of the Wampanoags, and sixty braves were coming to see the colonists. Captain Miles Standish said, "They must not enter the town!" Squanto carried messages back and forth, and finally Captain Standish decided that Massasoit and twenty unarmed Indians might enter. The arrival was celebrated by the beating of a drum and the blowing of trumpets and

the firing of six muskets. The noise was intended to impress and awe the Indians.

Massasoit was a tall, stately old Indian, dressed in beaver skins, with a string of white stone beads around his neck. His face was dyed a dark red color. Captain Standish, with the governor and Elder Brewster, received Massasoit at the entrance to the town, and conducted him to the council room at the fort, allowing the Indians to look curiously into each of the seven houses on their way. After these friendly greetings and much parade and ceremony on each side, a formal treaty was made by which they agreed to be friends and to help each other in case of need.

The news of this treaty was carried to Massasoit's enemy, Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, who became very angry because the English had made friends with Massasoit. One day some weeks later, an Indian runner came into Plymouth with a bundle of arrows wrapped in a rattlesnake's skin. Squanto explained to Captain Standish what it meant. The captain replied, "If he will have war, let him." He then filled the snake skin with powder and bullets, and said to the messenger, "Tell Canonicus that we do not wish to fight, but if he does, we are ready for him." Canonicus was frightened when he saw the powder and bullets, for Squanto had told the messenger that his English friends kept the plague boxed up, and let it loose when they wished. Canonicus, never having seen powder and bullets, feared they might be a plague. He decided not to fight.

This incident led the colonists to take greater care. Captain Standish required all men and big boys to drill regularly. For a time so many were sick that there were

only twelve in his little army. They built a palisade about the village. They smoothed over the graves of their dead comrades, and early in the spring sowed wheat over them, so that the Indians should not see how many were dead. They never allowed any of their number to go far alone. When they went to the woods to work, they left men in the village on guard, and the workmen took their muskets with them. They followed the same practice in going to



Pilgrims going to church.

church. The musket was leaned up against the pew, ready for use.

Squanto proved very helpful in the spring. He showed the colonists how to catch the fish called alewives, and to plant corn in hills, putting a fish in with the seed because the soil was so poor. He taught them to catch eels and other fish with neither hook nor net. He served as guide on many trips in exploring the coast, and also inland. The summer passed pleasantly, the sick got well, and the weather proved agreeable. The colonists found wild

berries and cherries near, and succeeded in adding much to their store of food.

When autumn came and their crops were gathered, Governor Bradford announced a day for thanksgiving to God for all their mercies. This day was to be one of feasting and religious service. Four or five lusty young men went to the woods and shot wild turkeys, and the Indians brought venison. For days the women were busy baking and making savory dishes for the great feast, when the Pilgrims and Massasoit with ninety warriors ate together. Thus was celebrated the first Thanksgiving Day.

The Pilgrims always treated the Indians so justly that they had little or no trouble. But other Englishmen under Weston came and settled twenty-five miles north of Plymouth. They did not understand that Indians should be treated with the same regard for justice as white men. They tricked and cheated them in trade and thus stirred up bitter hatred for all Englishmen. These new colonists suffered terribly and finally appealed to our friends at Plymouth for help. Captain Standish and eight men went to their assistance. When the Indians learned this, some of them were afraid, but the chief Pecksuot said: "We will kill all of them. We are not afraid of the Little Captain." So they pushed on to the house where Captain Standish and his men had stopped for the night, and called out to him, "Go and live with the women, Little Captain; you are no fighter!" Even Captain Standish could not stand such a taunt, so he came right out to them. One big Indian began to whet his knife, saying, "My knife eats; it does not speak as do your guns." Just then Captain Standish, strong and wiry, if he was short, sprang on Pecksuot and

grabbed his knife and stabbed him with his own weapon. Two other Indians were killed, then the rest scattered in the woods. This was the first time an Indian had been killed by the Pilgrims. Captain Standish felt that it was necessary for the safety of the colonists.

About this time, a ship arrived from England with supplies for the winter and thirty-five new colonists, mostly young men, who were a welcome addition to the fighting force under Captain Standish. During the ten years between 1620 and 1630, they were joined by about three hundred new colonists, among whom were some friends left in Holland, besides relatives and children from England. The first two or three years were years of severe struggle, with sickness and hardships, but after that the Pilgrims prospered greatly. The Pilgrims cultivated the soil, caught and salted fish to ship to Europe, and traded with the Indians for furs. They built comfortable homes and schools. Everybody was expected to go to church, and the fort drum was beaten to announce the time for service.

The Pilgrims cultivated in their gardens the flowers which grew wild in the home country, such as primroses, daffodils, crocuses, bluebells, and foxgloves. They also introduced many medicinal herbs that are but flaunting weeds to-day, such as burdock, tansy, elecampane, pennyroyal, and spearmint.

Captain Standish and a few friends laid out, nine miles north of Plymouth, another town, which he named Duxbury for his old home in England. But whenever there was any trouble, the Pilgrims of Plymouth sent for the captain, and he was ready to help them. Once in 1637 he was called on to lead fifty soldiers from Plymouth in a war

against the Pequots. Many settlements that had grown up round about were greatly troubled by these Indians,



Standish's home at Duxbury.

who resented the encroachments upon their land. They kidnaped children, murdered men working in the woods or fields, and burned crops or buildings. The colonists determined to unite and

put a stop to such deeds, if possible. They raised an army of two hundred and fifty men, part of whom marched on the Pequot village and surrounded it at night. They took possession of the two entrances through the palisade, and set fire to the whole village. Nearly all the Indians there, six or seven hundred, perished. It was a dreadful thing to do, but it freed the colonists of New England from trouble with the Indians for forty years.

Captain Standish married the second time, and had four sons and one daughter. He had a fine house, and was surrounded with good friends. He returned to England on business twice, but each time was glad to get back to New England, where he died October 13, 1655. "He was greatly mourned," says Bradford, "by both Indians and settlers."

Topical Outline. — Puritans and Separatists. Some Separatists from Scrooby go to Holland and are called Pilgrims. Why the Pilgrims left Holland for America. The landing at Plymouth. The great sickness. Visit of Samoset and Squanto. Treaty with Massasoit. Home life at Plymouth. Old age of Miles Standish.

For Written Work.—I. Write a paragraph telling why the Pilgrims did not wish to remain in Holland. II. Describe the life on board the *Mayflower*. III. Describe the first Thanksgiving Day.

Map Work.—Locate Scrooby (map, p. 137); Leyden; Delft Haven; Plymouth in England; Cape Cod (map, p. 153); Plymouth in New England.

Memory Selections.—Hemans, "Landing of the Pilgrims"; Whittier, "The Corn Song."



Relics of Miles Standish.

JOHN WINTHROP AND THE PURITANS

WE recall that the Puritans were people who objected to certain forms and ceremonies of the Church of England. Unlike the Pilgrim Separatists, they remained within the church, hoping in time to "purify" it. As the years passed, they became more critical and bold, and rapidly gained in numbers. King James disliked them, and probably feared their power. When it was reported to him that these Puritans openly refused to conform to the Church of England's regulations, the king declared he would "make them conform, or he would harry them out of the land." As a result of this effort, the English jails filled rapidly with men of wealth, social standing, and blameless lives.

This treatment so embittered the people of the country that they voted for Puritans to sit in the House of Commons. Puritanism then became a great political as well as a religious power. Soon after Charles I became king, it was clearly apparent that no church reforms could be brought about under his arbitrary government. Men in high places professed to believe in "the divine right of kings." This was interpreted to mean that to question the king's authority was like questioning God's authority. Puritan ministers were arrested and thrown into prison. Persecution only strengthened the Puritans. Men saw that war would surely come before the question could ever be settled. Some Puritans preferred to leave the country;

others stayed in England, and a few years later conducted a successful war against King Charles, and set up for a time a government by the people.

Many members of the London Company were Puritans, and in 1624 the king took away their charter. These men had for many years been interested in American colonization, and when the trouble with the king increased, some of them, with other Puritans, decided that the American wilderness was a better place of residence than England. They knew it was necessary to get a charter. They quietly went about their work and drew up one, which the king signed, creating a corporation under the legal style of "the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England." The officers of this company were to be a governor, a deputy governor, and a council of eighteen assistants, to be elected annually by the company. They were given the power to make such laws as they liked for their settlers, provided these were not contrary to England's laws. Nothing was said in the charter about religion, and that left the company free to regulate such matters. The settlers were to enjoy all rights and privileges of English subjects.

The company bought a large tract of land in New England and were given the power to settle and to govern it, and to trade with the natives and with the mother country.

John Winthrop was elected governor. He was at that time about forty years of age, and was a man of great piety and superior education. Governor Winthrop and the other leading members of the company were mostly men of wealth. They agreed to go themselves to New England, and to take the charter and government of the

company there with them. Their preparations were on a large scale, although quietly and secretly made, for they feared that the king might prevent their leaving the country. They sent some agents and servants to New England in 1629 with cattle, farm implements, and seeds. These servants were also to build houses to be ready when the company arrived, but they did little work, and allowed much seed to be wasted and many cows and horses to die of neglect.

Late in March, 1630, a fleet of eleven vessels with a thousand settlers on board sailed for the New World. One of the ships in this fleet was the *Mayflower* that came out ten years before with the band of Pilgrims. Most of the ships, however, were much larger. Governor Winthrop kept a journal, and in it we can read much about that long sea voyage. They were delayed many days in English waters after embarking, and they encountered severe storms on the way. Here is one entry in the journal:—

“Lord’s Day May 2nd. The tempest continued all the day, the sea raged and tossed us exceedingly: yet through God’s mercy we were very comfortable, and few or none sick but had opportunity to keep the Sabbath, and Mr. Phillips preached twice this day.”

On the seventieth day out from England, land was sighted, and on the seventy-sixth day the flagship came to anchor in Massachusetts Bay about five in the morning. Two pieces of ordnance were shot off, and the small boats were lowered into the water ready for landing. About an hour later, Mr. Allerton of Plymouth came up in his shallop. He was on his way up the coast when he saw the friendly ships from England. The Puritan settlers landed

on a beautiful June day when strawberries were ripe and flowers abundant. A hospitable welcome for the newcomers was extended by all the English living along the coast from Salem to Plymouth. A group of houses, in-



cluding the governor's house, had been built near the mouth of the Charles River. The village was called Charlestown.

Governor Winthrop did not like the location, but across the river was an attractive point of land, a club-shaped peninsula on which were three hills. The Indians called it Shaw-mut, but the English called it Tri Mountain, from

which is derived Tremont. On this peninsula the main settlement was made, and named Boston.

Among the colonists were skilled workmen, — carpenters, brickmakers, stone cutters, iron workers, farmers, gardeners, engineers, and surveyors, as well as ministers, teachers, and doctors, and soldiers. They were supplied abundantly with tools, farm implements, seeds and grains, live stock, and military equipment.



Colonial sideboard.

We know from their descendants that they had many luxuries in furniture and table furnishings. They were a highly intelligent band of people, most of the leaders being Oxford and Cambridge University graduates. They were united in race, language, and religion. They were suc-

cessful business men who were willing to sacrifice money for religion. They wished to found a great commonwealth based upon the practice of their religious belief. Within a year another thousand settlers joined them, and several towns were soon laid out.

Governor Winthrop's son, a young man of twenty-two, was drowned the day after the location of Boston was determined on. A very old record gives this account of the sad accident. "The very day on which he went on shore in New England, he and the principal officers of the

ship, walking out to a place now called Northfield, to view the Indians' wigwams, they saw on the other side of the river a small canoe: He would have had one of the company swim over and fetch it, rather than walk several miles on foot, it being very hot weather; but none of the party could swim but himself; and so he plunged in, and as he was swimming over was taken with the cramps a few rods from the shore, and drowned."

In a letter to his wife left behind in England, Governor Winthrop wrote: "God has sorely grieved us by taking our son Henry. I cannot speak further of this subject." In another letter that same month of July, 1630, he says: "Be not discouraged by anything thou shalt hear from hence, for I see no cause to repent of our coming hither, and thou seest God can bring safe hither even the tenderest women and the youngest children. Be sure to be warm clothed and to have a store of fresh provisions,—meal, eggs put up in salt, butter, oatmeal, pease, and fruits,—and a large chest or two, well locked, to keep these provisions in. . . . Remember to come well furnished with linen, woolens, and bedding, as well as candles and soap." From such a list we see that John Winthrop and his friends needed much the same things that make people comfortable to-day.

It is always difficult to estimate in advance the amount of food necessary to keep even a small number of people a year. In those days it was even more difficult because of poor facilities for preserving from decay such articles as are now kept in cold storage. The winter of 1630-1631 was one bordering on famine for the Puritan settlers. Their arrival in June was too late for crops to be raised from seed then planted, so by February their food was

reduced to clams, mussels, groundnuts, and acorns, with a handful of meal each day. We are told that Governor Winthrop gave his last bit of meal to a poor man with a family. Then the governor ordered that a day be set apart "to seek help from the Lord with fasting and prayer." That very February day a ship from England



Arrival of the supply ship.

with a cargo of provisions came in sight. Then a day of thanksgiving was appointed "for the Lord's great mercy in saving us from starvation."

Another occasion for giving thanks was in November, 1631, when the governor's wife and children landed safe from England. The same ship brought the families of several other leading men of the colony. The governor had ready a commodious house in town, besides a country

place of six hundred acres, called Ten Hills, where he was building another house. Winthrop records in his journal that soon after the arrival of his wife, Governor William Bradford came over from Plymouth to pay a visit of congratulation to his much-beloved friend, the governor of Massachusetts, and to extend a welcome to his wife.

Compact little villages were built, and named Boston, Charlestown, Dorchester, Roxbury, and Watertown, all names suggestive of English associations and beloved memories. Each village contained a meetinghouse centrally located, which served as a place for worship and for public meetings. The houses were arranged along one principal street, and the small farms stretched back in the rear. Many men owned larger tracts of land at a distance from town.



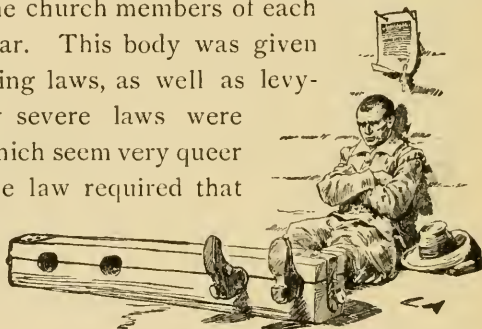
A blockhouse

Each village was defended by a blockhouse in which people might seek refuge in case of an attack by the Indians; some of the villages were also surrounded by a palisade, as was Plymouth. The houses might seem lacking in conveniences of our modern homes, but very early in New England history the houses were built of brick and stone, and had a stately, commodious appearance.

At first all people in the settlements were like-minded on religious subjects. As the colony grew, people of other beliefs came. This made trouble. The Puritans had suffered so much for religious belief, being persecuted at home

and compelled to face the hardships of living in a wilderness for the sake of freedom in worship, that they wanted only people of like mind in their colony. It was decided that only Puritan church members should vote, and this caused trouble with men like Roger Williams, who believed that such restriction was wrong.

At first the governor and his assistants made all laws; later a General Court was created. This consisted of delegates elected by the church members of each township every year. This body was given the power of making laws, as well as levying taxes. Many severe laws were passed, some of which seem very queer to us to-day. One law required that people should dress according to their means; if they wore rich clothing, they



Stocks.

must prove that they could afford it. The records show that one Alice Flynt was accused of wearing a silk hood. She proved that she had two hundred pounds in money, and the complaint was dropped. People that had done wrong were punished by being publicly whipped, or put in the stocks, or a pillory. Oftentimes an offender had to stand in a conspicuous place labeled with the name of his offense. The principal men of the colony said that if the people who came among them found fault with their customs and laws, they might go elsewhere, for the land was large. They believed firmly in education for all. Harvard College was established in 1636, and every colonist was taxed a

measure of corn every year for its support. The Boston Latin School was early founded, and within a few years a printing press was doing good work.

The remarkable success of the Massachusetts colony is largely due to the wisdom of Winthrop, who was governor for the first nineteen years. He was even-tempered and just in his dealings with the colonists, and was especially kind to the poor among his people. One day a man was brought before him charged with stealing wood. Instead of punishing the culprit, Governor Winthrop told him to help himself to the abundant supply of wood the governor had, until the cold season was passed. Winthrop was also a man of temperate habits and would not allow wine to be served at his table, in order that he might set before the colonists an example of sobriety and plain living. John Fiske says: "John Winthrop was a man of remarkable strength and beauty of character, grave and modest, intelligent and scholarlike, intensely religious, and endowed with a moral sensitiveness that was almost morbid, yet liberal withal in his opinions, and charitable in disposition."

In 1692 the older colony of Plymouth was united to the Massachusetts colony. The name Massachusetts was originally taken by English explorers from a tribe of Indians living in that vicinity, and we are told means Blue Hills.

Topical Outline.—Puritans who were not Separatists. The Massachusetts charter. How the colony was planted. Severe laws. Who were allowed to vote. Schools.

For Written Work.—Tell of Mrs Winthrop's preparation to come to America.

Map Work.—Locate Salem, Charlestown, Boston, Cambridge, Dorchester, Watertown.

ROGER WILLIAMS—THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND

AMONG the Puritans there was a young Welsh minister who had a great deal of trouble. His name was Roger Williams, and he was born about 1600. He was a bright boy and was sent to the famous Charter House School, and later to Cambridge University. In some respects Williams outstripped most of his schoolmates. He did not do all kinds of work equally well, but he excelled in language, public speaking, and debating. He did the things he had a taste for, and neglected some things that might have been good training for him.

He was at first a Puritan, but soon became more of a Separatist. As a young man he had a strong objection to making a formal oath ; that is, kissing the Bible and swearing that he was telling the truth. He said he could tell the truth without such a ceremony. It is said that a property of several thousand pounds might have been his, had he been willing to take an oath in the form required by the government of England. This shows us how sincere he was in his beliefs, which were so often contrary to those of the people in authority.

In 1631, very soon after his graduation from Cambridge, he was obliged to flee from England to escape imprisonment for violating the rules of the English Church. He went to Massachusetts, where he had many friends. He

very soon made known his objections to many things in the practice of the Puritans among whom he had come to live. In a sermon one day he said that the government of Massachusetts had no right to require people to go to church. This was shocking to many. They had always been used to such rules, and believed people could not be safely left to choose for themselves whether or not they should go to church. The Massachusetts colony had been planted by Puritans so that they could practice their particular religious beliefs, and they required all people to obey their laws. Roger Williams declared that all religious beliefs should receive protection, and that the government should not make laws regulating religious practice. This is what people in America believe to-day, but at that time a man who taught such things was considered dangerous.

Just as surely as Roger Williams entered a pulpit, he would say something unusual. This would be talked over by men and women, and the more it was talked about, the more serious it became. One day he shocked people by saying he did not believe that the church should require people to return thanks after a meal, besides asking God's blessing on it before they began to eat. He said men should thank God only when they felt thankful, otherwise it was empty form.

In 1634, the Massachusetts people got news from England that the king was likely to take their charter away, and that a general government for all New England was to be formed more strictly according to the king's wishes. This alarmed all the people, and the General Court in September undertook to provide for the public safety. They made military preparations to defend their charter. Train-

bands were drilled, muskets and ammunition were secured, and defenses were strengthened.

The General Court went still further and declared that divine wrath had been provoked by the sins of the people. These sins were the wearing of silver and gold ornaments, laces, and other extravagant things. Laws were passed forbidding these things, as well as ruffs and beaver hats. Slashed clothes were not to be worn "other than one slash in each sleeve and another in the back." "Long hair and other fashions prejudicial to the general good" were forbidden. The use of tobacco socially and in public or before strangers, was made an offense. If it was taken secretly or medicinally, the Court did not object. The Court also set aside the eighteenth day of September as a solemn fast day, when all people should attend church.

Roger Williams preached in one church that day on "Eleven public sins." He said that God's wrath had not been provoked by long hair, slashes, or lace, but by the government's enforcing a religious oath on irreligious people, by their requiring all people to pay a tax to support religious worship, and by allowing only church members to vote. He denounced in this sermon many of the practices that he had previously objected to, and told the people that their peace could be made with God by granting protection to all religions.

This sermon was the beginning of serious trouble. Williams was summoned before the General Court and accused of seditious utterances. He was reprimanded and allowed to go. But soon a little book was circulating, in which Williams said that the land belonged to the Indians; that King Charles had no right to grant it or sell it to any

settlers, for it was not his. The officers feared that the king would deprive them of the land and of their homes if a report of this reached him; they were more afraid of the king than of any one else just then. Williams would not take back what he had said, but continued to say more on the same subject.

The General Court tried him, and sentenced him to banishment on October 9, 1635. He was given six weeks to leave the country. But he was taken sick, and some of his friends asked to have the time extended. The General Court then said he might stay until spring, if he would not preach. This was agreed to, but his friends persisted in going to his home. They often went in large numbers. Roger Williams could not keep still; he talked, and when he talked, it was on those subjects that were vital to him and forbidden by the General Court. This practice became known and the Court wished to get rid of him, so they devised a scheme by which they would seize him and get him on board a ship that was to sail in April for England. Williams got knowledge of this plan, and he fled in midwinter to the Indian country.

The experience of this heroic young man in that midwinter journey of fourteen weeks was very bitter. He felt the necessity of keeping away from the settlements so that the officers of the General Court would not be able to follow him. This made it necessary for him to break his own way through deep, trackless snow. At first he traveled by night, and hid during the day. He tells us in his books that he carried an ax, and when numb with cold would chop wood and kindle a fire. His bed for many days was made of branches cut from pine and other ever-

green trees. When he reached the village of Massasoit, sixty or seventy miles away, he received a cordial welcome.

Roger Williams had always been an excellent language student, and as soon as he reached the New World, he began to study the language of Massasoit's tribe, and soon



Roger Williams travels through the woods.

became an expert in its use. This skill was very useful to him during this winter of exile, for he began at once to teach the Indians of Massasoit's village the essentials of the Christian religion.

In the spring, Williams received a message from Governor Winthrop, advising him to move on toward the Narragansett Bay and intimating that he would be undis-

turbed if he followed this friendly suggestion. He did so, and with five friends who had joined him began to build homes on the east bank of the bay at Seekonk. This was within the jurisdiction of Massasoit, who was an ally of the people of Plymouth, and Williams was soon asked to move from there so as not to disturb the government of Plymouth. Again he patiently picked up his belongings and crossed to the west side of the bay into the territory of the Narragansetts. He bought a tract of land from the Indians and secured their consent to lay out a settlement. This he called Providence, "in gratitude for God's merciful providence to him in his distress." It was not long before he had a home to which his wife and two children could be brought by some friends.

Providence was founded on the principle of full toleration for all religions. Very soon it was the refuge for Quakers and others who were not welcome in Massachusetts. Not only did Providence become a haven for those seeking religious freedom, but it was a place to which many of the turbulent people of Massachusetts and Connecticut came.

The government established was what is called a pure democracy; that is, where all people share directly in making laws. Another group of settlers from Massachusetts, led by Anne Hutchinson, founded Newport on the island at the entrance to the bay. In 1643, Williams went to England and got a charter for both settlements; and twenty years later another charter for the whole of Rhode Island was secured.

Williams' greatest service was in his relations with the Indians. His influence over the Narragansetts prevented

them from making an alliance with the Pequot Indians in their war against the New England colonists (page 148).



Roger Williams and
the Indians.

Roger Williams was a remarkably unselfish and generous man. He never bore any ill will against the people of Massachusetts for their treatment of him, and later in life made many friendly visits to the cities of Boston and Salem. He could

boast of the warm friendship of some of the finest men of the seventeenth century, among whom were Milton and Cromwell. One writer of his time said of him, "Roger Williams is a godly and zealous man, but he has a windmill in his head." It is safe to say that he lived ahead of his

times; in a way he was a prophet.

Williams had a rugged constitution, and at the age of seventy-six, when King Philip's War broke out, he accepted a captain's commission and drilled a company of soldiers at Providence, besides superintending the erection of fortifications for the town. He died at the ripe age of eighty-four.

