

OUR STATE
and OUR NATION

Georgia Studies

UNIT **2**



Before it Was Georgia

CHAPTER 3

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CHAPTER 4

Georgia's Prehistoric Past ▼

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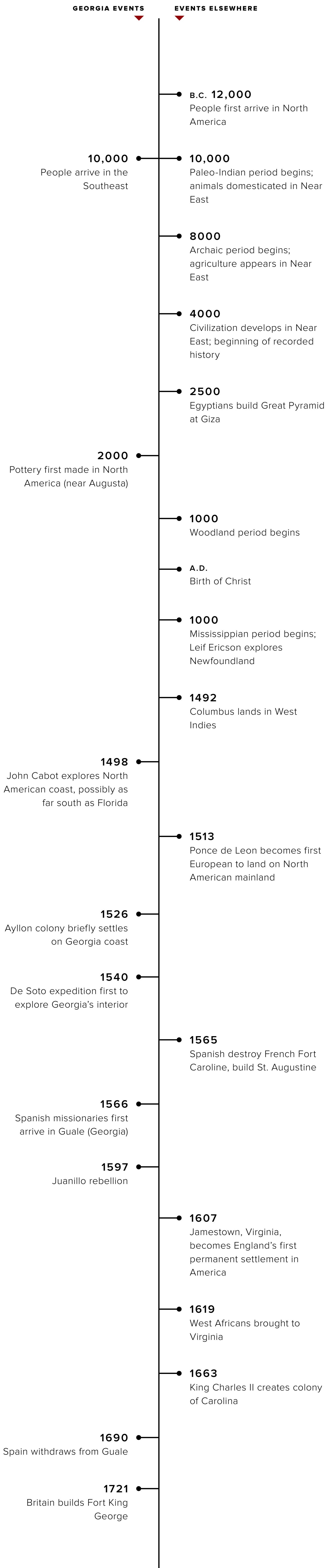
CHAPTER 5

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Chapter Outline

Why Study History?

How to Do History

- Starting with Questions
- Sources of Information
- Using Primary Sources
- Analyzing and Evaluating Information

The Dating Game

- Using a Timeline
- B.C. and A.D.
- Expressions of Time
- Decades and Centuries
- Commemorating Historical Events

ELAGSE8R17

- Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of using different mediums (e.g., print or digital text, video, multimedia) to present a particular topic or idea.

ELAGSE8R19

- Analyze a case in which two or more texts provide conflicting information on the same topic and identify where the texts disagree on matters of fact or interpretation.

ELAGSE8R18

- Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, assessing whether the reasoning is sound and the evidence is relevant and sufficient; recognize when irrelevant evidence is introduced.



The Georgia Capitol Museum has exhibits that tell the story of the capitol, state government, and Georgia history. One of the most popular displays features a two-headed calf and a two-headed snake.

Although designed to celebrate the natural resources of Georgia, the

CHAPTER 3

AT FIRST GLANCE

The chapter introduces the study of history and the skills necessary for “doing” history. It includes a discussion of how historians work, a discussion of primary and secondary sources, and a review of skills and concepts such as frame of reference, cause and effect, and time and chronology.

Let’s Talk History

[Why Study History?](#)

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How will Georgia changeover the next one hundred years? What does the future hold for you? The answers will depend in part on your knowledge of history.

Why Study History?

Imagine what life would be like if you lost your memory. You couldn't remember your friends, what you like to eat, or even your favorite songs. Life would be awful!

You need your memory for everything you do. Making sense of the past helps you make decisions about today and tomorrow.

Besides having your own private memory, you also share memories of the past with others. You live around other people in your family, your community, your state, your nation, and your world. Just as each of us has a personal past, together we have a collective past. The record of this past is called **history**¹.

We need to be aware of history because we cannot possibly experience everything in life firsthand. We must rely on what others observed and remembered to increase our understanding of events. Not everyone can be the president, but we can read Jimmy Carter's memoirs and learn what it was like to be president. We can't travel back in time and be Georgia colonists, but we can read their accounts to know what challenges they faced.

◀ This marble **statue of Clio** can be seen in the U.S. Capitol in Washington, D.C. The Greek goddess of history is represented traveling in the chariot of time, flying above the earth. As she observes human affairs, she records important events in her book of history.