Topical Outline.—Roger Williams came to America and became a popular preacher. He objected to the law that only church members

could vote. He said that the king of England had no right to the land of New England, for it belonged to the Indians. The government of Massachusetts considered him dangerous and tried to arrest him in order to send him to England. Williams escaped and lived one winter with the Indians. He founded Providence, Rhode Island. He had great influence with the Indians.

Map Work. — Locate Providence and Newport (map, p. 153).



Indian moccasins.

HENRY HUDSON'S EXPLORATIONS

FOR nearly a century after the discovery of America by Columbus, Spain had been foremost among European nations in exploring and conquering the New World. She had established permanent settlements, and had won great wealth from these conquests. But Spain's treatment of her provinces in Central and South America was cruel, for her purpose was to get from them all that she could, and give little in return. By the end of the sixteenth century, however, her power had begun to wane. In a hundred fights, brave sailors like Drake and Hawkins had "sing'd the beard" of the Spanish king, so that finally, in 1588, when the Spanish Armada was defeated by the English in a great naval battle in the English Channel, Spain's control of the New World was greatly weakened.

From this time on, the record of exploration and colonization was written largely by the English, the French, and the Dutch. It is with the Dutch in America that our story now has to deal. Brave little Holland had won independence from Spain and was rapidly becoming one of the great commercial nations of Europe. She had gained possessions in the East Indies, and had developed a profitable trade with them in tea, coffee, and spices. There were then two ocean routes to the Indies—one through the Strait of Magellan, controlled by Spain, and one around the Cape of Good Hope, controlled by Portugal. Both

routes were very long and very dangerous, and both Holland and England were searching for a shorter one to eastern Asia.

Now about this time there was a famous sailor in England, whose name was Henry Hudson. For generations his forefathers had been seafaring men, and his grandfather was one of the founders of the first English company formed for the purpose of trade and exploration. This was called the Muscovy Company. In 1607 and 1608, Henry Hudson, sailing for this London trading company, had made two daring attempts to reach the East Indies by a passage across the Arctic Ocean. He reasoned rightly that such a route would be shorter than the others; but he failed because of the vast amount of floating ice.

However, when he returned to England he found himself famous as a hardy adventurer, for he had sailed within ten degrees of the north pole, farther north than any one else up to that time. Meanwhile, there had been organized in Holland a trading company similar to the Muscovy Company in London, and this Dutch East India Company was anxious to find a man who would sail for them. They made Hudson an offer to command one of their ships. After some hesitancy, since he had received other offers, notably one from the king of France, he entered the employ of this company. They equipped for him a little vessel of eighty tons' burden, clumsily built, and about the size of a small pleasure yacht of to-day; scarcely a ship which we should think of using on an ocean voyage.

In this ship, called the *Half-Moon*, Hudson set sail from Amsterdam, Holland, in a bold effort to reach China and

the Spice Islands by sailing around the north of Europe. This was in April, 1609, not long after the Pilgrims sought refuge in Holland. Early in May, he doubled the North Cape on the coast of Norway; but he soon found the ice floes and the ice barriers so great that it seemed impossible to proceed. Hudson's crew rebelled and refused to go farther on this route, so Hudson turned and



Hudson receives his commission from the Dutch East India Company.

sailed directly west. He had been ordered by the company to return to Holland if he failed to find a northeast passage, but like many other brave men he was not discouraged by the difficulties he had met, and was all the more eager to accomplish the purpose of his expedition.

Hudson had a letter from his friend John Smith, of the Jamestown colony, which he had received just before sailing from Amsterdam. In this letter Smith said that he had explored the coast of America in the region of Chesa-

peake Bay, and that there was no passage to India through this bay; but that he believed there was one farther north. Hudson therefore determined to seek a northwest passage. In a short time he reached Newfoundland, and sailed along the coast of Maine. Here he landed at Penobscot Bay and refitted his little ship. The foremast had been carried away, and the sails were tattered and torn. He cut down a pine tree for the foremast, and otherwise repaired the ship; then he started for the south. He touched at Cape Cod and then, sailing south and west, did not sight land again until he reached Chesapeake Bay. He then turned north and carefully examined the shore until he reached the great harbor which is now known as New York Bay.

He was not the first white man to visit this bay. Eighty-five years before, the Italian explorer Verrazano, sailing under the French flag, had entered New York Bay and had explored it somewhat hastily. It is probable, too, that some time later French traders sailed into the bay and up the Hudson, but as they were traders only, and not explorers, they left little or no record of their explorations.

Hudson spent a few days in New York harbor, and there met Indians who were at first hostile to him. Some of his men, while out in a small boat, were attacked by the Indians, and one of the sailors was killed. Later the Indians became more friendly, or less fearful, and flocked to see the strange white people, bringing with them tobacco and fruit, which they traded for knives and bright beads. Hudson kept his men busy taking soundings and locating the channels, until finally he moved up the river toward the Palisades and into the Catskill country. He believed

and hoped that this was not a river, but a strait. And it is not strange that he was deceived, for the water is salt for many miles up the Hudson, and the tide rises and falls as far as Albany. So Hudson, thinking that he had at last found the Northwest Passage to India, sailed up the river as far as the present city of Albany. Then, as the water grew fresher, he was forced to believe that this was a river, and not a strait connecting the two oceans.

It is interesting to note that during this same summer of 1609, the great French explorer Champlain first entered the present state of New York. As we shall see in a later chapter, Champlain fought a battle with the Iroquois which had far-reaching results, for it made these powerful Indians enemies of the French ever afterward, and always friendly with the Dutch.

Hudson turned again and sailed down the river, landing at several places. At one place, possibly the present city of Catskill, Hudson went ashore with an Indian chief who treated him very cordially and took him to his wigwam, which was a circular hut built of bark. Here a great feast was prepared in his honor. The Indians sent out some of their warriors to hunt game, and they brought in some wild pigeons. As a rare delicacy, also, a fat dog was killed and roasted. In this village the explorers found great stores of Indian corn and beans drying in the sun.

Hudson was very much pleased with the country, and said it was the most delightful land he had ever seen. The Indians were, on the whole, friendly with Hudson; they exchanged their copper ornaments and furs for the trinkets of the sailors. Thus for over a month, in the mellow autumnal sunshine, Hudson and his brave adventurers

explored the great river ; but early in October, warned by the approach of stormy weather, he turned the bluff bows of the *Half-Moon* homeward and sailed directly for England, landing at a point known as Dartmouth.

From here Hudson sent a report of his discoveries to Holland, and asked for men and money to equip a new ship to make further explorations. The Dutch company



From an old print.

The Half-Moon on the Hudson.

received his reports, and asked him to come to Holland to make a personal statement of his adventures. The king of England, however, thought that if there were going to be any further discoveries by Hudson, they should be under the English flag, and he refused to let Hudson go to Holland. So the next spring the great navigator set sail again for the west in an English ship manned by English sailors. He entered and explored the great bay which bears his name.

In the early fall of 1610 his ship was locked in the ice floes of this bay, and remained so until the spring of 1611. Hudson wished to continue his explorations, for he believed that he had at last found a strait connecting the Atlantic and the Pacific, but the crew grew mutinous. There was on the ship a young man whom Hudson had befriended. This ungrateful wretch led the mutiny, and as a result, Hudson with his young son and seven sailors who were ill were set adrift in a small boat upon that desolate sea, while the rest of the cowardly crew set sail for England. When they reached there they were promptly arrested, and some of them hanged. A ship was sent out from England to rescue Hudson, but he was never found.

Of all the great-hearted adventurers who sought a north-west passage to the Indies, Hudson is doubtless the greatest. He failed in his attempt, but he accomplished far-reaching results. He discovered new coasts, and he found a mighty river and a great sea, whose names will forever remind us of his daring deeds. He won for the Dutch a new and fertile country, and laid for them and for their English successors the foundation of that extensive and profitable trade in furs which was for two centuries one of their chief sources of wealth and commercial prosperity.

Topical Outline. — Spain's waning power. Other nations interested in explorations. Why the Dutch wanted a new route to Asia. The voyage in the *Half-Moon*. Description of the voyage up Hudson River. Return to Europe. Interference of English king. English expedition to Hudson Bay. Tragic ending of Hudson's life. What he accomplished.

Map Work. — Locate Holland (map, p. 18), Norway, North Cape, Hudson River, (map, p. 175), Fort Orange (Albany), Hudson Bay (p. 37). Trace the two routes known at this time by which the Dutch could sail from Holland to the East Indies.

PETER MINUIT—A DUTCH COLONY IN THE NEW WORLD

WHEN the reports of the pleasant land which Hudson had discovered reached Holland, the Dutch were much pleased, for they saw that great profits could be made from the fur trade. In the next few years several ships were sent over to trade with the Indians, and they usually returned laden with choice cargoes of furs. One of these traders, Captain Adrian Block, lost his ship by fire soon after reaching Manhattan Island, and was compelled to pass the winter of



New Netherland.

1613-1614 on this island. The log huts which sheltered his men there were the first houses built by white people on the spot where New York city now stands. In the spring, he and his companions explored the rivers and bays in the vicinity.

The Dutch East India Company cared chiefly for its possessions in the far East, and when no western passage to the Indies was found through the new continent, its directors lost interest in further explorations. However, a few shrewd merchants in Amsterdam determined to profit by the rich trade in furs which they foresaw could be established, so they formed a new company which they called the New Netherland Company.

The agents of this company began at once to establish trading posts along the Hudson River and on Long Island. The first one was located on Manhattan Island, where Block and his men had passed the winter. Another was built on the remains of an old French fort just below the present city of Albany. But the little garrison soon found that the place was not suitable, and the post was moved to a new location which the Indians had named "Tawasentha" or "the abode of the dead." Here a great treaty was made with the chiefs of the Iroquois, by which the Dutch agreed to give the Indians powder and muskets in exchange for furs and skins. This solemn pledge of friendship and league of peace was never broken, and the Indian allies for many years afterward protected the Dutch from the French and Indians in Canada.

Later this post also was abandoned, and a new location chosen on the hills within the present limits of the city of Albany. The new fort was called Fort Orange, and it

soon grew to be an important trading post, for it stood near the junction of the Hudson and Mohawk rivers, great natural roads of commerce.

As the fur trade grew rapidly, it was thought best in Holland to form another company with greater powers, so in 1621 the government chartered the West India Company, and gave it exclusive control in America. In 1623, a ship-



The purchase of Manhattan.

load of colonists came over and settled in the vicinity of New York Bay. It soon became evident that the company should have some officer to represent it in this new territory, so in 1626 Peter Minuit was sent over as governor.

Minuit was a wise and good man, of firm temper, and active and fair in his dealings. One of his first acts was to call the Indians together and purchase from them the island of Manhattan. He paid them for this island, in beads,

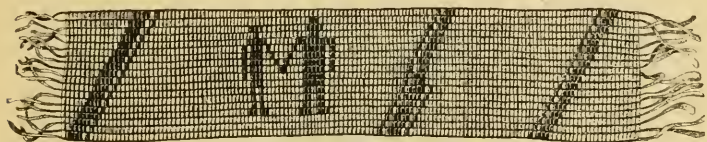
ribbons, and other things, about twenty-four dollars (a fair price at that time), and established friendly relations with them. - Soon there grew up on the island a little settlement which he called New Amsterdam. A windmill was built for grinding corn, a storehouse and a little Dutch church soon followed, and to protect the village, a log fort was erected on the lower end of the island.

But the colony grew slowly, and the company found it necessary to adopt some plan to encourage farmers to come to New Netherland. This was the beginning of what is known as the patroon system of land grants. Any one who would bring fifty people to the colony was given a tract of land sixteen miles on one side, or eight miles on both sides of a river. The patroon had to purchase the land from the Indians, furnish his colonists with farming tools and stock, and provide a minister and schoolmaster for the estate. Each farmer, in return, had to pay to his landlord, the patroon, a fixed rent, and had to agree to live on the estate a certain number of years. His grain had to be ground at the patroon's mill, and he could hunt and fish only by the consent of the patroon. In this way many people were induced to emigrate, and there soon sprang up along the Hudson River and on the shores of Long Island many thrifty little villages.

You may like to know how these houses looked. They were built partly of wood, and partly of yellow and black bricks brought over from Holland and arranged like checkerboards. They had steep gable roofs, and usually on the top of each was a weathercock, for the honest Dutch farmers liked to know in which direction the wind was blowing. Inside, the living room, with its fireplace

and its shining rows of pewter plates, was cozy and comfortable. The floors were sanded, for there were no carpets in those days, and everything was kept sweet and clean, for the women were thrifty housekeepers. Outside were bright tulip beds and gardens which were the pride of the farmer and his wife.

Minuit was friendly and just in his dealings with the Indians, and they liked to come to the settlements to trade. Sometimes, when money was scarce, beaver skins and wampum were used in its place to purchase goods. This wampum was a kind of money which the Indians used; it consisted of strings of beads made from shells. The Indians made use of it, also, in another important way. They could neither read nor write as we do now, but they needed some way to send messages or to keep record



Wampum belt.

of their treaties, so wampum belts were woven from these strings of bright-colored beads, and were sent from tribe to tribe as we send letters to-day. Some of these treaty belts may be seen to-day in the State Capitol at Albany.

Minuit took other measures to make the colony prosperous. He soon established a thriving trade in lumber, and encouraged the building of ships. One of these ships was the largest that had been built up to this time in America. But in these enterprises Minuit used money that the directors of the West India Company thought

ought to come into their pockets. It was thought, also, that Minuit favored the patroons, who had been forbidden to engage in the fur trade, but who had quietly won their share of it, so he was recalled to Holland and a new governor sent over in his place.

The colony had prospered under his wise and honest rule, and he was, on the whole, the best of the four Dutch governors.

Topical Outline.—The Dutch in New York. First settlement at New Amsterdam. Other towns settled by the Dutch. Peter Minuit and purchase of Manhattan Island. Friendly relations with the Indians. The fur trade and the use of wampum. Establishment of the patroon system. Description of Dutch homes. Prosperity of the colony.

For Written Work. — I. Describe a Dutch home in New Amsterdam. II. Write a paragraph about the patroon system.



Dutch women.

PETER STUYVESANT, THE LAST OF THE DUTCH GOVERNORS

DURING the next fourteen years the colony of New Netherland had a hard struggle for existence. Its affairs were managed by two governors who were neither honest nor capable. They were constantly in trouble with some of the neighboring tribes of Indians, whom they treated unfairly and often cruelly. But in 1647 the West India Company sent as governor a man who had proved his efficiency by long years of faithful service. Peter Stuyvesant was a man of good education, brave and honest, and loyal to the interests of his employers, but he was hot-tempered and harsh in his dealings with those who he thought were his inferiors. Because of this he was unpopular, and his enemies called him "Headstrong Peter." He had lost a leg in the wars, and now stumped proudly about on a wooden one, laced with silver bands. This gave him the name of "Old Silverleg."

When he reached New Amsterdam, he found plenty of work to do. The little village was just recovering from the terrors of a long and bloody Indian war. The former governor, Kieft, had unwisely sought to punish the Raritan Indians for some inroads on the Dutch farms. In revenge, the Raritans attacked the settlements and killed several men. Then Kieft offered a reward for the head of every Raritan, and this meant war. A few years later,

some Indians, fleeing from their Iroquois enemies, sought refuge among the Dutch near New Amsterdam. These defenseless Indians, by Kieft's orders, were ruthlessly



Stuyvesant at New Amsterdam.

slain. As a result of this cruel act the whole colony was plunged into war. Twelve or more Indian tribes were in arms, and before peace was declared 1600 Indians had been killed and the Dutch had suffered great loss of life and property.

Stuyvesant not only had to repair the damage done by this unnecessary war, but he had also to meet and check encroachments of another kind on the colony. On the east, emigrants from

New England had already settled the fertile Connecticut valley, and were crowding into Long Island. The Dutch, however, claimed that they owned all the land between the Connecticut and Delaware rivers. In order to settle this claim, Stuyvesant met the English at Hartford, and after

much argument agreed with them that the boundary line between Connecticut and New Netherland should be ten miles east of the Hudson River.

On the south, also, there had grown up a little Swedish settlement on the west bank of the Delaware River and Bay. This had been made by some colonists from Sweden sent out under the leadership of Peter Minuit, who, we remember, had served as the first Dutch governor of New Netherland. The Swedes bought the land from the Indians and built on the west shore of the Delaware River a fort which they called Christina in honor of the queen of Sweden.

The Dutch, meantime, had built a fort near the Swedish settlement and on the territory which the Swedes claimed. This fort was soon captured by the Swedes. Stuyvesant now made up his mind either to drive these Swedish settlers from the territory, which he claimed, or to seize the Swedish colony and annex it to his own. Accordingly, with a fleet of six vessels and seven hundred men, he set out to punish the Swedes, and was so successful that he captured both forts and joined New Sweden to New Netherland.

While Stuyvesant was absent on this expedition, an Indian uprising occurred which came very near destroying the little settlement of New Amsterdam. As it was, the villages surrounding the settlement were burned, and many lives lost. By tact, good judgment, and firmness Stuyvesant succeeded in averting a serious Indian war.

We see that in his relations with outsiders Stuyvesant was usually successful, but in his dealings with his own people he always had more or less trouble. Disputes were constantly arising between him and some of the rich

patroons who refused to be as obedient and humble as he thought they ought. Then there were in the colony a considerable number of foreigners, principally English, who had come over from New England. These men were constantly telling how much more liberty the governors of New England colonies gave the people, and as a result a large part of the population were restless and continued to demand a voice in the government.



The city of New Amsterdam.

Stuyvesant yielded in a measure to these demands and formed a council to assist him in governing the colony. The people were allowed to elect eighteen counsellors, from whom Stuyvesant chose nine men to advise with him. There had been in Kieft's time somewhat similar committees, but they did not have as much influence in the affairs of the colony as did this Council of Nine. In 1653, New Amsterdam was incorporated as a city. It

had at this time a population of about fifteen hundred, and occupied the lower part of Manhattan Island, below what is now known as Wall Street. This street takes its name from the palisade, or wall, which the Dutch built across the island as a protection against the Indians. Two other streets that are still in existence are Broad Street, which in that time was partly a canal, on the banks of which the houses of the best people were built, and Broadway, now the great commercial street of the city. The street now known as the Bowery was the lane leading up from Governor Stuyvesant's house to his farm.

During the time that the Dutch colony of New Netherland was slowly but surely growing, the English were watching jealously its prosperity. They had settlements on both sides of the colony, and felt that it would not be wise to allow the Dutch to build up a strong settlement in the midst of their territory. Accordingly, the king of England gave to his brother, James, Duke of York, the territory which the Dutch had occupied and which, by right of discovery, settlement, and purchase, really belonged to them.

In 1664, while England and Holland were at peace, James secretly sent an English fleet to capture New Amsterdam. When this fleet appeared in the harbor and sent a summons to the Dutch to surrender, Stuyvesant stormed about and swore that he would not yield the fort under any conditions. But the settlers of New Amsterdam, both Dutch and English, believed they would have greater liberties and smaller taxes under an English governor, so they refused to aid Stuyvesant in defending the place. Much to the gallant old soldier's disgust, he was obliged to

surrender New Amsterdam without striking a blow in its defense.

The English made some changes in the names of the towns. New Amsterdam they called New York; Fort Orange, Albany; and Esopus, Kingston. The colony of New Netherland was divided and known hereafter as the colonies of New York and New Jersey.

After the surrender, Stuyvesant sailed for Holland and gave the company a report of his service as governor. He then returned to New York and settled on his farm in the upper part of the city, where he lived until 1672. He was buried in St. Mark's Church, where you can see a tablet erected in his memory.

Topical Outline. — Character of Stuyvesant. His nicknames. Troubles of the colony; the Swedes in Delaware, and the English in Connecticut. Land claims and boundary disputes. Dissatisfaction in the colony, and growth of the spirit of liberty. Council of nine men. City of New Amsterdam incorporated. Description of the city. English expedition against New Amsterdam, and surrender of Stuyvesant. Last years of Stuyvesant's life.

Map Work. — Trace the boundaries of New Netherland (map, p. 175).

JACQUES CARTIER — FRENCH EXPLORATION IN CANADA

ON the northwestern coast of France, on a point of land jutting out into the English Channel, is the old seaport town of St. Malo. In this town lived a sturdy race of people who became the most famous of the seamen of France. Here, in 1494, was born Jacques Cartier.

For many years, Norman and Breton fishermen frequented the coast of Newfoundland, bringing back to France shiploads of codfish. Reports of the remarkable success of the Spanish in getting gold from the New World had reached France. The desire to get a foothold in this country of vast wealth, the desire to extend the dominions of France, and greater still, the desire to convert the heathen inhabitants of America to the Catholic faith, led to an exploration for possession.

On April 20, 1534, Cartier with two ships and one hundred and twenty-two men sailed for Newfoundland. The voyage was so prosperous that they reached the island May 10, so early that the ice and snow had not yet disappeared. He sailed around among the islands, and later described the country as "nothing but frightful rocks and barren lands inhabited by men well-made, who wore their hair tied on top of their head, like a bundle of hay, with birds' feathers stuck in." He crossed over to the mainland on the west, and landed at Gaspé (map, p. 199).

Here he planted a cross thirty feet high, on which was hung a shield with the arms of France and the words "*Vive le Roi*," "Long live the King."

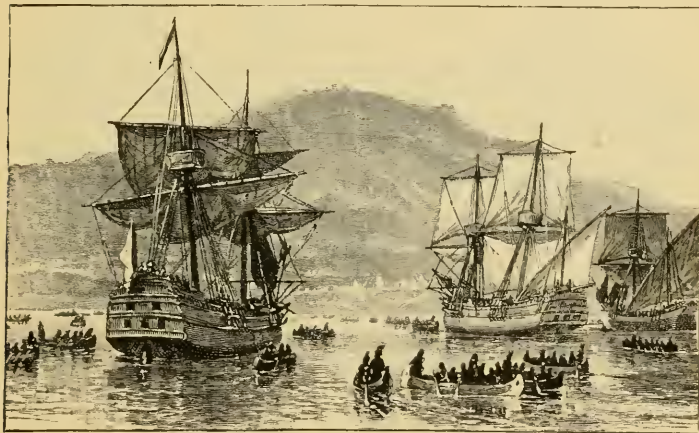
He further explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and believed that this was the entrance to the much-sought-for Northwest Passage to India. But the autumnal storms warned him that his fleet was not prepared for the severity of a northern winter, so he returned to France, taking with him two young Indians to be trained as interpreters. His report was satisfactory to the king, and preparations were made on a larger scale for another expedition.

It was decided that efforts should be made to open a fur trade with the Indians, so trading posts were to be established. Priests were also to go to convert the Indians. On May 19, 1535, after a most solemn religious service in the cathedral of St. Malo, Cartier sailed again for Newfoundland. For many days the fleet was scattered by a furious tempest, but finally all entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence in safety.

With the aid of their two young Indians, who acted as pilots, they sailed up the great river, and one September day they entered a gloomy gorge. On one side was a towering cliff; on another side was a densely wooded shore, where the trees hung thick with grapevines loaded with ripe fruit. The Indians came swarming from the shores, and paddled about the ships in their canoes. They eagerly clambered to the decks and gazed in bewilderment at the white-faced strangers, and at the two Indians who had been to France. Cartier received them kindly, listened to the speech of the great chief Donnacona, and gave them bread and wine.

Afterward Cartier went on up the river to the great promontory where now stands the city of Quebec. Here was an Indian hamlet called Stadacone. The Frenchmen landed and climbed up the rocks and passed through the forest to the group of bark cabins to repay the visit of Donnacona.

Cartier soon learned that Stadacone was not the greatest city on the river, but that some miles upstream was



Cartier landing at Hochelaga.

Hochelaga, famous the country through. Cartier made ready to visit it. Donnacona and his men tried to prevent him, for they feared that a more important trade would be established with the stronger tribes up the river, if the French were allowed to go.

Cartier, with fifty men, however, started for Hochelaga, on the present site of Montreal, where he landed October 2.