History helps us better understand today by showing how we got here. It tells us the effects of decisions others made and how life changed from one generation to the next. Many lessons can be learned from history, and some of them can help us avoid repeating errors of the past. ■

LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 Define:** history
 - 2** Give the title of a nonfiction book you have read. In one sentence, describe how the book let you learn about an experience you have not had.
 - 3** How can history help you make wise decisions about the future?
-

Vocabulary

- 1 **History** - A chronological record and explanation of past events.

How to Do History

To understand present conditions in Georgia, the United States, and the world, we have to know something about the past. How did Atlanta become an international city? Why has Georgia's farm population decreased? Why is Georgia one of the fastest-growing states in the nation? Why does Georgia have a large African-American population? Why has there been a dramatic increase in Georgia's Latino population since 1990? None of these questions can be fully answered without knowing about the past.

Persons whose job it is to find out what happened in the past are called **historians**¹. They may study what happened to a group of people (such as the Cherokee Indians), a geographic location (such as Savannah), or a part of culture (such as plantation life). Whatever the topic, historians do their work by asking questions and using many sources of information.

STARTING WITH QUESTIONS

The study of history begins with questions concerning an event, place, or group. What caused the first settlers to come to Georgia? Why is Atlanta the capital of Georgia? Why were the Native Americans forced out of the state?

From what historians already know about such things, they form **hypotheses**², or preliminary conclusions, to the questions. One historian may think the settlers were seeking religious freedom. Another may think they left England because they were in debt.

To test the accuracy of their hypotheses, historians have to gather evidence. There are many sources of information to which historians may turn for evidence.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Historians primarily rely on two kinds of information: primary sources and secondary sources.

Primary sources³ are firsthand or original accounts of historical events or figures. Examples of written primary sources are letters, diaries, speeches, autobiographies, newspaper reports, government documents, and business records. Other kinds of primary sources are oral accounts by persons who recall an event, and physical remains such as buildings, tools, clothing, art, and even grave markers. Old photos are also primary sources. In general, primary sources date closely in time to the event or person under study.

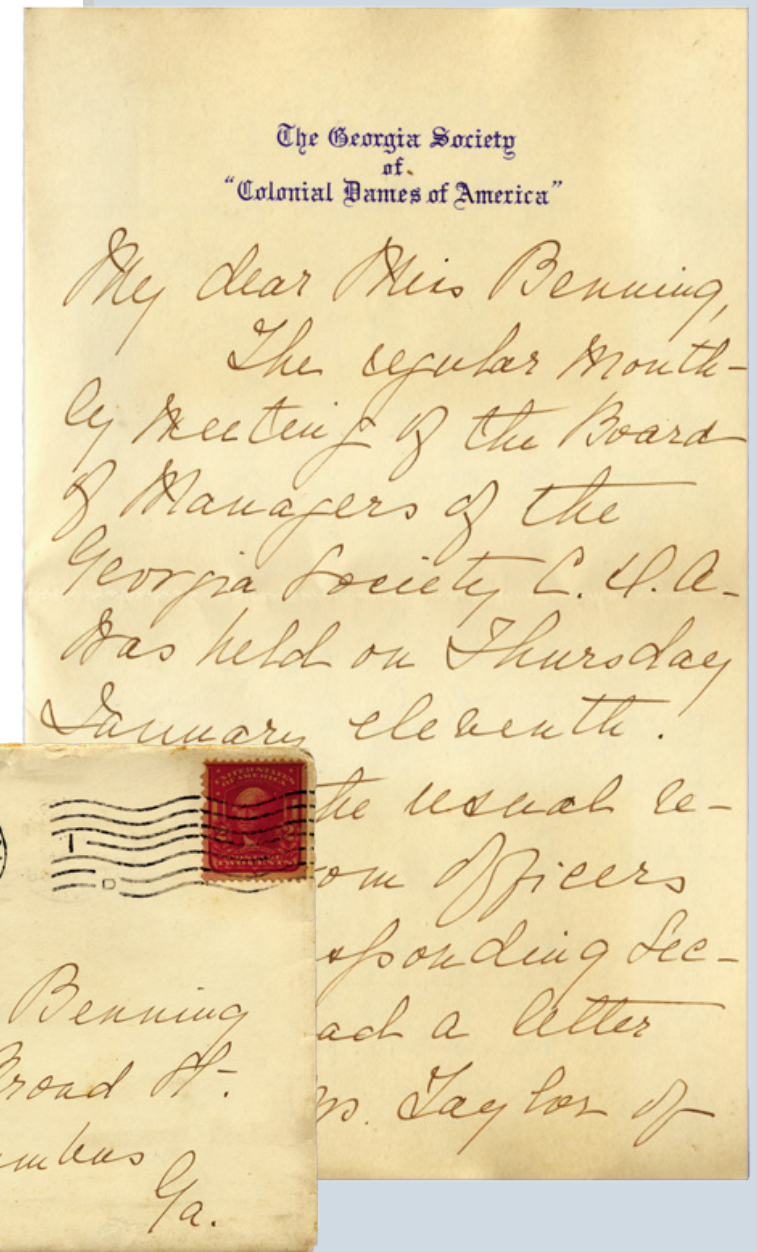
Secondary sources⁴ are accounts of historical events written by people who did not personally witness the event. They result from historical research of primary

sources and often are far removed in time from the events they describe. Secondary sources such as biographies, textbooks, maps, encyclopedias, and other reference books are useful for getting background information on a topic. Secondary sources would not be possible if people living at the time of an event had not recorded what they had seen, heard, and read.

USING PRIMARY SOURCES

One of the historian's most important tasks is examining, or questioning, the sources. Is the source real or a forgery? Who wrote it? Was he or she an actual eyewitness to the event under study? If so, what was the witness's **frame of reference**⁵? A person's views of an event can

This January 16, 1906, letter reports that the Society voted to request \$15,000 from the Georgia legislature to place a statue of James Oglethorpe in Savannah.



be influenced by his or her social group, religion, occupation, and political attitudes. These characteristics make up the witness's frame of reference. For example, if you and your grandparents spent the day at Six Flags over Georgia, it is likely that their description of the day would be different from yours. The more historians know about why a particular source came to be written, the better they can judge the value of the information it contains.

ANALYZING AND EVALUATING INFORMATION

Finally, historians have to decide what really happened and why. For example, why was the colony of Georgia created? Why did the Civil War occur? Answering these questions involves pulling together pieces of evidence from many different sources. They have to weigh each piece and decide which is most reliable.

Sometimes, one event appears to cause or lead to, another. Historians call such a relationship **cause and effect**⁶. More often, however, historical events are much more complex, with not just one but several causes. Most big happenings—such as the settling of the New World or the outbreak of the Civil War—occurred because of many reasons. This principle is called **multiple causation**⁷.

Now it is time to make **generalizations**⁸, or broad conclusions, about what happened. Actually, the historian is answering questions asked at the start of the research. These answers may be quite different from the original hypotheses, or preliminary conclusions. Perhaps the historian will conclude that the first settlers came to Georgia for several reasons: to make a fortune, to escape persecution, and to get away from bad economic conditions.

HOW TO DO HISTORY

Ask a question.



Form a hypothesis.



Gather sources of information.



Analyze and evaluate information.



Make conclusions about what happened.



Publish your findings.

As a final step, historians describe in writing what they have found. In doing this, they are creating new secondary sources. Historians try to be objective and not influenced by their personal feelings. Whether or not they like what they find, historians try to be guided only by the evidence. As other historians turn up new evidence about the same past event, they may describe things differently. In that case, the story of the past may change. ■

LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 Define:** historian, hypothesis, primary source, secondary source, frame of reference, cause and effect, multiple causation, generalization
 - 2** Is this book a primary or secondary source? Explain. Is a diary a primary or secondary source? Explain.
 - 3** Why do you think that the work of a historian usually results in the creation of new secondary sources?
-

Vocabulary

- 1 **Historian** - One who researches and writes about the past.
- 2 **Hypothesis (plural: hypotheses)** - A preliminary answer given to a research question, based on what one already knows.
- 3 **Primary source** - A firsthand or original account of a historical event, such as a letter, diary, or old photo.
- 4 **Secondary source** - An account of historical events by someone who did not personally witness those events.
- 5 **Frame of reference** - A set of beliefs or attitudes that influences someone's view of events.
- 6 **Cause and effect** - A relationship where one event appears to cause or lead to another.
- 7 **Multiple causation** - The idea that a number of things cause an event.
- 8 **Generalizations** - Broad conclusions.