A thousand Indians thronged the shore, wild with

delight. They sang, and danced, and crowded around the Frenchmen, offering presents. At night they built hundreds of fires and danced around them. An Indian path led from the shore through the forest, to the village of Hochelaga. Cartier and his men marched along in military array. They soon met an Indian chief with his attendants in gala dress, who welcomed the Frenchmen with great ceremony. Resuming their march, they passed fields of ripened Indian corn, and forest trees rich with autumnal foliage.

Suddenly they came upon the town, the palisade of which was made of three rows of growing trees. The middle row stood upright; the other two were inclined and crossed above it. This wall had but one gate. Along the inside of the wall was a gallery reached by ladders. Here were piles of stones to be used by the Indians in defense. They could stand on the platform, and, protected by the branches and limbs of the trees, throw the stones on any attacking party.

The Frenchmen marched through the gate. Within were fifty long, low cabins, arranged around an open space. Their frames were made of bent saplings, and they were covered with sheets of bark and skins. Each of these cabins contained several families. Cartier and his men halted in the open space, and from the cabins swarmed hundreds of women and children. They crowded about the Frenchmen, chattering with delight. Apparently, they had never seen anything so wonderful as these men with white faces, and beards, and shining armor and weapons.

After the curiosity of the women was satisfied, they were

sent back toward their cabins. The warriors then sat down around the Frenchmen, and when all were seated, an old chief was borne into the circle. He was paralyzed. Pointing to his helpless body, he asked Cartier to heal him. Then from all the cabins the sick, lame, and blind were brought forth and placed before the French-



The Indians welcome Cartier.

man, the Indians shouting meanwhile that "God had come to heal them."

Cartier's skill did not extend so far as healing the sick, but he recited for them a portion of St. John's Gospel and muttered prayers over them. The Indians sat around in grave silence until Cartier finished; then gifts were exchanged — knives were given to the men, beads to the women, and little tin lambs to the children. The French trumpeters blew a blast, and the Indians were delighted

with the sound. Then, bidding their hosts farewell, the visitors marched through the gate. A troop of Indians followed to guide them to the top of the neighboring mountain. The view was so glorious that Cartier called the height Mount Royal, from which we have the name Montreal.

The French then returned to their camp near Stadacone, where they spent the winter. This winter was more severe than any before known to them. The river was frozen, and the drifts of snow rose above the sides of their ships. Yet in the bitter weather the Indians came half naked through the snow to the camp.

At length a terrible sickness, called scurvy, seized the Frenchmen, and ninety-five died. No medicines that they had gave any relief. After many weeks Cartier, while talking with an old Indian who had just recovered from the disease, learned of a remedy. This was a tea made from the leaves of a tree called *amedá*. The sick men drank of this, and soon they became well.

When the ice left the river, Cartier prepared to return to France. He had not found gold, nor had he found the Northwest Passage to India, but he had found a country whose rich furs could be obtained in exchange for cheap trinkets. The Indians, like those of the South, told stories of great cities and gold farther inland. Cartier may not have believed them, but he decided to take the chief of Stadacone back to tell these stories of marvelous riches to the king of France. Donnacona was not asked whether he wished to go, but he and some of his men were seized and taken on board ship against their will. The French then sailed away and reached home in July, 1536. The Indians

were baptized soon after reaching France, and were well treated, but they lived only four or five years.

It was not until 1541 that another expedition went out; this was under the patronage of Roberval, and Cartier was captain-general. The king ordered that the crews of the ships should be made up of criminals from the prisons of France. Other criminals were to be sent as settlers to Canada. They proved to be a lawless band of adventurers, from whom no good results could possibly come.

When Cartier returned to Stadacone, the Indians demanded their chief. Cartier told them that Donnacona was dead, but he also told them that the other Indians were living in great state in France. They distrusted him, and when he went on up to Hochelaga they killed in revenge the men left at the French camp.

From that time Cartier met only misfortune. The men were not the proper material for a colony. The Indians were unfriendly. He found that his patron Roberval treated him only as a subordinate to be ordered about, when Cartier's own experience had been such that he often knew better than Roberval what should be done. He became dissatisfied and returned to France. After one more voyage in the year 1543, he went back to his birthplace, St. Malo, and lived there quietly on his fine country estate.

By these expeditions of Cartier, France laid claim to all that part of North America drained by the St. Lawrence River. No permanent settlement was made until fifty years later, but fishing and fur trading were extensively carried on by the French in the great empire across the sea.

Topical Outline.— Birthplace of Cartier. Breton fishermen near Newfoundland. Cartier's first and second voyages to America. What he found. Fur trade with the Indians. Stadacone and Hochelaga. The severe winter. The Indians taken back to France. The land claimed by France. The third voyage.

For Written Work.— I. Describe the Indian reception of Cartier at Hochelaga. II. Write what Donnacona thought of life in France.



French flintlock pistol and powder horn.

CHAMPLAIN, THE FOUNDER OF NEW FRANCE

It was just twenty-five years after Cartier's last voyage when Samuel de Champlain was born. His birthplace was a small seaport called Brouage in the southwestern part of France. The harbor of Brouage was one of the best in Europe, and was frequented by the merchant vessels of all nations. The people of the town were largely well-to-do sailor folk.

Champlain's father was the owner of fishing vessels, and his uncles, also, were seafaring men. Champlain tells us in his books that as a young boy he loved the wharves and the shipping.



Champlain.

Often his father took him on short trips, and taught him how to manage the ships, to take soundings, and to read the compass. There was a military garrison in the town, and the boys had no end of pleasure in learning about the fortifications and the use of fire-arms.

The work and pleasure of a soldier's life became as familiar to Champlain as the work and pleasure of a sailor's life. His boyhood was crowded with events of stirring interest, and doubtless there were days when he did not know which of the delightful occupations he preferred. But at the age of twenty, circumstances led him to join

the army; civil war was raging in France, and lasted for nine years after Champlain entered the service. He won promotion by brave and faithful conduct, and developed into a strong, well-built, self-reliant man.

After the war was over, Champlain went back to his birth-place, but he soon realized that he had outgrown the little town. He wanted a field for greater activity. Fortunately for him and for the world since, an uncle of his was about to go to Spain with a fleet of merchant vessels. Spain was then at the height of her prosperity. Champlain knew of the successful trips of the Spanish explorers to the New World, and was very eager to get a chance to sail with them.

It was in August, 1598, that Champlain, in the service of his uncle, left France and went to Spain. After the first business was finished, his uncle gave him command of one of his best ships, the *St. Julian*, and he engaged to go to the West Indies to carry supplies for some Spanish settlements and bring back a cargo of New World products. He began to keep a diary when he first left France, and he wrote down his interesting adventures, which scholars can read to-day.

The transatlantic voyage began in January, 1599. The fleet visited the West Indies and then the Venezuelan coast, where Champlain was greatly interested in the pearl fisheries.

He often went ashore, and always made friends with the natives. He made maps and drawings of all unfamiliar objects. He tasted the strange fruits, and described them in his diary. He visited Mexico, and described minutely the city of Mexico, which he called a beautiful city, "with splendid temples and palaces; the streets well laid out."

He crossed the Isthmus of Panama, and recorded in his diary that a canal might be cut that would shorten the water route from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Finally, in 1601, the richly laden fleet returned to Spain. For his services and the use of his ship he was paid eight thousand dollars.

Champlain then returned to France. He had now been both soldier and sailor, and was still a young man a little over thirty. He had written out carefully the story of his trip, and had illustrated it with colored drawings. This report included a description of the countries, the routes, products, and resources, and the Spanish methods of colonizing and of treasure getting. It included accounts of the Spaniards' strength and weakness, information most carefully guarded by them heretofore and most valuable to the king of France.

The king was quick to appreciate this information, and he settled upon Champlain an income sufficient for him to live at court the rest of his life. Champlain was much sought in society, and came in contact with the leading men of France. For a time the life was attractive, but soon the restless spirit of the man of action took hold of him. Some men for years had been agitating the question of colonization: France needed a foothold in the New World; Champlain was just the man to attempt such work.

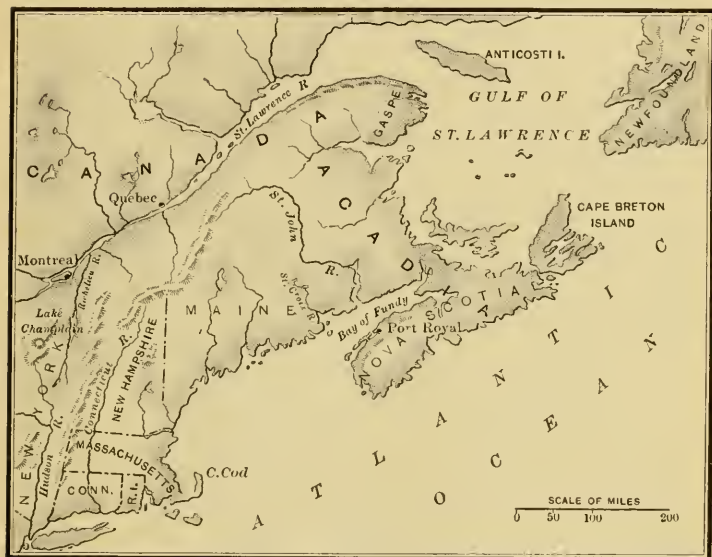
Shortly after Columbus discovered America, the Pope drew a line one hundred leagues west of the Azores and decreed that all new lands west of this should belong to Spain, and all east to Portugal. This line was afterwards shifted to three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands (see map, p. 37). When the king of France heard of this, he said: "Show me the clause in the

will of Father Adam which divides America between you and excludes the French." The French were determined to have a share in the New World, and as early as 1524 they sent out Verrazano, who explored the middle section of the Atlantic coast. Ten years later they sent out Cartier, of whose explorations we have just read. An unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony on the coast of Carolina was made by Ribaut about 1560. But now the sixteenth century had passed, and France had no firm hold on any of America.

On March 13, 1603, Champlain set sail with a small fleet for Newfoundland. He had on board two Indians who had been brought by some of the fishermen, and who could serve as interpreters. On the voyage Champlain learned from them much of the Algonquin language, so he was able to talk with the natives with some ease. On reaching the Gulf of St. Lawrence, they followed Cartier's route up the river. One day they approached a place on the river where the cliffs on the bank towered high, and the river became much narrower. The Indians called it Kebec, which meant "narrowing." Here Cartier had found the Indian village Stadacone, but no trace of it remained when Champlain came sixty-eight years later. It was here that Champlain afterward laid out the first permanent settlement of France, known to us as Quebec. The exploration of the river was continued, and the site of Hochelaga was visited, but only wilderness and forest were there. The Indians, whose city Cartier had visited, had either gone elsewhere or had been captured by another tribe.

The Indians were so delighted that Champlain could talk in their language that they were friendly and com-

municative. They told him of the great body of water to the west, meaning Lake Ontario. The Frenchmen hoped that this might be the Pacific Ocean, and that the St. Lawrence River was the much-looked-for Northwest Passage. But further explorations could not be made until the



Canada and Acadia.

next year. So, late in August, with their ships well loaded with choice furs, Champlain and his men sailed for home.

Champlain very soon afterward rewrote his diary, adding to it a most interesting description of the manners and customs of the Indians whom he had met, and published the book under the title of "The Savages." This book was very popular, and won support to the cause of a French settlement.

In March, 1604, Champlain sailed for the second time

to North America. This time he explored the coast of Nova Scotia, and crossed the Bay of Fundy to an island at the mouth of the St. Croix River. Here the Frenchmen decided to plant a fort and colony. It was midsummer, and the country was beautiful. They landed, and all hands began cutting down trees. Soon four good log houses were built, besides a fort and a storehouse. When the camp was completed, the ships returned to France to bring back fresh supplies next spring. Seventy-nine men remained at St. Croix for the winter, which was a most severe one. The houses were not warm, fuel became scarce, and fresh water hard to get. The storms of sleet and snow lasted for five long months. Much of the time the men could not keep their food from freezing, and they were numbed with cold whenever they attempted to work outside of shelter. The terrible disease from which so many of Cartier's men suffered broke out, and thirty-five men died, and twenty others were very sick when the ships with fresh food returned from France in June. This winter was long remembered, and few others in history have a record of greater hardships.

Soon after the ships returned, Champlain started on a trip of exploration southward along the coast of New England to find a place more suitable for a settlement. He made a map of this coast, but did not find a place that seemed attractive for a colony. On the shore of Nova Scotia, across the Bay of Fundy from St. Croix, was another harbor that seemed more sheltered, and the men that summer planted Port Royal. They built their houses better, and placed them in the shelter of trees and hills to prevent the suffering of the winter just passed.

The second winter proved less severe. Champlain had learned that the men needed fresh meat in order to keep well, so he formed a society of fifteen of the strong men



The Order of Mirth.

and best hunters, and called it the "Order of Mirth." These men took turns in being Grand Master, and the one who held the office and wore the chain of the order for the day had to provide the day's dinner. He might

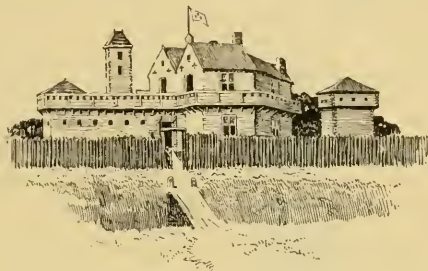
hunt, fish, or buy from the Indians; the one condition required was that the meat for the dinner must be fresh. When dinner time came, the men formed a procession. The Grand Master led the way, followed by the other fourteen members of the Order of Mirth; then came the rest of the company. Usually as they marched to the table, they sang French songs, and during the dinner they told stories and cracked jokes. At the close of the meal the Grand Master placed the badge of the order around the neck of the man whose turn it was to serve the next day. This winter the men kept fairly well. Many days during the winter they could work out of doors, and in a short time they had erected several houses; they had a water mill for cutting logs, a brick kiln, and a furnace for melting the gum and resin used in shipbuilding. Champlain planted a garden every spring.

Three years passed, and in 1607 Champlain went to France on important business. He was made governor and returned to America in the spring of 1608. This time the outgoing vessels carried a full stock of supplies. There were trinkets for the Indian trade, comfortable furniture and clothing, shovels and saws for the use of colonists and workmen. Carpenters, masons, locksmiths, and shipbuilders were taken along.

Champlain had for some time disliked the location of the colonies of St. Croix and Port Royal. He believed that the St. Lawrence River was the better place for settlement. His position as governor now gave him power to carry out his own ideas. On July 3, 1608, the new colonists and the old ones landed on the site of Quebec. The men went to work cutting down trees and preparing

the timbers for building. Work was going along finely, when some one revealed to Champlain that a few dissatisfied men, led by Duval, a locksmith, had plotted to kill him. Champlain, in a cool, businesslike way, appointed men to examine the suspected persons. Evidence was found showing that Duval had formed plans for the murder of Champlain. The jury sentenced him, after fair trial, to be hanged. Champlain pardoned the others implicated, after a severe reprimand.

By November three snugly built houses and a storehouse were completed. These stood



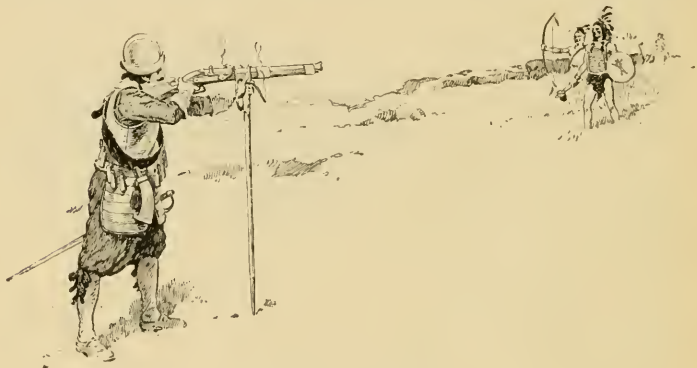
The blockhouse at Quebec.

within an inclosure in which several cannon were mounted. In spite of most careful preparations, the colonists suffered terribly from cold and sickness that first winter in Quebec, and only eight of the twenty-eight were alive when spring came.

Champlain was urged to go with a number of friendly Algonquin Indians on an exploring trip south. The Indians were to act as guides, and he was to aid them in a campaign against their enemies, the Iroquois. It looked like a fair bargain to Champlain, for the Algonquins near Quebec had been very useful to him. A small band of Indians, with Champlain and two other Frenchmen, started south and joined some Huron allies; all together there were sixty Indians and three Frenchmen. They paddled up the Richelieu River, and after a few days they came to

a "large lake filled with beautiful islands and with a fine country surrounding it." This lake is to-day known as Lake Champlain. In twenty-four canoes the invaders of the Iroquois territory day after day paddled southward up the lake.

One night late in July, three weeks after their start, they were approaching the site of Ticonderoga, when a



Champlain takes aim.

war whoop was heard. Suddenly a band of Iroquois appeared before them in canoes. Neither side cared to open battle that night, but they taunted and jeered at each other. The Algonquins boasted of having mysterious weapons that the Iroquois had never seen. During the night the Iroquois selected a place on the shore and put up such barricades as were possible and waited for an attack. At daybreak the Algonquins and the Frenchmen landed a little way up the shore and moved down on the enemy.

Champlain gives the following account in his diary: "When I was about thirty paces from the enemy, they

halted and stared ; I did the same. When I saw them nervous in taking aim, I put my musket to my shoulder and aimed straight at one of three chiefs. At the first shot, two fell dead, and one of their companions was so wounded that he died shortly after. I had put four balls into my gun. When our men saw this shot so effective for them, they began to yell so jubilantly that you could not have heard thunder. Volleys of arrows flew from both sides. The Iroquois were dumfounded that two of their number should have been killed so promptly. This unnerved them. As I was reloading, one of my companions fired a shot from the woods. This, following on the death of their leaders, so demoralized them that they lost their heads completely and took to their heels." It was but a holiday skirmish for the French and a great victory for the Algonquins, but the cause of a bitter and bloody hatred for the French on the part of the Iroquois.

The colony at Quebec flourished, and in 1611 another was planted that is known to-day as Montreal. A brisk trade was carried on with the Indians, who sold rich furs for trinkets, cloth, hatchets, and other French goods. The fur trade was the chief business, but lumbering, fishing, and some agriculture were carried on. In the early days no women came out, except a few who came with their husbands.

In the next twenty-five years, Champlain spent much time in Canada and made explorations west to Lake Huron, and far north of the St. Lawrence River, as well as into what is now New York state. In all this work he kept an accurate account, and drew maps and plans that were of great value to the men who came after him. Catholic

missionaries came and taught the Indians to worship the God of the Christians.

In December, 1635, Champlain died at the age of sixty-eight and was buried on the banks of the St. Lawrence that he loved so well. The historian Parkman says of him: "Of the pioneers of the North American forests, Champlain's name stands foremost in the lists." "He was kind, brave, and intelligent, slaving in the toils and hardships, serving the king of France, and the faithful friend of the settlers in the New World."

Topical Outline.—Champlain's birthplace. Soldier and sailor. The trip to South America. Champlain's diary and maps. His first voyage to Canada. The second voyage; St. Croix and Port Royal.



The planting of Quebec. Champlain's aid to the Algonquins against the Iroquois. The fur trade.

For Written Work. — I. Describe the battle between the Algonquins and the Iroquois. II. Write your experiences as a member of Champlain's "Order of Mirth."

Map Work. — Locate Quebec (map, p. 199); the Richelieu River; Lake Champlain.



French soldier.

LA SALLE—FRENCH EXPLORATION OF THE MISSISSIPPI

FOR many years after the time of Champlain, French explorations were limited to the region of the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes. Men, however, had not given up the idea of a water route across the continent to the Pacific Ocean. This was as much needed as ever to make



La Salle.

the trade with China and India less difficult. The Indians often spoke of the "Father of Waters" to the west. Whether this was an ocean, a great lake, or a river, men did not know. But no one seemed ready to undertake extended explorations to the west until the time of Robert Cavelier de La Salle.

This man was born in Rouen, France, in 1643. La Salle was the name of his father's estate near Rouen. We always know him as La Salle, but as a boy his name was simply Robert Cavelier. His father was a wealthy merchant, and lived in great state. The boy had all the advantages of the time. He early showed unusual interest in mathematics and sciences, and his father sent him to the best schools for training in these branches. He matured early, and we find even the young boy showing a self-possessed and well-controlled character.

La Salle had an elder brother who had gone as a priest to Canada, and in 1666, when twenty-three years of age, he joined this brother at Montreal. On arriving in Canada he became the owner of a large estate a few miles from Montreal, and spent much time in clearing the ground and erecting buildings. He rented small farms to settlers, and in a short time his estate had increased greatly in value. La Salle evidently had other things in view than the simple life of a landed proprietor, for he had not been long in Canada before he began a systematic study of the Indian languages. It is said that in about two years he could speak very well in seven or eight different native dialects.



La Salle's house near Montreal (1900).

One day a band of Seneca Indians, a tribe of the Iroquois, who lived in western New York, called at his place. He kept them for several weeks and asked them many questions about the country. They told him about a river, which they called the Ohio, which had its source near their home, but reached the ocean at a distance so great that it would take many months to reach the place. From their account La Salle thought that this river must flow into the Gulf of California; if so, it might be the much-desired water route to China. He at once began to make plans to explore the region of this great river. In July, 1669, he started west, and with a few companions

and Indian guides crossed Lake Erie and went to the Allegheny River. They entered the Ohio and explored it as far as the site of Louisville, Kentucky, but were obliged to return to Montreal.

In the meantime, two other Frenchmen—the priest, Father Marquette, and the fur trader, Joliet—had made a great canoe voyage in which they reached the Mississippi from the Great Lakes and explored it far enough to be certain that it must enter the Gulf of Mexico, and not the Gulf of California. The Frenchmen of the seventeenth century knew little or nothing about the discoveries of De Soto; and even if they had, they could not have known that this was the same stream he had found.

On the return of Joliet and Marquette to Montreal, La Salle's interest was renewed. Soon after, in 1678, he started on another expedition with forty men. On reaching the Niagara River above the falls they set to work to build a ship. They cut the trees and prepared the timbers while sullen Indians watched for a chance to destroy the work. Finally, after much hard work and great anxiety, the *Griffon* was launched and La Salle sailed into Lake Erie on his great voyage. With La Salle was Henry Tonty, whom the Indians called Iron Hand, because a hand shot off in battle had been replaced by one of iron.

They sailed through Lakes Erie and Huron, and after many hardships they reached the northern end of Lake Michigan. Nearly a year before La Salle started from home, he had sent out fifteen men to trade for furs. The furs were to be ready, on his arrival at a certain point, to be sent back to Canada in exchange for supplies. The *Griffon*, his only ship, was now loaded with a fine

cargo of furs and sent to a trading post at Niagara, to bring back supplies of food, tools, and ammunition. La Salle and his men pushed on southward to the banks of the Illinois River, where they built a fort. This fort he named Crève-cœur (heartbreak), after waiting long and anxiously for the return of the *Griffon*. The



At Fort Crève-cœur.

ship was never heard of again. She may have been captured by an enemy, or may have been wrecked in some violent gale on the lakes.

La Salle and his men spent a hard winter on the banks of the Illinois at Crève-cœur. They worked at building a ship, but could not continue their journey without supplies, so La Salle had to return to Montreal; in March, 1680, he and five companions started on that terrible journey of one thousand miles. Their way lay eastward through the wilderness. Part of the way they walked,

and part they traveled in canoes which they made. Some of the time they waded waist deep through marshes and melting snow, and one night their wet clothes froze so that they had to be thawed out by the fire before they could be put on. Once La Salle started off alone to look for a pathway, and lost his way in a blinding snowstorm. He wandered around in the dense forest for several hours, but could not find his party. Finally, long past midnight, he saw a fire, and hurried on toward it, and found near the fire, under a tree, a bed of dry grass, which showed that a man had been lying there but a few minutes before. The man was probably an Indian who had been frightened away from his bed by a gunshot. La Salle lay down and went to sleep, and resumed his search the next morning ; but he did not find his party until four o'clock in the afternoon.

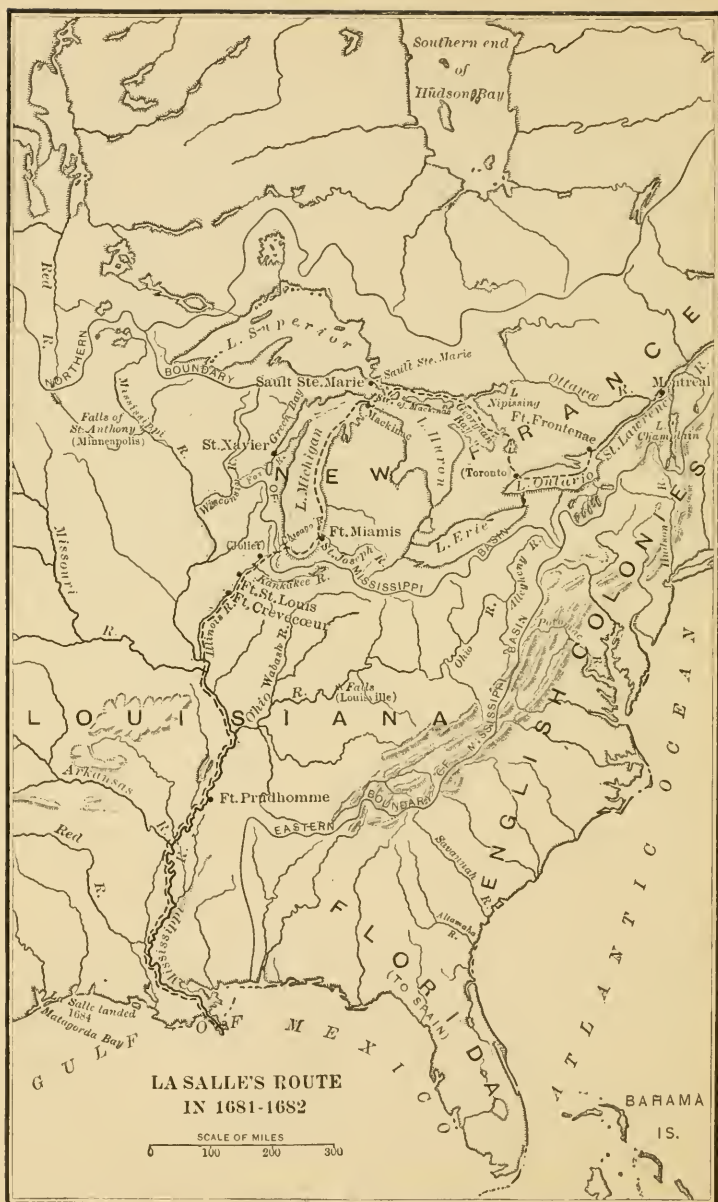
On reaching Niagara, La Salle was the only well man in the party. It was remarkable that a man whose childhood had been spent in luxury could endure such a journey. The sick men were left at Niagara, and La Salle pushed on to Montreal with three companions picked up at the fort. It must have been with a heavy heart, for at Niagara he heard that a ship from France with thirty thousand dollars' worth of supplies for him had been wrecked in the St. Lawrence and everything lost.

At Montreal La Salle got together some needed supplies and started back ; but soon learned that most of the men at Crève-cœur had deserted him. Hastening on to rescue Tonty and those who remained faithful, he found Crève-cœur in ruins, and a friendly Indian town near by destroyed by an attack of the Iroquois.

La Salle was a man not easily discouraged. He believed the objects sought by him were worth any kind of sacrifice and hardships. He urged the warring tribes of the west to form a defensive league against the Iroquois. He went once more to Montreal, where he arranged business affairs and collected supplies, and in the summer of 1681 he set out from Fort Frontenac for the west for the last time.

When near the site of Toronto, he was detained for two weeks. A letter written to friends in France at that time contains the following: "I have a hundred things to write, but you could not believe how hard it is to do it among Indians. The canoes and their lading must be got over the portage; and I must speak to them continually, and bear all their importunity, or else they will do nothing I want. I hope to write more at leisure next year, and tell you the end of this business, which I hope will turn out well; for I have M. de Tonty, who is full of zeal; thirty Frenchmen, all good men, without reckoning such as I cannot trust; and more than a hundred Indians, some of them Shawanoes and others from New England, all of whom know how to use guns." Day after day their heavily laden canoes crept along the shores of the lakes and were carried with difficulty across country from lake to river, until at last, on February 6, 1682, they came out on the waters of the Mississippi River near the mouth of the Illinois.

The river was full of floating ice, and they were obliged to wait for a week before they resumed the journey. This party now numbered eighteen Indian warriors, ten squaws, and twenty-three Frenchmen. As their canoes drifted downstream, day after day, the weather became warmer. Flowers and foliage on the banks indicated not only the



LA SALLE'S ROUTE
IN 1681-1682

SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300

coming of spring, but the entrance into a warmer climate. Every night they stopped and pitched camp on the bank, and sometimes they stayed and built a fort and explored the country roundabout. Many places suitable for trading posts were noted on a map.

One day they saw ahead of them a canoe of Indians. Tonty, in a spirit of friendliness, gave chase and had nearly overtaken them when La Salle saw on the bank a band of Indians with bows drawn to defend their countrymen. He called out to Tonty to stop. Tonty then offered to cross with a peace pipe, and set out with a small party to do so. When they landed, the Indians made signs of friendship by joining their hands, and invited the Frenchmen to visit their village. They spent the night there, and one of the men wrote: "La Salle, whose very air, engaging manner, tact, and address attract love and respect alike, produced such an effect on the hearts of these people that they did not know how to treat us well enough." These Indians lived near the site of the city of Natchez, Mississippi.

On the 9th of April, 1682, La Salle and his men sailed out of the mouth of the river into the Gulf of Mexico. Then they landed in a spot of dry ground near the mouth, and with most solemn ceremony erected a standard bearing the arms of France, and the words "Louis XIV, King of France, April 9, 1682." They fired their muskets, and shouted "*Vive le Roi*" ("Long live the King"). Then La Salle proclaimed that he took "in the name of the King of France and his successors all lands drained by this river, with all people, provinces, towns, villages, mines, and minerals." More musketry shots, and more shouts of "*Vive le Roi*" followed, — then a cross was planted and

lead plates, having the arms of France and the name of Louis XIV, were buried near the standard and cross. La Salle named the country Louisiana for King Louis XIV. Their boats were far too light to sail away to



La Salle takes possession of the land.

France, so they went back upstream, a journey much harder because they had to paddle against the current of a great river. La Salle was taken sick, and for forty days he was cared for by a priest who was with him, while the main party went on their way back to Canada.

In time La Salle reached Montreal, and from there he sailed to France to make his report to the king. The king was more than pleased. He favored La Salle's plan of planting a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. La Salle asked for two vessels; four were given him. They carried a hundred soldiers, mechanics, laborers,

several families, and a large number of girls as prospective brides of the Frenchmen, besides a band of priests. Generous supplies of food, tools, and ammunition were furnished.

As the ships sailed away from France in July, 1684, all looked prosperous for a French colony near the mouth of the Mississippi River. But disaster soon came. They encountered storms, one ship was lost, and the others were separated and were delayed until supplies got low.

Late in November, after many delays, they entered the Gulf of Mexico. They sailed as near shore as possible and kept close watch for the mouth of the Mississippi; but in spite of all their efforts they passed the mouth of the river, and were compelled finally to land on the shore of Texas. The novelty of adventure soon wore off, and the colonists and soldiers, unused to life in the wilderness, did little but grumble, and refused to help La Salle in exploring the coast.

It became plain to La Salle that he could save the suffering colony only by making his way to Canada. He picked out seventeen men and five horses, and in March, 1687, started overland to get relief for his people. It proved that some of the seventeen men selected were enemies of La Salle and probably consented to go just to find a chance to carry out their plans against him. For they had been gone but two or three days when one morning La Salle was shot by two of his men lying in ambush.

La Salle was only forty-two when he was killed. He had done a great work. From that time France claimed that vast country in the Mississippi valley from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. No European was more successful

than he in managing the Indians. But his great plans had ended in failure for himself. The colony in Texas soon perished. It was ten years or more before the first French settlement was planted near the mouth of the Mississippi River.

Topical Outline. — The name La Salle. La Salle in Canada. His exploration of the Ohio River. His attempts to reach the Gulf of Mexico by way of the Mississippi River. The final success. Louisiana claimed for France. The attempt to plant a colony near the mouth of the Mississippi River. Death of La Salle.

For Written Work. — La Salle tells of the many discouragements he met.

Map Work. — Trace on a map the journey of La Salle from Fort Frontenac (Kingston) to the Gulf of Mexico.



The Griffon — La Salle's ship
on the Great Lakes.

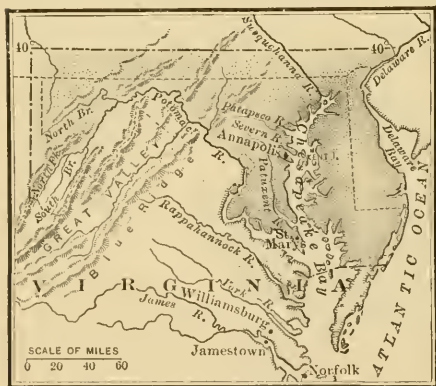
THE CALVERTS AND MARYLAND—LORD BALTIMORE

IN this free land of ours to-day every man has a right to worship God in the way he believes best. But in old England three hundred years ago this was not allowed. In those days there was an established church called the Church of England, which was controlled by the government. All the people were obliged to attend its services and aid in its support. If they failed to do so, they were fined and sometimes imprisoned. But very many loyal Englishmen could not conscientiously belong to this church, and as a result were persecuted because of their religious beliefs. Thus it was that the Puritans fled from England and sought to found colonies where they could worship God in freedom.

The Catholics also suffered much because of their refusal to take part in the services of the Church of England. Now there was in England at this time a brave and honest gentleman named Sir George Calvert, who was a Catholic. He was a man of wealth and influence and had been one of the king's trusted officers. When the London Company was organized, he had been one of its most active members and had aided in sending settlers to Virginia. However, when he became a Catholic, he was obliged to give up all his public offices. But the king still remained his friend and gave him the title of Lord Baltimore.

As Calvert watched the Virginia colony grow, he made up his mind to found in the New World a home where persecuted Catholics might find refuge. So he obtained from the king a grant of land in the island of Newfoundland. Explorers had brought back word of a rich and fertile country there, and this cool-headed and sensible man was charmed by these stories. He called his new possession Avalon, or the land of apples, and sent bands of settlers there. In 1628, Calvert himself came to live in this new land. But he and his followers were not used to the hardships of a northern winter, so in the spring they gave up this settlement and set sail for Virginia.

In Virginia they received a cool welcome, for the Virginians, although Englishmen, did not wish English



Maryland by the original charter.

Catholics to settle among them. So, broken in health by his voyage to Newfoundland and discouraged by his treatment in Virginia, Calvert returned to England. He did not, however, give up his scheme of founding a Catholic colony in America,

but asked the king for land north of Virginia. The king willingly granted this request, and in 1633 a charter was issued for a new province called Maryland, on both sides of Chesapeake Bay, north of the Potomac River.

As shown on this map, the grant included not only the present state of Maryland, but also Delaware and parts of Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

Sir George Calvert died before the plans for the new colony were completed, hence the charter was issued to Cecil Calvert, his son, the second Lord Baltimore. By the terms of this grant, Lord Baltimore was made proprietor of the new province, and had almost as much power there as the king had in England. He could make war, enact laws (with the consent of the colonists), and coin money; and all the king reserved for himself was a one-fifth share in all gold and silver found in the new domain. The king even promised not to tax the colony, if it would send to him each year two Indian arrowheads as a token that he was still master.

In 1634, a colony of three hundred persons under the leadership of Leonard Calvert, Lord Baltimore's brother, came over in two ships fitly named the *Ark* and the *Dove*. As they sailed up Chesapeake Bay the Indians came out in their canoes to greet them. The red men were astonished at the size of their ships, and said that they would like to see the tree from which these great canoes were hollowed out. Calvert purchased from the Indians one of their villages, with its gardens and cornfields, and named his little settlement St. Marys.

The Indians were treated kindly and were paid for their land in knives, beads, and axes. In return they taught the colonists how to hunt, to raise corn, and to make succotash. Thus the first few years passed happily and prosperously. But trouble soon arose over boundary lines. This happened in many of the colonies, for the English

kings had an easy way of giving the same land to different men and then letting them fight for its possession.



The Indians teach the colonists to hunt.

The Virginians were jealous of the new colony of Maryland, because it took from them much of their territory and also cut off the northern Indian trade. Their leader in making trouble for Maryland was William Clayborne, who had built a trading post on Kent Island in Chesapeake Bay. This island was in-

cluded in the Maryland grant, so Lord Baltimore told Clayborne that he must either leave or become a subject of Maryland. Clayborne refused to do this, and for more than ten years there was war between his followers and the Marylanders. Finally the English government interfered and settled the dispute by giving Kent Island to Maryland.

In later years there was a boundary dispute between Maryland and Pennsylvania; but this was settled by a peaceful compromise, and two men named Mason and Dixon were employed to survey the line. The line they surveyed be-

tween the two colonies was called the "Mason and Dixon Line," and afterward became famous as the dividing line between the slave and the free states.

Calvert gave the settlers a large share in the government, and in order to encourage immigration, he offered freedom of religious worship to all who would settle in the colony. The Toleration Act which was passed by the Maryland Legislature in 1649 was a famous law. It provided that no Christian should in any way be hindered in the practice of his religion. Attracted by this freedom, people came from all quarters to find refuge in Maryland, and it was not long before the colony contained more Protestants than Catholics. Annapolis was settled largely by Puritans driven from Virginia by the tyranny of Governor Berkeley.

At length, the Protestants gained control of Maryland and passed an act taking the land away from Lord Baltimore and declaring that the Catholics had no right to protection in the colony which they had founded. So you see that Lord Baltimore's kindness and liberality were not appreciated by his Puritan settlers. In 1658, however, the Toleration Act was again put in force and the province restored to Lord Baltimore.

Excepting the boundary disputes and the religious troubles, the colony was prosperous. As in Virginia, the colonists were engaged largely in raising and exporting tobacco. There were no large towns, but the people lived for the most part on large farms or plantations. The land was rich and fertile and produced heavy crops of grain, as well as tobacco. Game was plentiful, and hunting was one of the principal pastimes of the boys and men. The eastern part of Maryland near Chesapeake Bay became

early famous for oysters, terrapin, and other sea food and for its wild game, such as pigeons and canvasback ducks. Quakers, Dutchmen, and Frenchmen came to join the English Catholics and Puritans in Maryland, and the colony was prosperous and happy. For a few years it was a royal province, but in 1715 it was restored to the descendants of Lord Baltimore, and it was controlled by the members of the Calyvert family until the Revolution.

Topical Outline. — Religious liberty of to-day that people did not have three centuries ago. Treatment of Catholics in England. Baltimore's plan for the relief of English Catholics. Unsuccessful settlement in Newfoundland. The settlement of Maryland. Relations with the Indians. Troubles over boundary lines with Clayborne and the Penns. Occupations of the colonists. Later history of Maryland.

Map Work. — Locate Chesapeake Bay, the Potomac River, St. Marys.

WILLIAM PENN AND THE QUAKERS

SEVERAL of the English colonies in America were established as a refuge for people who were persecuted because of their religious beliefs. We have already read how the Puritans fled to New England in order that they might worship God in their own way. We know, too, that Maryland was founded for persecuted Catholics. In some of the other colonies, also, many thousand French Huguenots and German Protestants found a refuge from the cruelty and oppression of the Old World. One of the last colonies to be built up largely by people of a particular faith was Pennsylvania. The beginnings of its history, like those of the other English colonies, go back to the mother country.

In the midst of the troublesome times in England during the seventeenth century, and during the persecutions of Catholics and Puritans, there arose another religious sect. Under the preaching of a young man named George Fox, a few people were led to believe that the forms and ceremonies of the Church of England were meaningless. These people were commonly called Quakers, a title given to them partly in fun; but they were known among themselves as members of the "Society of Friends." This title aptly described them, for they were usually quiet and friendly folk. Their manner of speech and dress made them seem peculiar in the gay life of England, for

they dressed simply and plainly in drab or gray clothes, and they spoke to every one as "thee " or "thou." They believed that all men were equal in the sight of God, so they refused to treat one person with any greater degree of consideration than another. An honest man who tried to do right was entitled, they said, to as much respect as the king himself. So when they met a man of rank, they never addressed him by his title or removed their hats in his presence. In their meetings they had neither music nor preacher, but each member waited in silence for a message from God. If moved by the Spirit, a man or a woman rose and gave the message to the others.

Their lives were guided by what their conscience told them was right or wrong. According to this "inner light," as they called it, all men ought to live in peace with one another, so they refused to serve in the army or to go to war. They also refused to pay taxes to support the Church of England, for they held that any one who felt called of God to do so could preach the Gospel, and should receive no pay for doing this solemn duty. Since the Bible said it was wrong to swear, they would take no oaths in the law courts. A man should tell the truth at all times, they thought, and therefore it ought not to be necessary for him to bind himself especially to do so by taking an oath.

Very strange doctrines, some of you may say; but probably the world would be happier and better to-day if more people carried into their daily life some of the things the Quakers taught. It was not long before the government took stern measures to check the spread of the Quaker faith. Its members were often fined, publicly flogged, or thrown into prison. We are sorry to find that even in

Massachusetts and Connecticut, where some of the Quakers sought refuge, the Puritans, forgetting their own sufferings for the sake of religion, treated the Quakers as cruelly as did the English government. But in spite of harsh treatment, the Quakers continued to come, for they were eager to make converts. Not until four of them had been hanged, did the Massachusetts colony relax in its persecution of the Quakers.

But the history of the Society of Friends, both in England and in America, would be incomplete without an account of the life of their great leader, William Penn. He was the son of a famous English admiral, Sir William Penn, and his mother, who was of Dutch descent, was a woman of noble character. From her he inherited many of those traits which made him a great and unselfish man.

The boy Penn was sent to Oxford University, where he excelled not only in his studies, but also in the athletic sports of the students. While there he became interested in the Quaker faith and was expelled from the university because he refused to attend chapel exercises. His father



A Quaker trial.

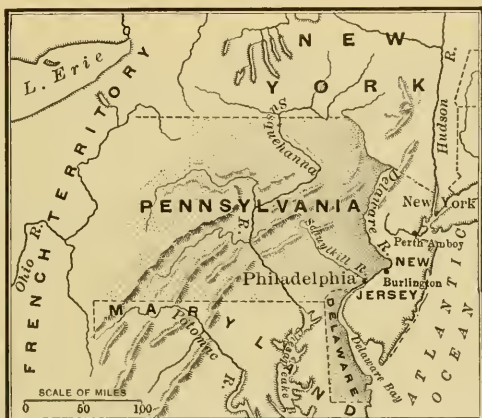
was very angry, not so much because of the expulsion, but because he thought no gentleman's son could belong to that despised sect. So he sent young William to Paris, hoping that a residence in the gay city would cause him to forget the new faith.

Apparently cured after two years of travel abroad, Penn returned to England, but the dreadful scenes of the great plague which broke out in London in 1665 again turned his thoughts toward the serious things of life. His father flogged him and sent him away, this time to Ireland. Here he served for a while in the army, but by chance came again under the influence of the Quaker preacher who had interested him in Oxford. This time his conviction became so sincere and earnest that he joined the Society of Friends and began to preach its doctrines.

For preaching without authority from the church, he was arrested and imprisoned. While in prison he wrote books and pamphlets in behalf of his faith, and began there to make plans for a colony as a refuge for persecuted Quakers. This he hoped to make a self-governing colony where people should have justice and religious freedom. After his release from prison, he and his father became reconciled, largely through his mother's influence. Sir William died in 1670, but before his death he made his friends, King Charles II and the Duke of York, promise to befriend his son. This they did, and William Penn was always a staunch supporter of the crown.

Admiral Penn was a wealthy man, and he left to his son a large estate. This enabled William to carry out his long-cherished scheme of colonization. He already had an interest in the New Jersey colony, so he asked the king for a

grant of land west of the Delaware River. This the king readily gave him, for Charles had borrowed £16,000 of Admiral Penn, and William Penn agreed to cancel the debt in return for the land. This territory, three hundred miles long and one hundred and fifty miles wide, Penn wished to call "Sylvania," or Land of Woods, but the



Pennsylvania and Delaware.

king added the name of Penn in honor of his friend, the Admiral.

William Penn at once carried out his plans for the settlement of the new province. The first colony came over in 1681, and the next year Penn himself came with about a hundred colonists. He wished his people to be free, sober, and industrious and "to be governed by laws of their own making"; so he drew up a plan of government whereby they were assured of their rights and were given an important share in the making of the laws. Every taxpayer was to have the right to vote. The laws also

provided that the Indians should be treated kindly; that children should be taught a trade; and that prisoners should be made to work. Only one condition was made necessary for citizenship or office holding, and this was that the man should be a Christian.

Thus the "Holy Experiment," as Penn loved to call his government, was begun. One of the first things Penn



Penn's treaty with the Indians.

did upon his arrival was to gain the good-will of the Indians. Under a spreading elm tree near the banks of the Delaware River, where to-day there is a great ship-yard, he met the Indians and exchanged pledges of friendship. He told them that he was nearer to them than a father or brother, and they replied that "so long as the sun and moon shall endure the Indians and English must live together in love and peace." Then they gave him a belt of wampum in which were woven the

figures of an Indian and a white man clasping hands. This treaty, a great Frenchman once said, was the only one which was never sworn to and never broken.

Penn's colonists had already under his direction commenced to lay out a city on the high ground at the junction of the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers: to this he gave the name of Philadelphia, or the City of Brotherly Love. The location of the city was well chosen: it afforded a good harbor for shipping, and its rivers were the natural roads for trade with the Indians, and for easy settlement. If you ever visit the city, you will see that its streets are wide and are laid out at right angles, not like the lower part of New York, where the streets run in every direction. This was due to the wise plan of William Penn. He directed that the streets running north and south should be numbered, while those running east and west should bear the names of trees, as Chestnut, Walnut, Spruce, etc., or of fruits, as Mulberry or Raspberry. The lots were large, and the houses were to be built in the center of them so there should be room for lawns and gardens. The city grew rapidly, and within two years after its founding, had a population of nearly twenty-five hundred people. Indeed, it very soon became one of the largest and most important cities in America and a great center of the literary and commercial life of the colonies.

A large number of Germans and Dutch came to the colony and added much to its industry and importance. It is said that more than twenty-five thousand of them settled in the Schuylkill valley region, and "Pennsylvania Dutch" is the native language of thousands to-day. Scotch-Irish

immigrants later settled the central and western portions of Pennsylvania.

A few years after Philadelphia was founded, Penn secured from the king a grant of land on Delaware Bay which was at first called the "Lower Counties on the Delaware." Penn at first added this to his colony of Pennsylvania, but the people of Delaware objected. He then allowed them to have a legislature of their own as a separate colony. The boundary line between Maryland and Pennsylvania caused much trouble, but, as we have seen, it was finally surveyed and marked off by Mason and Dixon.

After living two or three years in Pennsylvania, Penn went back to England in order to help the poor Quakers there. He did not return to the colony until 1699. The intervening years were full of sorrow, for his enemies made him much trouble. When he returned to America, he expected to spend the rest of his life here. He had two houses, one in the city of Philadelphia and another in the country. His country home on the Delaware River was very beautiful. It is said to have cost thirty-five thousand dollars. Here he entertained his friends lavishly. But he was not permitted to enjoy these possessions in peace. His enemies in England again caused him trouble, and he was forced to return there to protect his rights. He was even accused of treason and was at one time thrown into prison because he refused to pay an unjust claim made by a dishonest agent. Through the influence of powerful friends, he was released from prison, but his health was broken and he died in 1718.

Penn was one of the most upright men of his times, and

in his life tried to serve God and to observe the precepts of the Golden Rule. The colony which he founded so



William Penn.

wisely has prospered, and has always been one of the leading states of the Union.