The Dating Game

Understanding dates and time relationships is an important part of studying history. In fact, history is *full* of dates. It's hard to write about history without telling *when* things happened.

Is knowing dates important? It depends. Several dates in Georgia history—such as its first settlement in 1733—are so important to our state that they should be remembered. Most dates, however, have little meaning by themselves. What is more important is knowing when one event occurred in *relation to others*.

Knowing the order in which a series of events occurred, the **chronology**¹, often can help you better understand a historical event.

USING A TIMELINE

A special chart that historians use to keep track of events is a **timeline**². It shows at

a glance the chronology or time order of events. Each unit in this book has a time line to help you discover the relationship of historical events. These time lines include important Georgia events as well as some major events occurring elsewhere in the nation and the world.

Georgia has hundreds of historical markers explaining important people, places, and events in Georgia history. Often a ceremony is held to unveil a new marker.



By examining a time line, you may be able to form some hypotheses about why important historical events occurred.

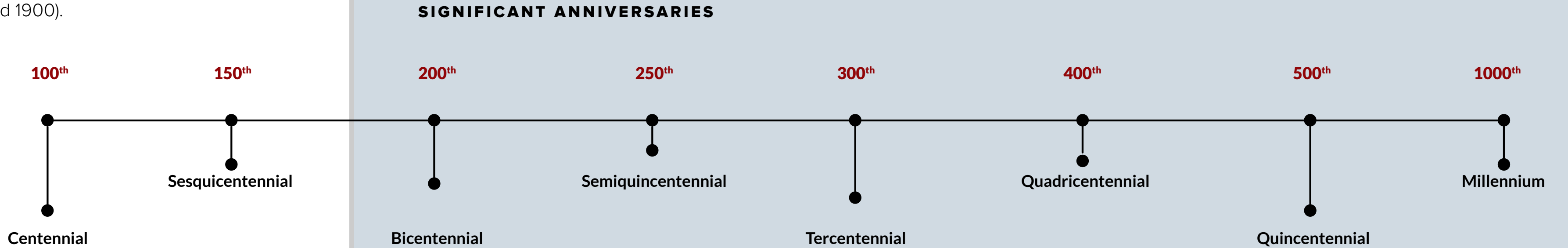
B.C. AND A.D.

Sometimes a date has the letters **B.C.**³ after it, or the letters **A.D.**⁴ before or after it. These are abbreviations used in the Christian system for counting time, using the birth of Christ as a starting point. B.C. stands for *before Christ*, while A.D. is the abbreviation for *anno Domini*, which means “in the year of our Lord.” These notations identify a date as occurring either before or after the birth of Christ. When no abbreviation is used with a date, it is understood to be an A.D. date.

EXPRESSIONS OF TIME

In addition to dates, there are other ways historians express time. Some are general

terms which refer to when something happened in relation to today. *Past*, *previous*, and *former* describe events that have already happened. *Present*, *current*, and *contemporary* are terms to describe today, while *future* means events that have not yet occurred. The terms *ante-* and *pre-* are prefixes that mean before. Thus, antebellum or pre–Civil War refers to the period before the Civil War. *Post-* is a prefix that means after. Therefore, post–Civil War means after the war. The word *circa* means around, as in circa or ca. 1900 (around 1900).



Time expressions that refer to the frequency of events include **periodically** (from time to time), **quarterly** (four times a year), and **annually** (once a year). **Semiannual** means twice a year, and **biennial** means once every two years. The terms **era** and **period** are similar and refer to a span of time remembered for unique features or events.

DECADES AND CENTURIES

Two specific periods of time with special names are **decade**⁵, a period of 10 years, and **century**⁶, a period of 100 years. A decade can refer to any 10-year period, such as 2007–2016. More commonly, however, decades begin in a year ending in 0, such as “the decade of the 1990s.” Because of the way years are calculated with the Christian calendar, centuries can be a little tricky. Based around the birth of Christ, the system goes from 1 B.C. to A.D.