Topical Outline. — Colonies founded as places of refuge for persecuted peoples. The Quakers: their peculiar religious beliefs; their sufferings in England and the colonies. William Penn, a wealthy young Englishman, joins them: his early life; his plans for his friends. Pennsylvania: reasons for its founding; its name; wise laws; religious freedom; treaties. Early settlement; the city of Philadelphia: its streets; its rapid growth. Progress of the colony. Penn's later life.

For Written Work. — I. Tell the story of William Penn as a young man. II. Describe the life and habits of the Quakers. III. Tell the story of the treaty with the Indians.

Map Work. — Note the location of Philadelphia between the Schuylkill and Delaware rivers. Why was this a good place for a city?



Penn's house, Philadelphia.

OGLETHORPE AND THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA

WITHIN a hundred years after the settlement of Virginia in 1607, the English had made permanent settlements along the eastern coast of North America from Maine to South Carolina. The thirteenth and last English colony to be planted in the New World was Georgia. The story of how this colony came to be established is an interesting one. Like Rhode Island and Pennsylvania, its existence was due largely to the energy and kindness of one man. To General James Edward Oglethorpe belongs the credit of the founding of Georgia. He was a brave English gentleman who gave the best part of his life and much of his fortune to help the poor and oppressed of his country.

General Oglethorpe was a member of a well-known and wealthy English family. He was educated at Oxford University, and like many other young men of his rank was attracted by a soldier's life. So he entered the army and served with credit under the Duke of Marlborough, one of England's greatest generals. In his campaigns in Holland and against the Turks, he had almost as many adventures as Captain John Smith had a hundred years before; but he was a better fighter than writer, so he did not publish an account of these expeditions.

After some years Oglethorpe returned to England, intending to retire to private life, but his friends thought that so brave a man could serve his country in peace as

well as in war. He was accordingly elected a member of Parliament, a body of English lawmakers like our Congress. Here he soon became interested in several reform movements intended to benefit the workingmen and the poor. It was a period of "hard times" in England. Many men were unable to find work, and as a result they and their families suffered greatly.

The law then provided that if a man failed to pay his debts, he could be put in prison, where he would be kept until he or his family could meet the claim. Now among the poor debtors there were many who had honestly failed because of sickness or some other cause for which they were not to blame. It was upon these unfortunates that this harsh law bore most heavily. Some of them were kept in jail for years because they could not pay debts amounting to only a few shillings. If you have read some of Dickens's novels, you will know that the English prisons in those days were not so well built or so well kept as they are now.

Oglethorpe's attention was especially called to this evil, because a friend who had been sent to one of these debtors' prisons died there because of the bad air, poor food, and harsh treatment. The matter was brought before Parliament, and laws were passed to remedy these evils. But Oglethorpe determined to do something more than simply bettering the prisons, or even releasing unfortunate debtors from prison. He saw that if they were ever to succeed, they must have some work to do. So he conceived the plan of establishing a colony in America where all who were poor and unfortunate might come and begin life over again with some chance of success. In

this scheme he enlisted many prominent men, among whom were John and Charles Wesley, the founders of Methodism, and George Whitefield, one of the greatest preachers of that time.

An association was formed of which Oglethorpe was made president, and a grant of land was obtained from George II, who was then king. This tract was south of the Savannah River, between South Carolina and Florida. In this way the new colony was made to serve a double purpose. It not only offered a refuge for the poor of England, and for perse-



The Carolinas and Georgia.

cuted Protestants, but it also helped to protect the Carolinas from the troublesome Spaniards who occupied Florida. The new country was named Georgia in honor of the king who had granted the charter, and Oglethorpe was made its first governor. Public interest in England in favor of the scheme was readily awakened and a sum equal to more than a half million of dollars nowadays was raised, partly by the government and partly by private subscription, in order to provide the necessary funds for

its support. Probably no other English colony aroused greater interest or received more direct aid from the mother country.

Oglethorpe himself was at the head of the first band of settlers. In the fall of 1732, the year of George Washington's birth, they sailed from England in the good ship *Ann*. There were thirty-five families in the party, and they were well equipped with tools, arms, and stores. They first landed at Charleston, where the people gave them a cordial welcome. But the settlers were eager to reach their own territory, so they turned southward and in January of 1733 they entered the Savannah River. Sailing up the river a few miles, they found a place suitable for a settlement. Here they landed and began to mark out the squares and lots where the beautiful city of Savannah now stands. There were among the colonists carpenters and mechanics, as well as farmers, and it was not long before homes and a blockhouse were erected in the wilderness. Oglethorpe, however, pitched his tent in a grove of pine trees and made that his home for nearly a year. Perhaps he preferred to camp out in the beautiful southern sunshine, for he had been a soldier and must have loved this free out-of-door life.

The Indians soon made friends with the settlers, largely through the efforts of Mary Muskgrove, an Indian woman who spoke English. Some of the chiefs gave Oglethorpe a buffalo skin on which were painted the head and feathers of an eagle. With this gift they sent a message saying, "The feathers of the eagle are soft, signifying love; the skin is warm, and means protection; therefore, love and protect our little families." Oglethorpe always

tried to remember this, and for many years the whites and reds lived together like brothers. Although the king had given the territory to the colonists, they felt that the Indians, also, had some claim to it, and they recognized these rights by purchasing land from the red men.

Some of the laws which Oglethorpe made for governing the colony seem to us very wise. They certainly were in advance of the times.



Oglethorpe and the Indians.

Slavery was forbidden, because it was hoped that the colonists would be more industrious and self-reliant if they had to depend upon their own labor for support. The importation and sale of rum was also checked, for the organizers knew that many of the colonists had been made "poor debtors" because they had foolishly spent their money for intoxicating liquor.

When it was found that the mulberry tree grew readily in Georgia, silkworms were brought over and an attempt

made to establish the silk industry in the colony. One of the first pieces of silk woven by the colonists was given to the queen of England for a dress. In later days, however,



A Scotch Highlander.

the raising of rice and indigo proved to be more profitable. The colony did not grow at first very rapidly, for the character of the settlers was not the kind which makes for success. A change of climate could not change their natures, and many of them were as lazy and improvident in Georgia as they had been in England. It was not long, however, before a better class of colonists were attracted to Georgia by the promise of religious freedom. Sturdy Scotch Highlanders in their kilts and plaids came over to the settlement.

Sober and industrious Protestants from Germany soon after founded the town of Ebenezer. These people by their thrift and industry greatly aided the colony.

Now the Spaniards in Florida claimed the territory which Oglethorpe and his associates had settled, and when the colony began to prosper, they became alarmed. About this time England and Spain were at war, and the Spaniards planned to destroy the English settlements upon the Savannah River. When the old soldier General Oglethorpe heard of this, he acted promptly. Summoning all the fighting men of the colony, he led an attack against the Spanish fort of St. Augustine in Florida. This failed, and to punish the Georgians for this attempt to capture their city, the Spaniards, three years later, with several ships, made an attack on Georgia. A battle was

fought at Frederica, and the Spaniards were defeated. Oglethorpe then sent to the Spanish army a spy who pretended that he was a deserter. This man told them that a number of British ships were expected within a few days. When the Spanish commander heard this, he hastened with his fleet back to Florida to escape the supposed English fleet. This ended for a long time all trouble with Florida.

Notwithstanding all that Oglethorpe had done for the colonists, they were ungrateful, and he was recalled to England. Charges were made against him of misconduct in his office as governor, but they proved to be false and he was promptly and honorably acquitted. Lacking his guiding hand in the control of the colony, its trustees became discouraged, and in 1752 gave up their charter to the king. Georgia then became a royal province, and its laws and form of government resembled those of most of the other colonies. The rules forbidding the holding of slaves and the importation of rum were repealed, and the people generally were given a greater share in the government.

General Oglethorpe never returned to America, but he always retained a warm interest in the colony. When the thirteen American colonies began their struggle for independence, the king of England asked Oglethorpe to take command of the British forces in America. He refused to do this, for he felt that the Americans had been unfairly treated by the mother country and that their demands were just. After the treaty of peace which gave us our independence had been signed in 1783, he expressed his delight that the war was ended, and said that he hoped the two countries would ever afterward be friends.

Some one who saw him about that time said that he was "the finest figure of a man you ever saw; but very, very old, the flesh on his face like parchment." Even in his old age he was distinguished for his noble bearing, his eloquence, and his courtesy. He died in 1785, at the age of ninety-five, loved and honored by all. We like to think that the motto of the colony which he founded and for which he gave so much best describes him. On the great seal of the colony of Georgia were the words, "Not for themselves, but for others." The story of his kindness and of his labor for the poor and the oppressed shows that this, also, was the motto which guided his life. In his generous and unselfish devotion to the cause of the colonists, General James Edward Oglethorpe stands conspicuous among the men who were builders of our country.

Topical Outline.— Georgia, the last English colony planted in America. Its founder, General James Edward Oglethorpe, and his early life. His interest in reform movements. How poor debtors were treated in the eighteenth century. Reasons for the settlement of Georgia; public interest in the scheme. Settlement at Savannah. Friendship of the Indians. Things Oglethorpe would not permit in Georgia. Growth of the colony; industries and occupations. War with the Spanish in Florida. The later years of Oglethorpe's life.

Map Work.— Locate Savannah; note its approximate distance from Charleston and St. Augustine.

KING PHILIP'S WAR

MASSASOIT, the chief sachem of the Wampanoag Indians, had two sons who, as little boys, often went to Plymouth with their father and played with the white children there. As these boys grew up, the people of Plymouth, interested in their ready wit and skill in athletic sports, called them Alexander and Philip, after the famous Macedonian conquerors. These names pleased Massasoit, as well as the boys.

It will be remembered that in 1620, when the Pilgrims first came to Plymouth, a treaty of peace was made with Massasoit. This treaty was never broken during the rest of Massasoit's life — a period of forty years.

In 1660, when Massasoit died, his son Alexander succeeded him as the chief sachem of the tribe. Alexander and Philip loved their own Indians best, although they had known the Englishmen very well. They saw much more keenly than did their father, that the white people were rapidly gaining in numbers and power. They also realized that their tribe was losing many acres of hunting grounds, and was being pushed back, and crowded into the undesirable portions of land. Had their father not sold land to the whites, Alexander and Philip would have had much more.

The Indians generally could not understand the selling of land. As they understood things, land was something

that belonged to the tribe, and was held from generation to generation. If money was paid for it to the chief, they considered it as rent paid during his life, and supposed that on his death the land would revert to the tribe. Although Alexander and Philip knew the English point of view, they felt resentful, because as Indians they had the inherent belief that land could not be permanently sold. These young Indians had also a haughty dignity, better described as snobbishness, acquired from their contact with the settlers. This manner, so unlike the quiet dignity of Massasoit, aroused the suspicion and dislike of the settlers.

Some Indians resented the efforts made to convert them and were always suspicious of the "praying Indians." They believed that it was another method of stealing their lands and of weakening their tribe by making their warriors like women.

Soon after Alexander became sachem, rumors reached Plymouth that he was plotting mischief, so he was summoned to appear before the General Court. He went reluctantly, and succeeded in convincing the officers of the government that, like his father, he was the true friend of the white men. A friendly feast was enjoyed, and Alexander started back home, but was taken sick and died soon after. He may have caught cold and died of pneumonia, or he may have drunk too much rum. The Indians did not recognize such causes of death. In the Indian's experience all natural death was murder by musket, arrow, or tomahawk. If one died from disease, the Indians believed the cause was poison or witchcraft. It was most unfortunate that Alexander's death came on

his return from a visit to the white people. Evidence was strong in favor of poison, and the story was accepted readily by all his tribe. Philip, his brother, became sachem and secretly plotted to have revenge.

Rumors reached the English from time to time, but it was not till 1671 that they felt it necessary to summon



The Indians hand over their muskets.

Philip to renew the treaty of peace. In April of that year a meeting was arranged between him and three Boston men at Taunton. Philip was very humble, and consented to a treaty in which he promised that his tribe should give up their fire-arms. Seventy muskets were soon after handed over to the English officers. This was an unwise demand for the English to make; it betrayed to the Indians that the English really feared them, and it was absolutely impossible to collect all the fire-arms. No one could know how many the Indians had, or where they were. In the next few months a good many scowls and grunts betrayed Indian displeasure. Again in September of the same

year Philip was sent for, and this time he agreed to pay a yearly tribute of five wolves' heads, and to do no act of war without express permission.

For three years nothing alarming took place; then one day Sausaman, an Indian who had studied at Harvard, brought a message to Governor Winslow of Plymouth that Philip was about to strike. Philip heard of Sausaman's report and hastened to Plymouth and declared his innocence. A few days later Sausaman's dead body was found in a pond. His murder was traced to three young Wampanoags, who were tried and sentenced by a mixed jury of whites and Indians. After their execution the Indians broke loose from their enforced restraint.

We must remember that at this time the white settlers numbered about sixty thousand people, scattered along the coast in many villages not far apart. The Indians were more dangerous enemies even than they had been fifty years before, because now they were armed with the white man's muskets, and as a rule were even better marksmen. There had been a law in the early '30's that no arms or powder should be sold to the Indians, but during the many years of peace this law had been ignored, and the whites had no idea how completely supplied the Indians were.

On Sunday morning, June 20, 1675, while the people of Swansea were at church, a party of Indians stole into the town and set fire to two houses. As the people left church, several were shot on their way home. The people of Swansea were thoroughly aroused and sent to Boston and Plymouth for aid. When help came, the town had been sacked and burned, and nearly all the men, women, and children had been horribly tortured and killed. The whole

country took alarm; the people believed Philip to be the cause of the outbreak. A force of colonial troops started at once for Mount Hope, Philip's home, but he and his warriors fled. Some days later the Englishmen tracked the Indians to a swamp, but after thirteen days' siege Philip escaped. By this time, the whole tribe of Wampanoags was armed, and raids and massacres were occurring in all parts of the English settlements.

On the night of August 2, thirty or forty women and children, all the inhabitants of Brookfield, took refuge in a large house, where Philip with three hundred savages besieged them. The Indians shot arrows tipped with burning rags to set fire to the roof of the house. The people in the garret of the house were well supplied with water, and they put out the fires as soon as they caught. From every window musket shots were so brisk and steady that the savages could not get near. For three days the siege was kept up, while every other house in the village was burned. Finally the Indians succeeded in making a rude cart of planks placed on barrels. This they loaded with chips, straw, and flax, to which they set fire, and then rolled the burning mass up against the house.

The people hovering within the doors thought their case was hopeless, but just then it began to rain and the fire was put out. Meanwhile help was coming. Willard, a man seventy years old, was leading a band of fifty horsemen from Groton, thirty miles distant. Just before sunset he entered the town, and after a brisk fight the Indians fled.

Early in September the Indians were defeated at Deerfield, but a week later they sneaked back in the night and

burned the town. On the same day they attacked the village of Hadley. There is a most interesting tradition of the appearance of a mysterious stranger who saved Hadley. The people were all in church when the Indian war whoop was heard. The men seized their guns and



The attack on Hadley.

rushed out, but the swarm of Indians on the village green struck them with terror. They hesitated, and were about to return to the church, when a stranger with white flowing beard and stately form suddenly appeared among them. He took command, and with the air of authority ordered a charge into the seething mass of yelling Indians. A sharp fight caused them to scatter as usual to the woods.

The men of Hadley followed for a short distance. When they returned, they looked for their mysterious leader, but he was nowhere to be found. Many believed that he was an angel of deliverance sent from heaven. The old Gray

Champion was undoubtedly General Goffe, one of the judges who condemned Charles I to death. When Charles II became king, Goffe sought refuge in New England and was known to have been in Hadley. Writers of that day did not wish to betray him, so we have no authentic proof.

Deerfield and Northfield were abandoned, and the survivors crowded into Hadley. But a large quantity of wheat had been left at Deerfield. Eighteen wagons with teamsters and farmers were sent to bring the wheat to Hadley. They were escorted by Captain Lothrop with his train-band of ninety picked men. The grain was gathered and the party made a night march homeward. At seven in the morning they were fording a shallow stream in a wood road when they were attacked by seven hundred Indians in ambush. Only eight of the whites escaped. This "black and fatal day" is called "the saddest that ever befell New England." The place to this day is known as Bloody Brook.

All New England was aroused. The colonists united more firmly to crush the Indians, who were elated and flushed with victory. Defenses were strengthened. Every man that could be spared went into the army, determined to clear the country of the savages. The Narragansetts had thus far appeared to be neutral, but the English had had reason to suspect them for some time. Then the report came that Canonchet, the Narragansett chief, was not only harboring Philip's followers, but was planning with him for a united attack on the English.

The best way to prevent this disaster was to attack the Narragansetts before they started from their stronghold. They had fortified a piece of rising ground, six acres in

extent, in the middle of a swamp. The palisade was twelve feet in thickness and had but one opening, which could be entered only over the trunk of a fallen tree two feet in diameter. A blockhouse guarded this entrance. The Narragansetts were warned of the approach of the white men, and within their fortress were gathered two thousand of their best fighting men, with many women and children.

It was a stormy day in the middle of December when the English marched eighteen miles through deep snow to this fortress. There were 985 white men in all, some from each of the New England colonies, including 300 from Connecticut. They rushed for the entrance to the palisade over the tree trunk slippery with ice, and a volley from the blockhouse killed many of the Massachusetts men. Undaunted, those in the rear pressed on, passing over the prostrate bodies of their comrades. This was a surprise to the Indians, who expected the whites to flee. Some of the Connecticut men discovered a path leading to a weak spot in the rear of the palisade, and although the firing was heavy, they forced an entrance about the time that the main part of the army carried the main entrance. As soon as the entire English force came within the inclosure they made short work of the fight. One declared afterward that the "Lord had delivered up to them the heathen as stubble to his sword." They burned the wigwams and the winter store of corn. Canonchet, the chief, and three or four hundred of his men escaped under cover of a blinding snowstorm. The English lost nearly one fourth of their number.

This defeat of the Narragansetts greatly changed the situation. Canonchet had been one of the most powerful

chiefs in New England. He and his men were astounded at the fighting spirit of the English. It made them afraid. Roger Williams sent word to them that there were still ten thousand white men left who could carry muskets, and should all these be slain, the great father in England could send ten thousand more. Williams hoped that the Narragansetts would be willing to make peace, but they held out a few months longer. In March, Canonchet was captured, and this broke their power.

The real Indian character was well shown in these days. Many Indians had supposedly become Christians. The Rev. John Eliot and Roger Williams believed in their genuine conversion. But the blood of the savage proved stronger than their grasp of the Christian religion, for many of these "praying Indians" proved as treacherous as their heathen brothers. The Christian Indians were trusted, and had access to the English villages and homes, but they often used their privileges only to betray those who had befriended them. They acted as spies and were responsible for some of the most shocking cases of kidnapping of English women and children by the savages.

Indian raids and massacres, largely instigated by Philip, had extended all through the settlements even into Maine and New Hampshire. The colonists now concentrated their efforts against Philip. The Wampanoags were captured and killed whenever possible. Some showed an inclination to desert Philip and serve the English. One Indian who advised Philip to surrender was struck dead. His brother at once went to Captain Church and offered to lead him to Philip's hiding place. With a small band he found Philip in a swamp, and the great Indian sachem

was then shot by an Indian. This was early on the morning of August 12, 1676.

Philip's death ended the war in southern New England. The Indians in that section were practically exterminated. But this result had cost New England dear. Thirteen villages had been totally destroyed, and forty others had suffered from fire. About seven or eight hundred fighting men had been killed, while many women and children had been captured or killed by the Indians. There were few families or individuals that had not lost some relative. The war debt of Plymouth was more than the total amount of the personal property of the colony; that of the other colonies was also great. But King Philip's War was a greater loss to the Indians; their power was broken, and henceforth they appear in New England history only as allies of the French.

Topical Outline. — Massasoit's sons, Alexander and Philip. The Indians disliked increase of white settlers and sale of hunting lands. Why Philip went to war. Attacks on Swansea, Brookfield, Deerfield, Hadley. The attack on the Narragansetts. Work of Roger Williams. Philip's death. End of the war.

For Written Work. — I. Tell the story of the Gray Champion at Hadley. II. Suppose you were a little boy living in New England. Tell of the daily life in fear of the Indians.

NATHANIEL BACON—THE GREAT REBELLION

You remémber that Virginia became a very prosperous colony. Tobacco was a valuable product and was raised in large quantities. Some negro slaves were brought in as field laborers, but for many years most of the work was done by white servants. Poles and Germans introduced glass making and other manufactures. As early as 1619



Slaves rolling tobacco to market.

the House of Burgesses was established. This was an assembly of representatives to make the laws, because the estates were so large and distances were so great that all the colonists could not meet together.

In 1642, Sir William Berkeley was sent out to Virginia as governor, and he served as such for many years. When appointed governor, he was about forty years old. He was well educated and as a private gentleman was much liked, but as governor his ideas were too despotic for a

new country. He believed that as he was the king's representative in Virginia, he should rule like a king. He had an estate of a thousand acres, called "Greenspring," not far from Jamestown, where he lived and entertained his friends in royal style. He was an aristocrat, believing that people were born to different social ranks. His opinions about education sound strange to us to-day, but they are perfectly in harmony with his ideas of government. In a report to his king he made the following statement: "I thank God there are no free schools [in Virginia] nor printing, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience into the world, and printing has divulged them, and libels against the best government. God keep us from both." He believed that only gentlemen's sons should be educated.

In 1670, a law was made limiting the right to vote to householders. This law deprived many young men of the right to share in electing representatives. Governor Berkeley was rightly considered responsible for it. As the growing of tobacco increased, and the planters were making money, the government required a tax to be paid when the tobacco was shipped from Virginia, and another when it landed in England. Besides these taxes, the planters were obliged to ship all the tobacco in English vessels, and to pay whatever freight the master of the ship charged. In this way the profits of the planter were cut down. There were other forms of unjust taxation, and the people became restless; but Governor Berkeley said that the government had a right to make any laws, and that the people should not complain.

It was while the people were in this state of mind that

the Indian tribes along the frontier became troublesome. Jealous of the colonists, who were ever advancing into their territory, the Indians murdered people and burned crops and buildings, and made the life of the people in the border plantations very unsafe. A few forts with small garrisons of soldiers were supposed to protect the settlers, but they really did very little good. In the spring of 1676, there had been much disturbance, and five hundred Virginians were ready to march against the Indians, but Governor Berkeley refused to allow them, saying that the forts furnished sufficient protection.

One of the planters, owning a large estate lying on the frontier between the English settlements of Virginia and the Indian country, was Nathaniel Bacon. He was the youngest member of the governor's council, and was well educated. Young Bacon had large business interests, and was generally very much liked by all classes.

In May, 1676, the Indians made a raid over his plantation, killing his overseer and some servants, and burning some buildings. Bacon and his neighbors felt it was time that efforts were made to drive the Indians out of the country. They banded together, and selected Bacon as their leader. The situation was pressing. Homes and families were at the mercy of the bloodthirsty savages. The planters felt that they were justified in arming in self-defense. Bacon accepted the command, sent to Governor Berkeley a statement of the need, and asked for a commission as military commander of this volunteer company to fight the Indians. Governor Berkeley, safe at Jamestown, did not realize the terrible anxiety of the people who lived in constant danger of Indian raids. He

knew the people had many complaints against the government, and he feared to have them organized and armed, for they might turn against him after the Indians were disposed of, so he did not send a commission to Bacon. The Indians were still hostile and unchecked. Bacon led his men out against them without the governor's permission. The undertaking was successful; one hundred and fifty Indians were killed, and many were taken prisoners. The rest of the tribe were driven to the mountains. When this was done, Bacon and the planters returned home.

Governor Berkeley, on hearing that he had been disobeyed, declared Bacon a rebel. As the news spread, the people sided with Bacon. Governor Berkeley knew this, and wanted to pacify and win them to his side. He announced that as the people seemed dissatisfied with the laws made by the present House of Burgesses, a new election would be held. This resulted in a House which not only sided with Bacon, but included Bacon himself as one of the members.

To elect to the House a man declared a rebel, was open defiance of the governor. Bacon went to Jamestown to take his seat in the assembly, and was arrested at once. He was taken into the presence of Governor Berkeley. The interview must have been interesting. The stately governor, over seventy, felt that his authority had been ignored, and feared the results of any toleration of lawlessness. Before him was a prisoner, the vigorous young Bacon of twenty-eight, whose home and property had suffered from the Indians, and who felt that the government had not done its duty, and that it was the right of the people to protect themselves against the Indians.

Each man felt injured, but maintained a dignified manner. The governor said : —

“Mr. Bacon, have you forgot to be a gentleman?” “No, may it please your honor,” Bacon replied. “Then I’ll take your parole,” said the governor. It looked then as if the trouble were over, but Governor Berkeley demanded that Bacon should apologize for his conduct, on his knees in the presence of the governor and the council. Bacon not only apologized, but promised “to behave dutifully, faithfully, and peacefully in the future.” He was then publicly pardoned by the governor and promised a commission as general of the Indian wars.

When it became known that Bacon had been arrested, his friends poured into Jamestown, and when he was compelled to apologize on his knees, these friends resented it. The new House of Burgesses began to talk about repealing tax laws and extending the right to vote. Governor Berkeley saw plainly that Bacon was a popular hero and a powerful man. The governor feared to give Bacon either a commission or his liberty, and after a few days he made his plans to re-arrest him. Bacon was warned in time, and fled from Jamestown. In three or four days he returned, marching at the head of six hundred armed men. The country was shouting the name of Bacon everywhere.

The governor tried to order out the regular soldiers to stop the advance of Bacon, but the soldiers, too, were on the other side, and they delayed until Bacon and his men marched unhindered straight to the statehouse. The rebels halted on the green, and the fearless white-haired old governor walked out alone to meet them. Stepping up to Bacon, the governor said, “Shoot me.” Bacon

replied, "No, may it please your honor, we will not hurt a hair of your head, nor of any other man's. We are come here for a commission to save our lives from the Indians which you have so often promised, and now we will have it before we go." The commission was given,



Governor Berkeley and Bacon.

and Bacon and his six hundred men marched out of Jamestown to the Indian country.

They had not been gone long when Governor Berkeley, after brooding over the incident, again declared Bacon a rebel. The governor considered Bacon's conduct a serious offense against good government. The proclamation that he was for the second time declared a rebel reached Bacon after a successful campaign against the Indians. He returned to Jamestown, where Governor Berkeley had collected troops. A fight ensued. The governor retreated,

and Bacon burned the town. The assembly passed laws framed by Bacon, which were to provide a better government. These were long known as "Bacon's Laws."

All this happened within a few weeks, but it meant a great deal. It was a rebellion. It was an armed rising of the people against a government that did not protect the governed.

A hundred years later a Virginian, in drafting the Declaration of Independence, said: "All people have the rights of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness. Governments are instituted among men to secure these rights. If the government fails, it is the right of the governed to alter or replace such government." Bacon believed it the duty of the people to alter the government of Virginia. Arming in defense against the Indians was one step, and Bacon's Laws were the second step. He probably would have done much more, had his life been spared. But exposure and the hard life during the summer had brought on a fever from which he died in October of 1676, less than six months after the first expedition against the Indians. His friends were so afraid that Governor Berkeley would hang Bacon's dead body to a gibbet as a traitor that they secretly sank the coffin in the York River.

After the death of Bacon, his followers disbanded. But the governor did not let them all go back to their plantations. Some were arrested and put in prison, twenty-three were executed, and many more were deprived of their property. The old governor grew bitter and merciless. Charles II said of him, "That old fool has hanged more men in that naked country than I have done for

the murder of my father." Such bitter complaints were made that Governor Berkeley was recalled to England, where he died in July, 1677.

Governor Berkeley's ideas belonged to the past, and to monarchy. They were unsuited to the life of a new and unsettled country. He was a bit of the Old World set down in a wilderness, whose life he could not understand. The young and impetuous Bacon saw the needs of the people, of whom he was one. He was the product of the New World and the new conditions, and had no patience with a governing machine that existed not for the benefit of the people, but for those having the government in charge. Bacon's Laws were largely repealed, and old laws revived, but the people of Virginia never forgot the meaning of Bacon's Rebellion, and the governors knew what the people might do if occasion demanded.

Topical Outline. — Prosperity of Virginia. Governor Berkeley and his aristocratic ideas. Severe laws. Danger from Indian raids. The attack on Bacon's estate. What Governor Berkeley did. What Bacon and other planters did. The new election. The quarrel between Bacon and Berkeley. Jamestown burned. Bacon's laws. Bacon's death.

For Written Work. — I. Governor Berkeley writes to an English friend telling what he thinks of Bacon. II. Bacon gives his reasons for his conduct.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN — STATESMAN, SCIENTIST, WRITER

IN 1706 in the little city of Boston, Massachusetts, a child was born who was destined to become famous. His name was Benjamin Franklin. Benjamin's parents came from sturdy English stock and were sober, industrious people. He inherited from them a sound body and an active mind, but not much else, for the household was large and there were many little ones to feed and clothe. In a family of seventeen children he was the youngest boy, so you see he had plenty of playmates at home. When he was eight years old, Benjamin was sent to the Boston Grammar School, where he remained for two years. His father thought of fitting him for the ministry, but Benjamin, like many boys in seaport towns, wanted to be a sailor. This desire was greatly increased, because at the age of ten years young Franklin was taken out of school and put at work in his father's shop. His father was a candle maker, and Benjamin was soon busy learning the trade. This became so distasteful that his father, in order to keep him from running away to sea, determined to find some work the boy would like.

So Benjamin was taken about Boston where he could see carpenters, bricklayers, and other laborers at work, with the hope that he would select a trade in which he might succeed.

It may seem strange to you that so young a boy was obliged to earn his own living. In those days, however, most children were expected to help in the support of the family. This was why Franklin was taken from school at an age when boys nowadays are busy with their books. He was an active boy, fond of all outdoor sports. He was



Franklin as a printer.

a good swimmer, and early showed some inventive genius, by rigging up paddles and other devices to aid him in swimming rapidly. One of his devices was a kite which helped to draw him through the water when he held the string.

He seems also to have been very fond of

reading. Fortunately, the few books to which he had access were good ones — such as “Robinson Crusoe,” Plutarch’s “Lives,” and “Pilgrim’s Progress.” It was this marked taste for reading that finally determined Benjamin’s choice of a trade. His half-brother, James Franklin, was a printer, and to him Benjamin was apprenticed. The boy

now learned to set type, and also made good use of his greater opportunity to read. He was soon deep in such hard books as Locke's "Essay on the Human Understanding" and Addison's "Spectator." He made a careful study of the "Spectator" in order that he might learn to write well. He would read one of the essays, then close the book and attempt to rewrite it in his own words. Then by comparing his work with the original he would see his mistakes. In this way he trained himself to speak and write simply and clearly.

When Benjamin was fifteen years of age, his brother began to print the "New England Courant," one of the first newspapers published in America, and for this paper Benjamin wrote some articles. He was afraid that if he were known as their author, they would not be accepted, so he used to put them at night under the door of the printing house. When several had been accepted and printed, he acknowledged their authorship. About this time James Franklin got into trouble with the government about some criticisms which the "Courant" made of the officers, and it became necessary to publish the paper under Benjamin's name. This arrangement was continued for about a year. During this time the elder brother treated Benjamin with severity, and the feeling of bitterness which had gradually been aroused between the two became so strong that Benjamin made up his mind to leave his brother's employ. Being unable to find work in Boston, largely through his brother's opposition, young Franklin resolved to seek his fortune elsewhere.

He first went on a sailing vessel to New York, but there, also, he was unable to find employment. Benjamin was

a boy who was not easily discouraged, and when some one told him that there was more opportunity in Philadelphia, he determined to go there. After a rough passage by boat, he reached Perth Amboy, New Jersey, and started to walk the rest of the distance. At Burlington he found a boat that was going down the river to Philadelphia, and he was permitted to go in it. When he reached Philadelphia, weary and hungry, he had but a silver dollar in his pocket. He tells the story of how he bought three rolls of bread and started up Market Street with a roll under each arm and eating the third. In the doorway of one of the houses he passed, a young girl was standing. Her name was Deborah Read, and she little thought that the awkward boy at whom she laughed would in a few years become her husband.

Franklin found employment at his trade and worked so faithfully that he was soon noticed by prominent people in the colony. The governor, Sir William Keith, took an especial liking to the boy and offered to help set him up in business. So in 1724 young Franklin, encouraged by Keith's promises, started for England to buy a press and some type. It was a long journey for an eighteen-year-old boy to make, and on his arrival in London he was greatly disappointed to find that the governor had not kept his promise to furnish letters and money for the enterprise. Many boys set adrift in a great city and in a strange land would have given up in despair, but Benjamin went pluckily at work at his printer's trade. Early in life he drew up for his own guidance and self-improvement some "Rules of Conduct," and these he faithfully followed, both in times of prosperity and in times of trouble, even when an old man.

Two years later, having saved some money, Franklin returned to Philadelphia and soon set up for himself as a printer. In 1729, he bought the "Pennsylvania Gazette," and from that time prospered. The paper soon had the largest circulation in the colonies. Franklin engaged also in a general printing and stationery business, and in 1732 began the publication of an almanac which he called "Poor Richard's Almanac." This he continued for twenty-five years with an average annual sale of ten thousand copies. The sayings of Poor Richard which were scattered through the pages of this almanac each year, made Franklin famous. No book ever published in America has had greater influence in teaching the people habits of thrift and honesty. Every boy and girl should know and understand some of these wise proverbs, which are still commonly quoted to-day : —

"Little strokes fell great oaks."

"Lost time is never found again."

"One to-day is worth two to-morrows."

"He that hath a trade hath an estate."

"God helps those that help themselves."

"Diligence is the mother of good luck."

"Early to bed and early to rise,

Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise."

"Keep thy shop and thy shop will keep thee."

"Rather go to bed supperless than rise in debt."

"Want of care does us more damage than want of knowledge."

"Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other."

"He that riseth late must trot all day and shall scarce overtake his business at night."

"But dost thou love life, then do not squander time, for that is the stuff life is made of."

Franklin at once began to take an interest in public

affairs. He organized a literary club of young men which was called the "Junto," and this came to be in later years the great Philadelphia library. He founded the first fire company in America. He organized the police force of

the city and aided in starting an academy which is now the University of Pennsylvania. In the public affairs of both city and colony he was prominent, for the people trusted him. He became postmaster of Philadelphia, and a member of the colonial legislature, and afterward postmaster-general of all the colonies.



Franklin and the kite.

Indeed, it would be difficult to name all the public offices he filled, always with honor.

Franklin believed that a man should make enough money to live on comfortably before he was past middle age, and then devote himself to public interests. So he practically retired from business when he was but forty-

two years old. He turned, then, to the study of the sciences, in which he had been always greatly interested. He invented an open stove to give more heat with less wood than was required by the fireplaces then in use. He showed how farmers could raise better crops by using fertilizers. He advised the use of oil to quiet the waves during a storm. But the greatest discovery he ever made was his proof that lightning is the same thing as electricity. Making a kite out of silk and flying it with a hempen cord, he was able to draw so much electricity from a thunder cloud that he could get sparks from an iron key which was fastened to the kite string. As a result of this, he invented the lightning rod. These discoveries and inventions made him world-famous.

He was soon called upon for other public services. The French and Indian War was threatening, and in 1754 he met at Albany with delegates from other colonies to make plans for this war. Here he offered a "Plan of Union" for a general government of the colonies, which was approved by the delegates at Albany, but was not adopted by the colonies. He also used his influence to aid General Braddock in getting supplies for the unfortunate expedition against Fort Duquesne.

In 1757, he was sent to London as the representative of the colony of Pennsylvania, and was received with great honor in the city where thirty years before he had worked as a poor printer boy.

After the close of the French and Indian War, the English government commenced that series of laws unjustly taxing the colonies, which finally led to the American Revolution. The first of these was the Stamp Act, and

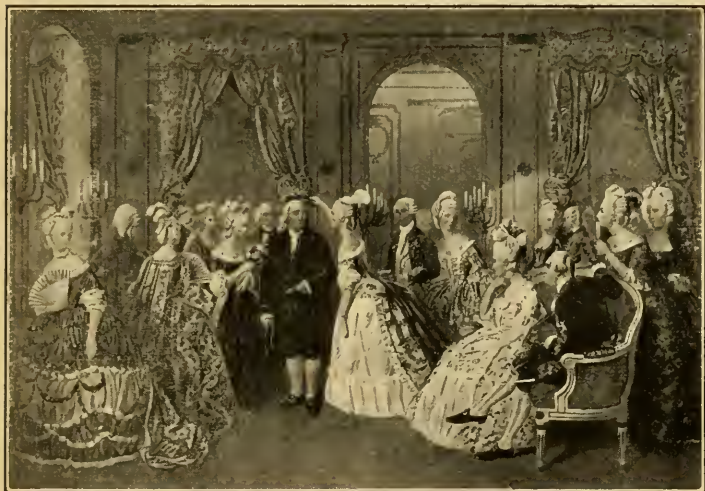
Franklin acted as agent for several colonies in opposing this act and other measures against the colonies. He stayed in London for many years trying to avert the war. At last in 1775, when he saw that a reconciliation between the king and the colonies was impossible, he sailed for home.

War had begun when he reached Philadelphia, the battle of Lexington had been fought, and the Americans had commenced to make earnest preparations for the conflict. Franklin was at once elected a member of the second Continental Congress, and took an active part in its work. He was a member of the committee which drafted the Declaration of Independence, and when he signed it on July 4, 1776, he said, with grim humor, "Now, gentlemen, we must all hang together, or assuredly we shall all hang separately."

It was felt by Congress that in view of Franklin's long residence abroad and his wide acquaintance with public men, he was best fitted to represent the cause of the colonies there, so he was sent to France in the hope that he could get that powerful nation to help us in the struggle. He soon gained the friendship of the king, the statesmen, and the people, and in 1778 secured an open treaty by which France gave aid to the United States. He remained in Paris until the close of the war, and in 1783 was one of those who arranged and signed the treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States.

Returning to America in 1785, he expected to pass the few remaining years of his life in peace and quiet. He was now a very old man, but his fellow-citizens insisted upon further public service, and elected him governor of

Pennsylvania. Two years later he was the oldest member of that great convention which met in Philadelphia and drafted the Constitution of the United States. He said of himself at this time, "I seem to have intruded myself into the company of posterity when I ought to have been abed and asleep."



Franklin at the French court.

But he lived long enough to see the country he loved so well and served so faithfully an independent nation, with its people contented and free, and the blessings of liberty and union, for which he had struggled, assured to them. He died April 17, 1790, honored as no other American had been, with the possible exception of Washington.

Many men have become famous as soldiers or statesmen or writers, but very few have achieved marked success in

more than one kind of endeavor. Franklin was one of those few great ones in the world's history. His fame is many-sided. He was the greatest statesman, the greatest scientist, and the greatest author America produced in the eighteenth century.

Topical Outline. — Franklin's early life, work and play, apprenticeship, love for reading. Why he left home and sought work in New York and Philadelphia. The journey to London and its results.

Franklin's work as an author and publisher. "Poor Richard's Almanac" and its influence on the American people.

Franklin's work as a scientist and man of public spirit. His inventions and public benefactions.

Franklin's work as a statesman. The Albany Plan of Union. The Stamp Act proceedings. Agent of colonies in England. Member of Continental Congress. Declaration of Independence. Getting aid from France. Signing treaties with France and England. Governor of Pennsylvania. The Constitutional Convention.

For Written Work. — Tell how you think Franklin came to be a great man. Show how his good habits, his love for reading, and his strong traits of character aided him to become successful.

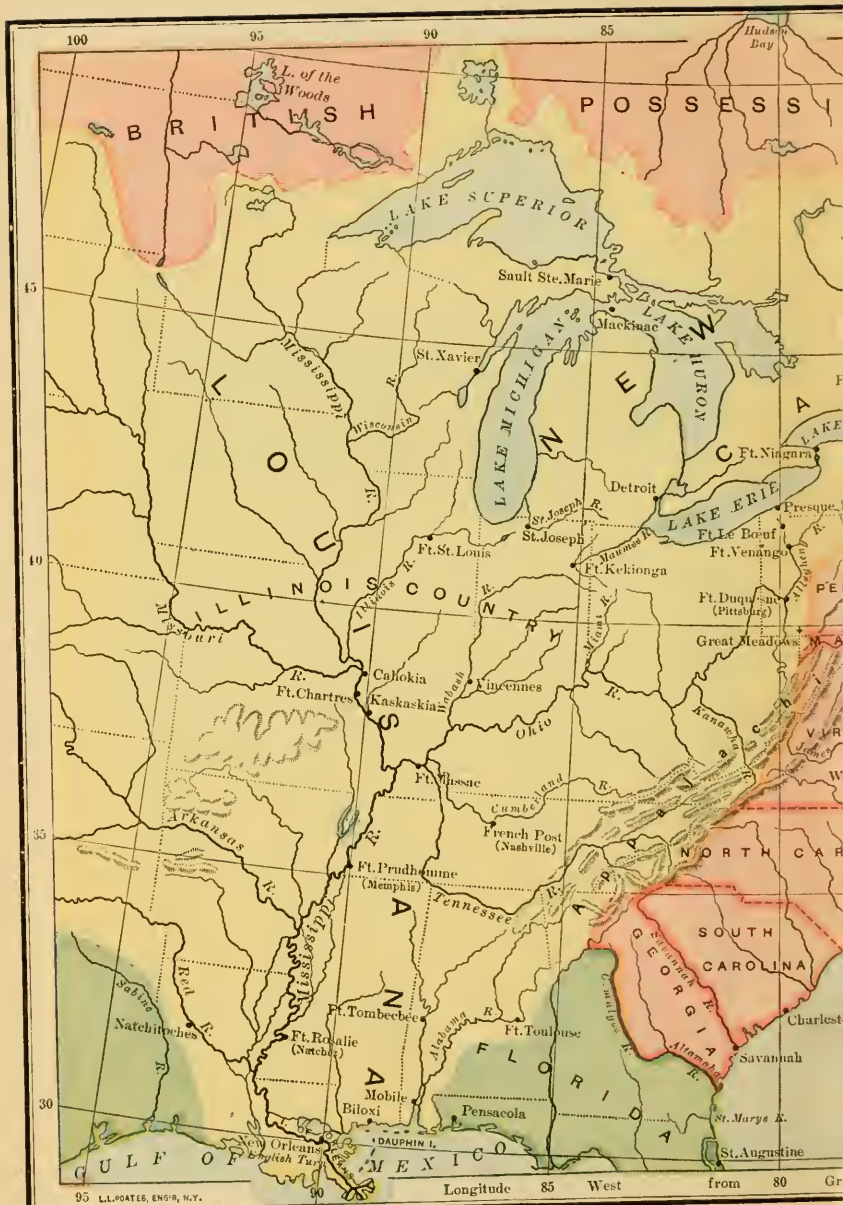
Map Work. — Trace Franklin's first journey from Boston to Philadelphia (pp. 263, 264; map, p. 229).

AUGUST hath xxxi Days.

D. H.			Planets Places.							
New	D	3	8 aft.	D.	☉	☿	♈	♉	♊	D.L.
First Q.	11	11	aft.		♈	♉	♊	♋	♌	
Full	●	18	8 aft.	1	9	2	10	4	0	13 S. 1
Last Q.	25	at noon.		6	14	2	10	7	6	23 N. 4
8 {	1	25	Deg.	12	19	2	10	10	13	24 4
	11	24		17	24	1	10	14	19	13 S. 1
	21	24		22	29	1	11	17	25	21 5
				27	24	1	11	20	28	1



D. H. rise) sou. (T.			Richard says, 'Tis foolish to lay out Money							
12	27	10	12	12	21	in a Purchase of Repen ^t ance; and yet this				
2	Moon	11	2	1	22	Folly is practised every Day at Vendues,				
3	sets.	11	51	2	23	for want of minding the Almanack.				
4	A.	12	37	3	24	Wise Men, as Poor Dick says, learn by				
5	8	17	1	23	25	others Harms, Fools scarcely by their own;				
6	8	47	2	7	26	but, Felix quem faciunt aliena Pericula				
7	9	15	2	51	27	cautum. Many a one, for the Sake of				
8	9	40	3	32	28	Finery on the Back, have gone with a				
9	10	84	14	6	29	hungry Belly, and half starved their Fa-				
10	10	33	4	57	30	milies; Silks and Sattins, Scarlet and Vel-				
11	11	55	40	8	31	vets, as Poor Richard says, put out the				
12	11	41	6	26	8	Kitchen Fire. These are not the Necessa-				
13	Morn	7	17	9	9	ries of Life; they can scarcely be called				
14	12	15	8	10	10	the Conveniencies, and yet only because				
15	1	39	8	11	4	they look pretty, how many want to				
16	2	10	6	12	5	have them. The artificial Wants of Man-				
17	Moon	11	7	1	6	kind thus become more numerous than				
18	rises	Morn	1	7	7	the natural; and, as Poor Dick says, For				
19	A.	12	8	2	8	one poor Person, there are an hundred in-				
20	3	10	1	7	3	digent. By these, and other Extrava-				
21	8	46	2	6	4	ganoies, the Genteel are reduced to Po-				
22	9	19	0	5	11	verty, and forced to borrow of those				
23	9	53	3	49	12	whom they formerly despised, but who				
24	10	33	4	42	13	through Industry and Frugality have main-				
25	11	14	5	34	14	tained their Standing; in which Case it				
26	11	54	6	25	15	appears plainly, that a Ploughman on his				
27	Morn	7	1	9	16	Legs is bigger than a Gentleman on his				
28	12	28	8	8	17	Knees, as Poor Richard says. Perhaps				
29	1	22	9	0	18	they have had a small Estate left them.				
30	2	18	9	49	12					
31	3	19	10	37	1	D which				





GENERAL BRADDOCK AND FORT DUQUESNE

WE recall that Cartier and Champlain explored the St. Lawrence River, and took the land in the name of the king of France. The towns of Montreal and Quebec were settled by the French, and in a few years many French homes and farms were scattered along the river between these two cities, and some farther west. We recall also that La Salle, another Frenchman, explored the Mississippi River and took that valley in the name of the king of France. New Orleans was founded, and many forts and trading posts sprang up along the river. The French possessions reached from the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the northeast, to the Gulf of Mexico in the south. But Montreal and Quebec were separated from New Orleans by miles of unsettled wilderness.

The English colonies stretched in a narrow strip along the Atlantic coast from Maine to Florida. As the English grew rapidly in population, their settlements spread to the Appalachian Mountains. The easiest places to cross this barrier were along the valleys of the Hudson River and Lake Champlain, and by passes over the Allegheny Mountains, between the Potomac and Ohio valleys. Lake Champlain was held by the French. But in the Ohio valley the king of England granted many thousand square miles of rich farm lands to a company of Virginians, called the Ohio Company. While English settlers were preparing to occupy this territory, the French began to build

forts along the river banks. The English had long had good reason to hate the French, for many of the Indian raids and massacres had been prompted by the French, who wanted the whole of America for themselves. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, sent George Washington out to the Ohio valley to demand of the French that they withdraw from the land claimed by the English. The



Fort Duquesne.

French commander sent back a curt reply that the land in question belonged to France, as it was part of the Mississippi valley. Two hostile peoples claimed the same land.

Governor Dinwiddie then sent a company of men to build a fort at the place where the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers unite to form the Ohio. Before the work was finished they were compelled to surrender to the French, who completed the fort and named it Fort Duquesne. Washington was returning with 400 men when this word

reached him. He pushed on to a place called Great Meadows, where he hurriedly built Fort Necessity. Early in July, 1754, he was attacked by a much larger French force and after nine hours of fighting surrendered the fort on good terms. He and his men returned to Virginia, and made ready for war. The governor of Virginia raised soldiers at home, and sent to England for more. The English government in 1755 sent out a thousand regulars under General Braddock.

General Edward Braddock had been in the English army since 1710, a service of forty-five years. He had served faithfully on many foreign battle fields. His experience, however, had been with the disciplined armies of civilized nations. He was no longer young, and habits formed and long practiced were hard to change. The warfare in the New World offered problems that were more difficult for him than they would have been for a younger and less experienced man.