1. The first century began in the year A.D. 1. This means the year A.D. 150 fell in the second century and not the first. Thus, the 1800s made up the nineteenth century, while the twenty-first century refers to the 2000s.

COMMEMORATING HISTORICAL EVENTS

Just as you celebrate your birthday each year, citizens commemorate many historical events on the day on which they occurred. That date is called an anniversary. Some events, such as the Fourth of July, are celebrated annually. There are special anniversaries to mark longer periods of time like 100 or 200 years. Have you noticed a **centennial**⁷ or **bicentennial**⁸ celebration of anything lately? ■



LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 **Define:** chronology, timeline, B.C., A.D., decade, century, centennial, bicentennial
- 2 Why would knowing when one event occurred in relation to others be important in studying history?
- 3 Describe the Christian system for counting time.

Vocabulary

- 1 **Chronology** - Order in which a series of events occurred.
- 2 **Timeline** - A chart that shows the chronology, or time order, of historical events.
- 3 **B.C.** - Before Christ; used to show that a date falls before the Christian era.
- 4 **A.D.** - Anno Domini, or “in the year of our Lord;” used to show that a date falls within the Christian era.
- 5 **Decade** - A period of 10 years.
- 6 **Century** - A period of 100 years.
- 7 **Centennial** - Special anniversary that marks an event that took place 100 years ago.
- 8 **Bicentennial** - Special anniversary that celebrates an event that took place 200 years ago.



CHAPTER 3 QUIZ

Text Version

Chapter 4 Foreword

Georgia Standards of Excellence
Correlations ▼

[SS8H1](#)

Chapter Outline

Unearthing Clues to Georgia's Prehistoric Past

Field Work

Laboratory Work

Georgia's First Inhabitants

Humans Arrive in North America

Paleo-Indian Period (10,000 to 8000 B.C.)

Archaic Period (8000 to 1000 B.C.)

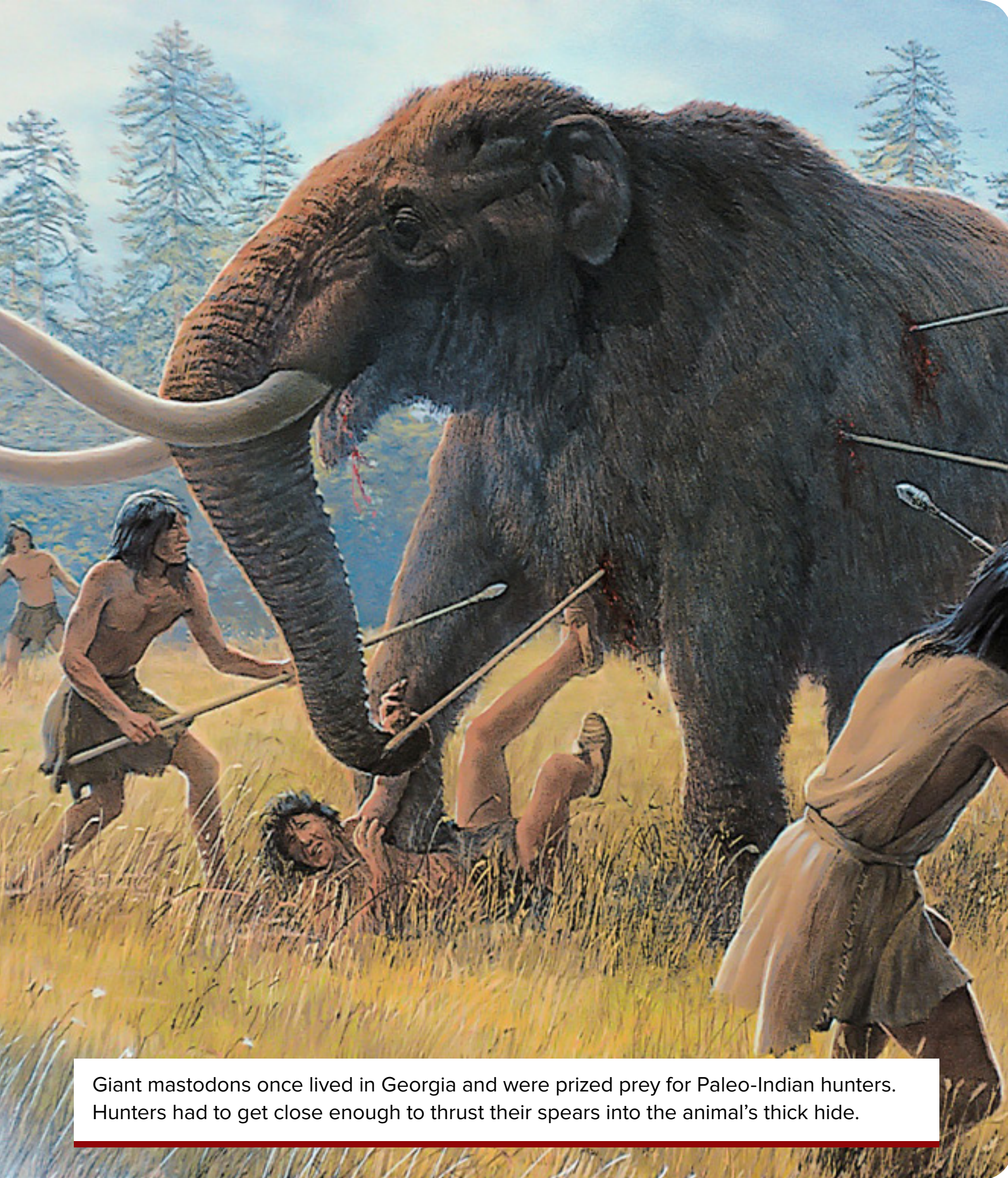
Woodland Period (1000 B.C. to A.D 1000)