Soon after landing in Virginia, General Braddock called a council of the governors of the English colonies and other distinguished men. This council determined on a plan of war. It was decided to attack several French strongholds at the same time. This meant that a large army must be raised by the colonies and divided into sections to act independently of each other.

Braddock commanded the expedition against Fort Duquesne. His army consisted of the British regulars and some Virginia volunteers. After many delays, these men gathered horses, wagons, and supplies, and in May, 1755, started on their long march. They had to cut their way through the forests and over the mountains of Maryland

and western Pennsylvania. Their line of march usually extended about four miles. The historian Parkman says, "It was like a thin, long, party-colored snake, red, blue, and brown, trailing slowly through the depth of leaves, creeping round inaccessible heights, crawling over bridges, moving always in dampness and shadow, by rivulets and waterfalls, crags and chasms, gorges and shaggy steeps."

On the march, word reached them that a fresh body of French troops was rapidly approaching Fort Duquesne from Canada. Washington then advised Braddock to leave the heavy baggage in the rear and to push on with a smaller company of the best troops. The advice was taken, and Washington wrote his brother, "The prospect conveyed infinite delight to my mind, though I was excessively ill at the time. But this prospect was soon clouded, and my hopes brought low indeed when I found that, instead of pushing on with vigor, without regarding a little rough road, they were halting to level every molehill, and to erect bridges over every brook, by which means we were four days in getting twelve miles." Indeed, it was July before they came near Fort Duquesne.

This fort stood on the point of land at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, having water on two sides. The other two sides were protected by ramparts, ten feet thick, of squared logs filled in with earth. A stockade of upright logs twelve feet high, very closely set and tightly fastened together, protected the two water sides. The forest near by had been cleared, so that no enemy could approach the fort without being exposed to the fire of the French guns. The garrison consisted of several companies of French regulars,

Canadian colonists, and at least eight hundred Indian allies.

An Indian runner brought word to the fort that Braddock was approaching. The French commander determined to meet him and prevent an attack on the fort. A part of the army was left at Fort Duquesne, while about nine hundred French, Canadians, and Indians started out to meet the advancing English. It was not long before the orderly array of English regulars in their red coats, and the Virginians in blue, were clearly seen through the trees. The French and Indians rushed into the woods on each side of the road by which the army was approaching. A few shots from the Indians gave warning to the English that the enemy was at hand. They halted and fired a volley. This was useless, for neither an Indian nor a Frenchman could be seen, as they were hidden by trees, or in ravines. The English and the Virginians, on the other hand, were massed in platoons in a narrow roadway, and furnished an easy mark for the shots of the enemy. The Virginians understood the situation, and, like Indians, scattered to cover and shot from behind trees, stones, and stumps; but the English regulars became confused and huddled together, cowering under the shower of bullets. After a little, the regulars recovered themselves and tried to follow the example of the Virginians and get shelter; but Braddock, fearless and furious, dashed up and down the line, calling the men cowards, and shouting orders to hold ranks and fire. One report of the battle says that the English firing did much damage to trees, but little to the enemy.

Four horses were shot under Braddock. Washington,

though only twenty-three, was equally conspicuous. Two horses were killed under him, and his clothes were torn by four bullets, yet he escaped without a wound. Washington urged Braddock to order the men to adopt the Indian and French methods, but Braddock scorned such advice.

The fighting lasted three hours. Of eighty-six English



Braddock's defeat.

officers, sixty-three were either killed or wounded, and more than half of the privates were killed. Braddock then ordered a retreat. The English regulars, frenzied from their awful experience, fled in a panic, throwing away their weapons as they went. As General Braddock was trying to bring order out of this confusion, he was wounded and fell from his horse. Washington and the Virginians then covered the retreat of the English regulars until they were safely on their way to Philadelphia.

Braddock suffered greatly for several days before his wound proved fatal. His mind appeared clear, and occasionally he would talk. Once he said, "We shall know better how to deal with them another time." Evidently in his last hours he realized the wisdom of Washington's advice, for he warmly praised the conduct of the Virginia troops. When he died, his men buried him in the road, and the soldiers and baggage train passed over his grave to destroy every trace, so that the Indians should not discover it.

Washington was soon put in command of the troops to protect this part of the frontier, and a few years later Fort Duquesne was taken by another English army, in which Washington was one of the leaders.

Topical Outline. — The French on the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. English colonies along the Atlantic coast. Rival claims to the Ohio valley. War between English and French. Braddock and the English regulars. The plan of war. Braddock's defeat and death.

For Written Work. — I. As an English soldier, tell of your experience on the day of the battle. II. Let Braddock tell why he considered it cowardly to seek shelter from the enemy's bullets.

MONTCALM, THE FRENCH GENERAL

WHEN war between the French and the English in America was declared, the French sent a small army of twelve hundred regular troops to the New World under the command of Montcalm. He was to act as commander in chief of Canadians and Indians as well as other French colonists and regular troops. He was to plan defenses of important points and carry on both defensive and aggressive warfare. He was a man well fitted for this difficult work.

Montcalm entered the French army at the age of fifteen and had served twenty-nine years when he was sent to Canada. When still a schoolboy, he wrote his father what his aim in life should be: "First, to be an honorable man, of good morals, brave, and a Christian. Secondly, to read in moderation; to know as much Greek and Latin as most men of the world; also arithmetic, history, geography, arts, and sciences. Thirdly, and above all, to be obedient, docile, and very submissive to your orders and to those of my dear mother." This boyish ideal influenced his whole life, and men believed that he was as good as he had hoped to be.



A French soldier.

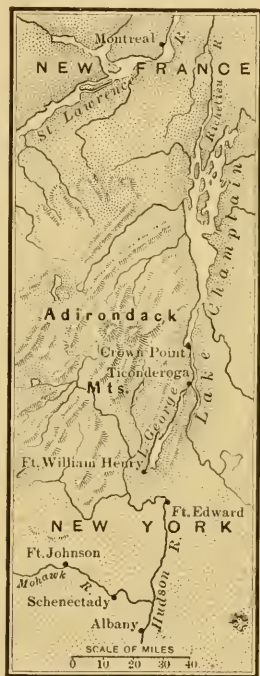
Montcalm and his troops left France in April, 1756, and endured a very cold and stormy voyage of seven weeks before they reached Quebec. After examining and improving the defenses of Quebec, Montcalm moved up the river to Montreal, where he spent the greater part of his time for two years.

One day in the summer of 1756, Indian runners brought word that the English were preparing to attack the French forts on Lake Champlain. Montcalm at once sent reënforcements to strengthen the garrisons, and a band of French and Indians pushed on to meet the English. A young French captain in this division of the army wrote to his father: "The forests are full of game, ducks, geese, wild partridges, bears, and beavers. . . . We are making here a place that history will not forget. The English colonies have ten times more people than ours; but the wretches have not the least knowledge of war; and if they go out to fight they must abandon wife, children, and all they possess. . . . It is incredible what a quantity of scalps the Indians bring us. These miserable English are in the extremity of distress, and repent too late the unjust war they began against us." But the English attack was delayed; instead Montcalm hastened to Oswego, and captured and destroyed the fort which the English had built there.

Next year Montcalm led an expedition against Fort William Henry, which was held by Colonel Monro with twenty-two hundred men. With the aid of his Indian allies Montcalm was able to surprise and capture the outposts and burn the barracks around the fort. He then summoned Colonel Monro to surrender. Monro expected help from General

Webb, who was at Fort Edward, but a few miles away, with sixteen hundred more men; he replied, "I will defend my trust to the last extremity." The French opened fire. No help came from Webb. The small band of English in Fort William Henry made a brave defense through a six days' siege. Half of their guns had burst, and their ammunition was almost gone. Colonel Monro knew there was no hope, and surrendered.

Montcalm required the Indian allies to attend the council, in order to make terms of surrender binding on them, as well as on the French and English. "The garrison were to march out with the honors of war, carrying their private effects and delivering up the fort with the intrenched camp, artillery, and provisions to his most Christian majesty, the King of France." It was further agreed that the English garrison should not take up arms again in eighteen months, and that they should be given a French



Forts in northern New York.

escort to Fort Edward. But next morning, when the English survivors with their arms and baggage started on their march, the Indians fell upon them. Attacked so unexpectedly, the soldiers were thrown into a panic and became separated. Many were killed, and six hundred were taken captive by the Indians. Montcalm was unable

to control the Indians; but he afterward secured the release of more than half the prisoners. News of this massacre aroused the colonists from New England to the Carolinas.

The next year the English collected a very large force and attacked the French at Ticonderoga, but again were defeated.

Thus far, the French had been successful. After two years of fighting, nothing had been gained by the English. The English government had sent out incapable men, and the colonists had been greatly divided on questions connected with the war. Repeated reverses and shocking massacres like that at Fort William Henry led both the English government and the colonial governments to adopt better methods. New and better officers were sent out from England, and more soldiers were raised in the colonies. Very soon there was a change, and for the next two years the victories were more largely English than French.

First and most important of these English victories was the capture of Louisburg, the stronghold which commanded the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Next, in spite of Montcalm's able efforts, Fort Frontenac and Fort Duquesne were taken, and then Niagara and the forts on Lake Champlain fell into the hands of the English. In the spring of 1759 a powerful English fleet of fifty ships, with an army of eight thousand picked men under General Wolfe, started for Canada, to attack Quebec. Montcalm had expected that the English would make this move, and made ready for siege or attack. Quebec is located on a high, rocky bluff extending into a bend of the St. Law-

rence River. The situation is finely adapted by nature for defense. Montcalm placed his batteries in commanding positions and ordered all men, young and old, to the defense of the city. All told, including French regulars, Canadians, and Indians, Montcalm had at least sixteen thousand troops encamped in the city and along the river six or seven miles toward the east. Montcalm decided to remain on the defensive and to take no risks in attempting to check the advance of the English up the river.

After the English arrived, Montcalm was constantly on the watch to be ready to defend, if Wolfe attacked his position at any point. On September 2, he wrote: "The night is dark; it rains; our troops are in their tents with clothes on, ready for an alarm; I in my boots; my horses saddled. In fact, this is our usual way. I have not taken off my clothes since the 23d of June."

About this time word was received by both armies that the English had been successful at Oswego and at Ticonderoga; and that the victorious General Amherst was to move north to join Wolfe. This was disheartening to the Canadians, and Montcalm found them very difficult to control. Many deserted and furnished Wolfe valuable information as to the location and condition of French troops.

On September 13 the great battle took place, west of Quebec, of which we shall read in the next chapter. When it was over, the French and Canadians were defeated. Montcalm was wounded as he was desperately trying to rally his men. He was carried off the field, while the English pursued the fleeing French soldiers.

The hospitals where the wounded were cared for were

in the convents, where the nuns nursed English and French alike. Montcalm was carried to one near the city. When the surgeon was dressing his wound, Montcalm asked whether it was fatal. When told that it was, he appeared glad and asked how long he was likely to live. The surgeon replied that he would die in a few hours, probably. Montcalm said: "So much the better; I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." He died in the morning of September 14, and on the morning of the 18th Quebec was surrendered to the English. Montcalm was buried in the Cathedral grounds, and some one has said that "the funeral of Montcalm was also the funeral of New France."

Topical Outline. — Why Montcalm was sent to America. His work in planning defenses and organizing an army. The capture of Oswego. The capture of Fort William Henry. The massacre by Indians after the surrender. How Montcalm faced the English general Wolfe. Montcalm's death.

For Written Work. — A letter written by a soldier in Montcalm's army.

Map Work. — Locate on an outline map the line of French forts from Louisburg to Duquesne (p. 273). Locate the English forts Oswego, William Henry, and Edward (map, p. 283).

GENERAL WOLFE, THE ENGLISH COMMANDER

THE French and Indian War had been going on several years before the English government fully realized the serious situation in America. Then England came to see that the war was not a petty neighborhood quarrel, but a struggle that must determine whether France or England was to possess America. When convinced of this, she sent over a man whose qualities as a general were far greater than those of any one before intrusted with command in the New World. General James Wolfe was the man.

James Wolfe was the son of an English army officer of rank. As a child he was delicate. When a little lad he wanted to be a soldier like his father, and by the time he was fifteen he had become robust enough to enter the army. Next year his regiment was sent to wage war in Flanders, and he did what was assigned to him so well that he was regularly promoted. At twenty-three he was made lieutenant colonel.

For several years he was in service in Scotland, where



A British soldier.

he used his leisure in diligent study of Latin and mathematics. From the first of his experience he showed a remarkable ability in commanding men. It was indeed unusual that a man so young should hold so high a rank as lieutenant colonel. He realized the danger to his own character, for he says in a letter to his mother written about this time, "The fear of giving way insensibly to the temptations of power till I become proud, insolent, and intolerable,—these considerations will make me wish to leave the regiment before next winter; that by frequenting men above myself I may know my true condition." He went to Paris for six months, studied French, and saw much of the best society. While in France he also learned much about the armies of Europe and about French military methods that served him well a few years later.

In personal appearance Wolfe is described as unattractive. He was tall and very slender, with particularly narrow shoulders. He had a receding chin, an ugly nose, and a weak mouth. His hair was red and rather thin. It was not until men caught his eye that they saw really where his attraction lay. He is said to have had remarkably beautiful eyes that quickly showed the fine spirit of the man. He was of a nervous and excitable nature. Sometimes he could be very stern, and again as tender as a woman. In many respects his nature was like that of Montcalm, for whom he had a very high personal regard. Wolfe made friends easily and kept them always. Subordinate officers older than he obeyed his orders willingly, and the soldiers loved him. He was afraid of nothing, and never expected his men to go where he was not willing to lead them. Just before he left for Canada, he wrote

to his mother: "All that I wish for myself is that I may at all times be ready and firm to meet that fate we cannot shun, and to die gracefully and properly when the hour comes."

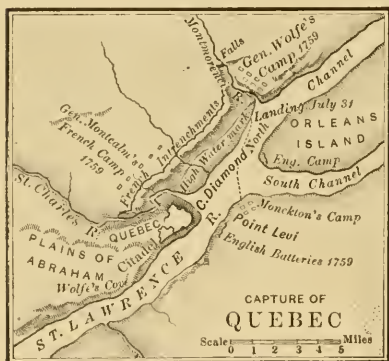
His first service in America was in the naval expedition that took Louisburg (1758). After this brief experience he returned to England and suffered a very serious attack of rheumatism. Soon after his recovery he was made major general, and in January, 1759, was given command of the expedition against Quebec. He was then only thirty-two years old. In a letter written to his uncle just before sailing, he says: "I am to act a greater part in this business than I wished. The backwardness of some of the older officers has in some measure forced the government to come down so low. I shall do my best, and leave the rest to fortune, as perforce we must when there are not the most commanding abilities. If I have health and constitution enough for the campaign, I shall think myself a lucky man; what happens afterward is of no great consequence."

When the English fleet reached the place on the St. Lawrence where the river pilots were usually taken on board, the captains ran up French flags to the mast. The pilots at once pushed out in their canoes, and were on board before they knew their error. It was hard for French pilots to be compelled to steer the enemy's boats through the dangerous channels of the St. Lawrence River. Sometimes they refused to work, but when threatened with instant death, they usually obeyed.

By the end of June the English were anchored under the shelter of the Isle of Orleans, but a few miles below Quebec. Although Wolfe was young and impetuous, he

was in no hurry to open an engagement with the French. He took safe positions and then employed trusty men to find out the strength and exact location of French troops and defenses. Before long he took possession of the shore opposite Quebec, and began to bombard the city.

Wolfe was always on the alert to test new positions. The French guns mounted on the bend of the river where the city stood were supposed to prevent the passage of



English ships. After days of study and estimating distances, Wolfe decided to test them. So one night in the middle of July, Wolfe sent six ships up the river past these guns. They escaped uninjured. This was a valuable bit of knowledge to him. Now his army could

move to any point on the river that he wished.

Wolfe issued several proclamations, calling upon the Canadians to stand neutral; if they did so, he promised protection to property and religion. At first they rejected his terms; later they wanted to accept them, but did not dare for fear of the French soldiers and Indians. This dissatisfied and unsettled state of the Canadians made them poor material for Montcalm to use in resisting the English advances.

There were several minor engagements during the sum

mer. One of the most interesting was that of the fire rafts. The governor of Canada, who was acting independently of Montcalm, thought he would try to set fire to the English fleet, which was anchored near the Isle of Orleans, about three miles downstream. He chained together several ships carrying much inflammable matter, loaded guns, and barrels of powder. This was towed out into the current of the river, then fired and directed downstream toward the English anchorage. But the French had miscalculated both time and distance, and before it had gone one third of the way, it had made so much noise that the English were aroused and on guard. They sent out some boats with grappling hooks, pulled the fiery mass out of the current, and beached it far away from the English fleet. The English soldiers afterward said that it was a pretty bit of fireworks.

In August, Wolfe was very sick with fever, but his trusted officers continued observations and reports. By September 1, Wolfe was up and around, although much weakened. One day with his telescope he was examining the cliff west of the city of Quebec, when he found that he could trace a winding path or trail up the steep bank of the river. At the top were the tents of only a few soldiers. The main part of the French army lay east of Quebec downstream for several miles. Wolfe decided to send a small band of men up this path, and if they could seize the top of the cliff he would take the main army up and attack the French in the rear. The men were to be landed at night, so as not to give warning of the proposed attack.

On September 12, all was ready. A part of the fleet

stationed itself opposite the main division of the French army and threatened to attack their position. After outlining his plans completely to his officers, Wolfe and his men started, all confident of success. All together he had about forty-eight hundred men, but it was a picked body of soldiers, well united and led by a great commander.

As night approached, Wolfe spoke to one of his friends, saying that he did not expect to survive the undertaking. There was no sadness, for he was thoroughly absorbed in his great work. If that was successful, nothing else mattered. As the boats were going silently along in the darkness, Wolfe is said to have quoted the lines from Gray's "Elegy" —

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike th' inevitable hour:
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

Then he said: "Gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec to-morrow."

As they approached the shore, a French sentry called out: "Who goes there?" The reply came back in good French, "Provision boats. Don't make a noise; the English will hear us." This quieted the sentry, for he knew that provision boats were expected that night, and their safe arrival at Quebec depended largely upon the English troops' not finding out that they were coming. This knowledge had reached the English through Canadian deserters. The landing was made a short distance from the sentry's position. The path up the cliff was steep and difficult, but the men silently climbed up. The French outpost at the top of the cliff was soon taken, and

by daylight Wolfe's men were in position on the Plains of Abraham, a little west of the city.

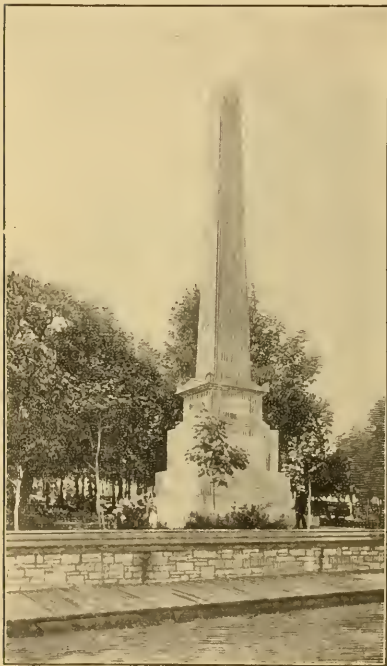
Montcalm hurried up with part of his army about eight o'clock, and at once attempted to drive the English away, but the men held their ground. The fighting was largely



The British charge at Quebec.

by infantry and with small arms; for Wolfe had been unable to drag big guns up the cliff, and Montcalm had come in too great haste to bring cannon. After a little scattered firing, Wolfe ordered the English to advance in solid ranks. They halted when but forty paces from the French. The command then rang out to fire, and volley followed volley from every English gun. As the smoke cleared away, many of the French lay dead and wounded

on the ground, while the rest began to retreat. Wolfe led another charge, and was three times wounded. The third ball entered his breast, and he staggered and fell. His



Monument to Wolfe and Montcalm.

men carried him to the rear, while he warned them not to let the main army know that he had fallen. He said he did not need a physician, for he knew that it was all over with him. Just then he heard the shout: "They run! see how they run!" "Who run?" asked Wolfe. "The enemy, sir. They give way everywhere!" "Go to Colonel Burton," said Wolfe, "and tell him to march Webb's regiment to the Charles River to cut off the retreat from the bridge." Then he sank

back and murmured, "Now, God be praised, I shall die in peace!" and in a few moments he was gone.

On the morning of September 18, Quebec was surrendered to the English. This was practically the end of the war, but the treaty of peace was not made until 1763, when France had to give up all claim to land in North America.

Both Montcalm and Wolfe were great generals. Each gave the other full credit for his ability, and they might have been warm personal friends, had their countries not been at war. Wolfe's body was soon carried to his home in England, but a monument to-day marks the place of the battle. This monument was erected to the memory of both Montcalm and Wolfe.

Topical Outline. — Wolfe entered the English army at fifteen, served at the capture of Louisburg, and in 1759 was sent to capture Quebec. After a long siege he surprised the French, September, 14, 1759, by appearing on the Plains of Abraham with his army. A battle followed, in which the English were victors; but Wolfe died on the field. Quebec surrendered September 18, 1759. End of the French and Indian War. The monument erected to Montcalm and Wolfe.

For Written Work. — I. Compare the English army with the French soldiers before Quebec. II. A little girl in Quebec describes her experiences the day of the battle.

SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON

THE boys and girls of New York ought to be proud of the history of their state. Its pleasant valleys, its noble rivers, and its beautiful lakes have witnessed many stirring scenes in the history of our country. Here the Iroquois, in their Long House, extending from the Hudson to the Niagara, lived and formed a rude but powerful republic. Around New York Bay the Dutch and the English settled and laid the foundations of the greatest of our American cities, a city destined to become the gateway to a mighty continent. Up the rugged Hudson and into the fertile plains of the Mohawk valley traders and pioneers pushed, planting little settlements wherever the land was good or the water power abundant.

In many respects New York has had a history as worthy as that of any New England colony, but New England has taken a more prominent place because many of her pioneers were men and women of education, accustomed to keep careful records, while the sturdy Dutch farmers and traders who settled New Netherland were simple folk, too much occupied with clearing their farms to care very much what people in future days would know of them and their deeds. So the stories of the old Dutch days and ways in New Amsterdam, the legends of the Hudson River, and the tales of the Iroquois have not been so often or so well told as we wish they were. In recent years, however, there has

been an increasing interest in the history of New York and in the men who have made it the Empire State.

For nearly a century after Henry Hudson sailed up the river which bears his name, the Dutch settlers clung to Long Island and the Hudson valley, but about the beginning of the eighteenth century settlements began to spring up along the lower part of the Mohawk valley. The colony was now in the hands of the English, and large tracts of the fertile lands through this valley were purchased from the king by Englishmen or by wealthy members of the colony. In this way Sir Peter Warren, an admiral in the English navy, obtained a grant on the south side of the Mohawk River between the present cities of Schenectady and Amsterdam. Not caring to look after this property personally, he sent over his nephew, William Johnson, to act as his agent. The story of this young man's life is so closely woven into the history of the colony that we should study it carefully.

William Johnson was born in Ireland in 1715. His father was an officer in a cavalry regiment, and his mother was a sister of Sir Peter. He was an active and somewhat unruly boy, keen-witted, and even in boyhood gave promise of becoming a strong man. His father wished to have him enter the army, but he chose the law instead. While studying for this profession, he fell in love with a pretty Irish girl whom his parents would not permit him to marry. It was just after this disappointment that his uncle, Sir Peter Warren, offered to send him to America as manager of the estate on the Mohawk. Johnson eagerly accepted the position. Like many other young men, he hoped to win fame and fortune in the New World.

Johnson arrived at his uncle's estate in the spring of 1738. It was a responsible position for a young man of twenty-two to take, but he set about his duties with energy and a determination to succeed. He built a storehouse and dwelling at a settlement called Warrenbush, and proceeded to make friends with his Dutch neighbors and with the Indians. Here he lived for five years, learning the language both of the Dutch and of the Indians, clearing the forest lands and selling farms. He also built up a profitable fur trade with the Indians, whom he always treated honestly.

While engaged in this work for his uncle, Johnson began to buy and clear land for himself. Several thousand acres of this land were located north of the Mohawk River and west of his uncle's property. Here, in 1743, Johnson built a stone house which is now standing, about a mile west of the present city of Amsterdam. In this mansion Johnson and his family lived for twenty years, and as he increased in wealth and influence, the old house was the scene of many gatherings of the prominent people in the colony. Here the Indians often met for counsel and were entertained as the guests of Johnson.

Harold Frederic, in his delightful story "In the Valley," thus describes the house: "At the distance of a mile or so lay Mount Johnson or Fort Johnson, as one chose to call it. It could not be seen for the intervening trees, but so important was the fact of its presence to me that I never looked eastward without seeming to behold its gray stone walls with their windows and loopholes, its stockade of logs, its two little houses on either side, its barracks for the guard upon the ridge back of the gristmill, and its accus-

tomed groups of grinning black slaves, all eyeballs and white teeth, of saturnine Indians in blankets, and of bold-faced fur traders." The house was at one time roofed with lead plates; these were melted to make bullets in the Revolution.

Within a few years after the building of this new house Johnson's first wife died, and he wooed and won Molly Brant, the daughter of a Mohawk chief and the sister of Joseph Brant, the most noted Indian of New York. She was a beautiful Indian girl of about sixteen when Johnson first saw her at a militia muster near Fort Johnson. In a spirit of fun, she asked an officer, who was riding about on a spirited horse, to let her ride behind him. To his surprise, when he consented, she leaped upon the horse's back, holding on tightly to the officer, with her dark hair flying in the wind, while the frightened horse dashed over the parade ground. The crowd cheered the daring girl, and Johnson, admiring her courage, afterward took her home as his wife. Molly Brant lived with Sir William until his death and presided over his household affairs with dignity and efficiency. She must have been a woman of forceful character, for she was always treated with respect by Sir William's friends and was called "the Brown Lady Johnson."

It was partly due to his relations with her that Johnson had so much influence with the Indians. But there were other and more important reasons for his control over them. He had hunted and fished with them; he had joined in their sports and met in their councils, and had been adopted as a member of the Mohawk tribe. In his business affairs as a trader he had been honest and fair with them.

So the Indians came to trust him more and more. A few other white men in the valley, as Arendt van Corlear and Peter Schuyler, in days gone by, had been honorable and upright in their dealings with the red men, but at this time most of the traders were unfair and dishonest, so Johnson's conduct was all the more creditable.

His influence over the Indians finally became so great, and their confidence in him so unbounded, that the governor made him Commissioner of Indian Affairs for the colony. This appointment he held, with the exception of a short time, until his death. The position was one of growing importance. For years the French in Canada and on the western frontier had been building forts and extending their territory. They laid claim to that portion of New York which is drained by the St. Lawrence River system, and had endeavored to establish themselves in New York by building forts and trading posts. In the earlier wars which the French and English had fought in America, the main protection of the colonies of New England and Pennsylvania from attacks by the French and their Indian allies was provided by the powerful Iroquois tribes who lived in central New York and who were loyal to the English. It was Johnson's duty to keep them loyal and to secure their aid. So, in 1754, when the last and greatest of these wars, the French and Indian War, was threatening, a congress of delegates from the northern colonies was held at Albany. This council was called for the purpose of making plans to protect the colonies in the coming war and to renew the treaty with the Iroquois. It was at this meeting that Benjamin Franklin presented the first definite plan for uniting the colonies that had ever been offered.

The war commenced in earnest in 1755, when the English government sent General Braddock over to take command of the forces in America. One of the land campaigns then planned was against Crown Point. It was placed in charge of William Johnson, now a major general, and he immediately set about gathering men and supplies for the campaign, and collecting them at Fort Edward. The natural route from Canada to New York was up Lakes Champlain and George and over a short "carry" to the Hudson River. The French, appreciating the importance of this route, had built a strong fort at Crown Point, near the head of Lake Champlain, and had put it under the command of Baron Dieskau. It was this fort that Johnson wished to capture in order to control the Champlain route.

Late in August, Johnson advanced to Lake George. The French general about this time was leading a force to attack Fort Edward, and on September 8, 1755, the two armies met and fought a desperate battle. Both leaders were severely wounded, and after Baron Dieskau was captured, the French retreated. On this battle field Johnson built Fort William Henry. The English government rewarded Johnson for this victory by a gift of five thousand pounds, and the king made him a baronet, so that he was thereafter called Sir William Johnson.

The next important campaign in which Johnson was engaged was in 1759, when the English moved against Fort Niagara. General Prideaux, who was in command, was accidentally killed, and Johnson took his place as leader. After a short siege the fortress was surrendered

to the English. The next year Johnson with a large number of Indians joined in the attack on Montreal.

In all of these campaigns it is worthy of note that Sir William Johnson always controlled his Indian allies and prevented the cruelties and massacres which usually marred the employment of Indians as soldiers. Probably the best example of his influence over the red men was shown after the war had ended. When the great Indian chief Pontiac was arousing all the western tribes against the colonists, Sir William Johnson was able to keep most of the Iroquois quiet, and so prevented a great Indian war in New York, that would probably have wiped out all of the settlements west of the Hudson River.

Johnson held a great council with the Indians at Fort Niagara, and two years later at Oswego he met Pontiac to bury the hatchet and smoke the pipe of peace. For his services in behalf of the colonies and England, the government gave Johnson a tract of sixty-six thousand acres north of the Mohawk. This was known as Kingsborough, or the "Royal Grant." He already owned some property in the vicinity, and had erected a manor house, known as Johnson Hall, for himself. Here a settlement of over one hundred families, mostly servants or tenants of Sir William, marked the beginning of the present prosperous city of Johnstown, New York.

Johnson always contributed liberally to public enterprises. He aided in the building of churches, and was especially interested in the education of the Indians. Several of the buildings at Johnstown erected in his time are still standing, notably the courthouse, the jail, and Johnson Hall. At Johnstown Sir William established the

first free school in the state of New York. He paid the teacher and furnished the school, and it was absolutely free to everybody. The jail and courthouse were paid for by the English government, and cost sixteen hundred pounds. The walls of the jail were made of stone and were four feet thick. The courthouse was built from brick brought



Johnson Hall, as it looks to-day.

from England, and stands to day with exterior unchanged. Chief-Justice Kent has presided in it, Aaron Burr has pleaded cases there, and so also have the great Irish orator Emmet, and later Horatio Seymour. Instead of a bell, a steel triangle hangs in the courthouse tower, and court is called by striking it with a hammer. Johnson Hall is a fine old colonial mansion. It was guarded by two block-houses, one of which is still standing. The mahogany railing of the hall stairway still shows the marks of Brant's tomahawk, made, it is said, to warn the Indians not to burn the house.

Johnson also owned over ten thousand acres of fertile land around the headwaters of the Susquehanna River. In time he came to be the master of a vast estate. Next to William Penn, he was the greatest landowner on the continent. An interesting story is current in the Mohawk valley of how he came into possession of one large tract of



Courthouse at Johnstown.

land. Old King Hendrick of the Mohawks was at his house at the time Sir William received two or three rich suits of military clothes. A short time afterward, Hendrick came to Sir William and said, "I dream." "Well, what did you dream?" "I dream you gave me one suit of clothes." "Well, I suppose you must have it," and he gave him one. Some time afterward Sir William met Hendrick and said, "I dreamed last night." "Did you? What did

you dream?" "I dreamed you gave me a tract of land," describing it. After a pause Hendrick said, "I suppose you must have it," and then raising his finger significantly, added, "You must not dream again." We do not know how true this story is, but some of the early deeds use the words "being a parcel of Sir William Johnson's dream-land tract."

One of the greatest of Johnson's public services was the negotiation of the Fort Stanwix treaty. Here, in 1768, on the site of the present city of Rome, over three thousand Indians met Sir William Johnson, and over the council fires renewed their ancient covenants with the English, and made a treaty whereby a vast territory south and east of the Ohio, Susquehanna, and Unadilla rivers was first opened to settlement. In the records of Pennsylvania is an account of the purchase by the heirs of William Penn of part of this land from the Indians for ten thousand dollars.

The later years of Johnson's life were passed quietly at Johnson Hall, where he entertained lavishly. He died there in 1774, just as the war clouds of the Revolution were gathering. It has been rumored that he committed suicide in order to avoid making a choice between the king and the colonies in the coming war. But it was not like the brave old man to shirk his duty in such a cowardly fashion. It is much more probable that he was put out of the way by some of his traitorous relatives, who would have lost their power and influence over him had he decided to aid the cause of Independence. Had he lived, we like to think that he would have sided with the colonists in their struggle for liberty. He had been sig-

nally honored by the king, but his heart was with the colonies, especially his own New York. With his great wealth, his undoubted ability, and his influence, he would have stood second only to Washington and Franklin.

Topical Outline. — Early life of Sir William Johnson. Why he came to America. His duties as manager of the estate. Johnson gradually becomes a large landholder. His influence over the Indians. Description of old Fort Johnson. Story of Molly Brant. Johnson's services to the English crown in the French and Indian War. His later life at Johnstown.

Map Work. — Draw an outline map of New York state, and on it locate Fort Edward, Fort William Henry, Fort Stanwix, Fort Niagara.



Indian's head.

INDEX

Diacritic marks: *ā* as in *late*; *ă* as in *fat*; *ä* as in *far*; *ą* as in *fall*; *ç*, *ch* as in *cask*, *chasm*; *ç* as in *ice*; *ē* as in *me*; *ë* as in *met, berry*; *ē* as in *vet*; *ġ* as in *gem*; *˘* as in *go*; *i* as in *mine*; *ī* as in *tin*; *î* as in *police*; *ō* as in *note*; *ș* as in *news*; *û* as in *tune*; *ü* as in *nut*; *ȳ* as in *ruae*; *ȳ* as in *my*. Single italic letters are silent.

- A'bra-ham, Plains of, 293.
 Ⱥl'ba-ny, founded, 176; Plan of Union, 267, 300.
 Ⱥl'den, John, 139.
 Al-ex-an'der, Indian chief, 243, 244.
 Al-gon'quins, 204.
 Al'le-ghe-ny Mountains, 274; River, 210.
 Al-mä'gro, 72.
 A-mer'i-ca, named, 41.
 Ä-me-rĭ'go, 38-41.
 Am'herst, General, 285.
 An-nap'o-lis, Md., 223.
 Ar'gall, Captain, 134.
 Ar-mā'da, Spanish, 99-102, 109.
 At'til-a, 19.
 Av'a-lon, 220.
 A-zōres', Columbus at, 33.
 Az'tecs, 64-71.
 Bā'con, Nathaniel, 255-259.
 Ba-hā'ma Islands, Vespuccius in, 44.
 Bal-bō'a, 57-62.
 Bał'ti-more, Lord, 219-224.
 Bar-ce-lō'na, Columbus at, 33-34.
 Berke'ley, Sir William, 253-260, 223.
 Block, Captain Adrian, 175.
 Blockhouse, 157.
 Bloody Brook, battle, 249.
 Bos'ton, founded, 154, 157.
 Brad'dock, General Edward, 276-280.
 Brad'ford, Governor William, 139, 142, 146, 157.
 Brant, Joseph and Molly, 299.
 Breton (brit'un) fishermen, 187.
 Brew'ster, Elder, 139, 144.
 Brook'field, attacked, 247.
 Brouage (broo-āzh'), 195.
 Cabeza (ka-vā'tha) de Vā'ca, 48.
 Cab'ot, John and Sebastian, 87-90.
 Cal'veits, 219-223.
 Can'a-da, 193, 205; see *Quebec*.
 Ca-non'chet, 249, 250.
 Ca-non'i-cus, 144.
 Cār-o-ĭ'na, French colony, 198.
 Cartier (kar-tyā'), Jacques (zhak), 187-193.
 Car'ver, John, 139, 142.
 Ca-thay', 20.
 Cath'o-lics, in Maryland, 219-224.
 Cavelier (ka-va-lyā'), Robert, 208.
 Cebu (thā-voo'), 85.
 Çham-plain', Samuel de, 195-206.
 Ches'a-peake Bay, 115.
 Chick-a-hom'i-ny River, Smith on, 118.
 Chris-tĭ'na, Fort, 183.
 Çi-pan'go, 35.
 Clay'borne, William, 222.
 Co-lum'bus, Christopher, 25-36.
 Compass, 29.
 Con-nect'i-cut, 182, 165.
 Con-stan-ti-no'ple, 24.
 Continental Congress, 268.
 Cor'tez, Her-nan'do, 63-71.
 Crève-cœur (krāv-ker'), Fort, 211, 212.
 Crō-a-toan', 109.
 Crown Point, 301.
 Cuzco (koos'ko) captured, 78.

- Dare, Virginia, 109.
 Dā-ri-ēn', 58.
 Debtors' prisons, 236.
 Declaration of Independence, 259, 268.
 Deer'field, attacked, 247.
 Del'a-ware colony, 232.
 De Le-ōn', Ponce (pōn'thā), 42-46.
 Delft Haven, 137.
 De Luque (loo'kā), 72.
 De Sō'to, Ferdinand, 47-56, 75, 78.
 Dēv'on-shire, 103.
 Diēs'kau, Baron, 301.
 Din-wid'die, Governor, 275.
 Don-na-co'na, 188, 192, 193.
 Drake, Sir Francis, 91-101, 108.
 Duquesne (doo-kān'), Fort, 275-280, 284.
 Dutch in America, 168-186.
 Du-val', 203.
 Dux'bur-y 147, 148.

 Eb-en-ē'zer, founded, 240.
 El Do-rā'do, 48.
 El'i-ot, Rev. John, 251.
 E-liz'a-beth, Queen, 93, 104, 110.
 England, explorations, 88-103; colonization, 105-125, 137-166, 185, 186, 220-242.
 Er'ic the Red, 11, 12, 14.
 E'tie, Lake, 210.
 E-so'pus, 186.

 Flor'i-da, discovered, 44-46.
 Fox, George, 225.
 France, explorations, 187-200, 208, 217; colonization, 193, 200-206, 217, 218, 274, 275; war with England, 275-295; treaty with United States, 268.
 Frank'lin, Benjamin, 261-271, 300.
 Fred-er-i'ca, battle, 241.
 French and Indian War, 275-295.
 Frob'ish-er, 112.
 Fron'te-nac, Fort, 213, 284.
 Fur trade, 174, 175, 193, 205.

 Gas-pe', Cartier at, 187. •
 General Court, 158.
 Ġēn'o-a, 24.
 Geor'gi-a, 235-242.
 Gil'bert, Sir Humphrey, 106.

 Goffe, General, 249.
Golden Hind, 95-99.
 Great Meadows, battle, 276.
 Green'land, 12.
Grif-fon', 210.
 Grō'ton, 247.

 Had'ley, attacked, 248.
 Hāi'ti, 32, 35.
Hulf-Moon, 169.
 Haw'kins, Sir John, 92, 101.
 Hel'lu-land, 12.
 Hen'drick, 304.
 His-pan-iō'la, 32.
 Hoçh-e-lā'ga, 189, 190, 198.
 Hol'land, 168.
 House of Bur'gess-es, 253.
 Hud'son, Henry, 169-174.
 Hū'gue-nots, 104, 225.
 Hutch'in-son, Anne, 165.

 Il-li-nois' River, 211.
 In'ca, 74-79.
 In'di-ans, named, 31; life, 126-131.
 Indies, route to, 26, 27, 81, 168.
 Ir-o-quois', 176, 204, 205, 296, 300.
 Is-a-bel'la, Queen, 28, 34-36.

 Ja-māi'ca, 35.
 Jāmes'town, 117-123, 258.
 John'son, Sir William, 297-306.
 Johns'town, founded, 302.
 Joliet (zhō-lyā'), 210.

 Karl-sēf'nī, 15.
 Kēth, Sir William, 264.
 Kēft, Governor, 181, 182.
 King Philip's War, 243-252.
 Kings'ton, 186.
 Kū'blai Khān', 19-21.

 La-crosse', 129.
 La-drōnes', 85.
 Lake George, battle, 301.
 La Salle', Robert Cavalier de, 208-217.
 Leif, 12-14.
 Leỹ'den, 136.
 Lī'ma, 78, 96.

- Line of demarcation, 197.
 London Company, 114, 151.
 Lou'is-burg, capture of, 284.
 Lou'î-şî-a'na, 216.
 Ma-gĕl'lan, Ferdinand, 81-86.
 Magellan, Strait of, 84.
 Man-hat'tan, purchased, 177.
 Mar-quette' (-kĕt'), Father, 210.
 Mar-seil'les', Smith at, 113.
 Ma'ry-land, 220-224.
 Mason and Dixon Line, 223.
 Mas-sa-chu'setts Colony, 151-159, 161, 227.
 Mäs'sa-soit, 143, 144, 243.
 Ma-ta-o'ka, 126.
 Mau-vi'la, 52, 53.
 May'flower, 138, 152.
 Mayflower Compact, 139, 140.
 Mer-că'tor, 41.
 Mex'i-co, conquest of, 64-71.
 Miç'i-gan, Lake, 210.
 Min'u-it, Peter, 177-179, 183.
 Mis-sis-sip'pi River, discovered, 54, 55; explored, 210, 213-216.
 Mo-bĭle', named, 53.
 Mo-luc'cas, 85.
 Mo-non-ga-he'la River, 277.
 Mon-ro', Colonel, 282, 283.
 Mont-ca'm', 281-286.
 Mon-te-zu'ina, 65, 67-70.
 Mont-re-al', 192, 274.
 Mus'co-vy Company, 169.
 Nă-ra-gan'setts, 165, 249, 250, 251.
 Năr-vă'ez (-ăth), 50.
 Ne-ces'si-ty, Fort, 276.
 New Al'bi-on, 98.
 New Am'ster-dam, 178, 184, 186.
 New England, settled, 139-166; King Philip's War in, 243-252.
 New'fōund-land, 187.
 New Jer'sey colony, 186, 228.
 New Neth'er-land, 176-186.
 New Or'le-ans, founded, 274.
 New'port, founded, 165.
 New Swē'den, 183.
 New York, 186, 296-306.
 New York city (New Amsterdam), founded, 176, 177, 184, 186.
 Ni-ag'a-ra, Fort, 284, 301.
 Niĭna (nĕn'yă), 28, 33.
 North'men, 11-17.
 Northwest Passage, search for, 103, 124, 171, 172, 174, 188, 199.
 O'gle-thorpe, General James Edward, 235-242.
 Ojeda (o-hă'tha), 38.
 Or'ange, Fort, 176.
 Order of Mirth, 201.
 Or'le-ans, Isle of, 289.
 Ortiz (or-tĕth'), 50.
 Os-we'go, captured, 282, 285.
 Pa-cif'ic Ocean, discovered, 60, 84.
 Pă'lōs, 29.
 Par'lia-ment, 236.
 Pa-troons', 178, 180.
 Peck'su-ot, 146.
 Penn, William, 227-233.
 Penn-syl-vā'ni-a, 229-233, 222.
 Pe'quotes, 148, 166.
 Pe-ru', conquest of, 73-79.
 Phil-a-del'phi-a, founded, 231.
 Phil'ip, Indian chief, 243-252.
 Phil'ip-pĭnes, 85.
 Pil'grims, 136.
 Pin'ta, 28, 33.
 Pinzon (pĕn-thōn'), 30, 33.
 Pi-zăr'ro, Francisco, 72-79.
 Plă'ta River, 40.
 Plym'outh colony, 141-148.
 Po-ca-hon'tas, 122, 123, 126, 130, 135.
 Po'lo, Marco, 19-23.
 Ponce (pōn'thā) de Le-ōn', Juan, 42-46.
 Pon'ti-ac, 302.
 "Poor Richard's Almanac," 265.
 Pōr'to Rĭ'co, 42-46.
 Port Royal, founded, 200.
 Pōr'tu guĕse explorers, 26.
 Po-tō'mac River, 220.
 Pow-ha-tăn', 120-123.
 Prideaux (pre'dō), General, 301.
 Prov'i-dence, founded, 165.
 Pu'ri-tans, 136, 150, 151, 161.

- Quāk'ers, 225-228, 232.
 Quē-bēc', 198, 205, 274 ; siege of, 284-286, 289-294.
 Quintero (kēn-tā'ro), 63.

 Ra'leigh, Sir Walter, 103-111, 101.
 Rār'i-tan Indians, 181.
 Read, Deb'o-rah, 264.
 Rhode Island, settlement of, 165.
 Ribaut (re-bō'), 198.
 Rī-çhe-liēy River, 203.
 Ro-a-nōke, colony, 108, 109.
 Ro-ber-val', 193.
 Rolfe, John, 134.
 Rouen (roo-äng'), 208.

 St. Au'gus-tine, attacked by Oglethorpe, 240.
 St. Croix, colony, 200.
 St. Law'rence, 188-193.
 St. Ma-lō', 187.
 St. Ma'rys, founded, 221.
 Sa'lem, 153.
 Sam'o-set, 143.
 Sän Säl-va-dōr', 31.
Santa Mā-rī'a, 28, 32.
 Sän-tī-ä'go, battle cry, 76.
 Sau'sa-man, 246.
 Sa-van'nah, founded, 238.
 Sehen-ec'ta-dy, 297.
 Sekuŷ'ler, Peter, 300.
 Sekuyl'kill River, 231.
 Seroo'by, 136.
 Sea of Darkness, 27.
 Sēi-lān' (Cey-lon'), 22.
 Sēn'e-ca Indians, 209.
 Sep'a-ra-tists, 136.
 Sēy'mōw, Horatio, 303.
 Shaw'a-noes, 213.
 Skraēl'ings, 15, 16.
 Smith, Captain John, 112-125, 132, 133, 141, 170.
 South Cār-o-lī'na, 235.
 Spain, explorations of, 28-39, 42-86 ;
 colonization, 35, 43, 58, 71, 79, 168 ;
 war with England, 99-101, 240.
 Squan'to, 143, 144, 145.

 Sta-da-cōne', 189, 192, 193, 198.
 Stan'dish, Miles, 139-148.
 Stan'wix, Fort, treaty, 305.
 Stocks, 158.
 Stuy've-sant, Peter, 181-186.
 Swan'sea, attacked, 246.
 Swedes, in America, 183.

 Ta-wa-sen'tha, 176.
 Thanksgiving Day, 146, 150.
 Thor'vald, 14.
 Ti-con-der-o'ga, 284, 285.
 Tol-er-a'tion Act, 223.
 Tōn'ty, Henry, 210, 212, 213, 215.
 Tos-ca-nē'lī, 26.
 Tre-mont', 154.
 Tus-ca-loo'sa, 52, 53.

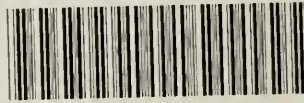
 Val-pa-rai'so, Drake at, 95.
 Van Cor'lear, Arendt, 300.
 Van-coŷ'ver, 98.
 Ven-c-zue'la (-zwē'-), named, 39.
 Ven'ice, 18, 19.
 Ve'ra Cruz, 67, 92.
 Verrazano (vēr-rat-sā'no), 171, 198.
 Vespucci (ves-poot'chē), Ā-me-rī'go, 38-41.
 Ves-pū'cius, A-mer'i-cus, 38-41.
 Vi'kings, 11.
 Vine'land, 14.
 Vir-gin'i-a, named, 107 ; colony, 114-125, 253-260.
Vive le Roi (vēv l' rwä), 188, 215.

 Wam-pa-nō'ags, 143, 243-252.
 Wampum, 131, 179.
 Wash'ing-ton, George, 275-280.
 Wes'ley, John and Charles, 237.
 White, John, 109.
 White'field, George, 237.
 William Henry, Fort, 301, 282, 283.
 Williams, Roger, 160-166, 158, 251.
 Wins'low, Edward, 139.
 Win'throp, John, 151-159, 164.
 Wolfe, General James, 287-295.

 Yu-ca-tan', 64.

OCT 17 1907

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 011 696 099 0