Mississippian Period (A.D 1000 to 1600)

SS8H1

Evaluate the impact of European exploration and settlement on American Indians in Georgia.

- a. Describe the characteristics of American Indians living in Georgia at the time of European contact; to include culture, food, weapons/tools, and shelter.



Giant mastodons once lived in Georgia and were prized prey for Paleo-Indian hunters. Hunters had to get close enough to thrust their spears into the animal's thick hide.

CHAPTER 4

AT FIRST GLANCE

The chapter opens with a discussion of how archaeologists go about their work. The similarities between the procedures historians and archaeologists use are identified. The second half of the chapter examines the four prehistoric Indian traditions that evolved in the Southeast.

Georgia's Prehistoric Past

[Unearthing Clues To Georgia's Prehistoric Past](#)

[Georgia's First Inhabitants](#)

What does the word “prehistoric” bring to mind? Dinosaurs, woolly mammoths, or cavemen with spears and clubs? Prehistory¹ — which means “before history”— simply refers to that period of the past before written records were kept. This could go as far back as the beginning of time. In this book, however, we will look at the prehistoric past only during the period in which humans have inhabited Georgia.

The date the prehistoric era ended can be different from place to place and people to people. For example, Georgia's prehistory ended earlier than in California or Michigan but later than in England or China. The key is to find out when people first kept written records about their culture. The answers will differ around the world.

Writing appears to have developed first in Africa along the Nile River. There, messages have been found carved or drawn on stone from as early as 5000 or 6000 B.C. Later, the Egyptians developed **hieroglyphics**² —a form of early writing that used symbols and images. Once they invented the calendar, a process for making paper, and pen and ink, the Egyptians began recording the story of their culture. Egypt's prehistory, thus, ended thousands of years ago.

In contrast, Georgia's prehistoric period ended less than 500 years ago. Native Americans had lived here for thousands of years but had not developed a written language. Without writing, they could not permanently record the story of their past. Prehistoric jewelry, arrowheads, tools, pottery, and other evidence have been unearthed, but these early Indians left nothing in writing to tell us about their culture.

In 1540, Spanish explorer Hernando de Soto and a party of 600 adventurers became the first Europeans to write eyewitness accounts about the Indians they saw. One even drew a map so others could learn of their discovery. For the first time, written information was recorded about Georgia. That is why we consider 1540 as the end of Georgia's prehistoric era and the beginning of its historic period.

Vocabulary

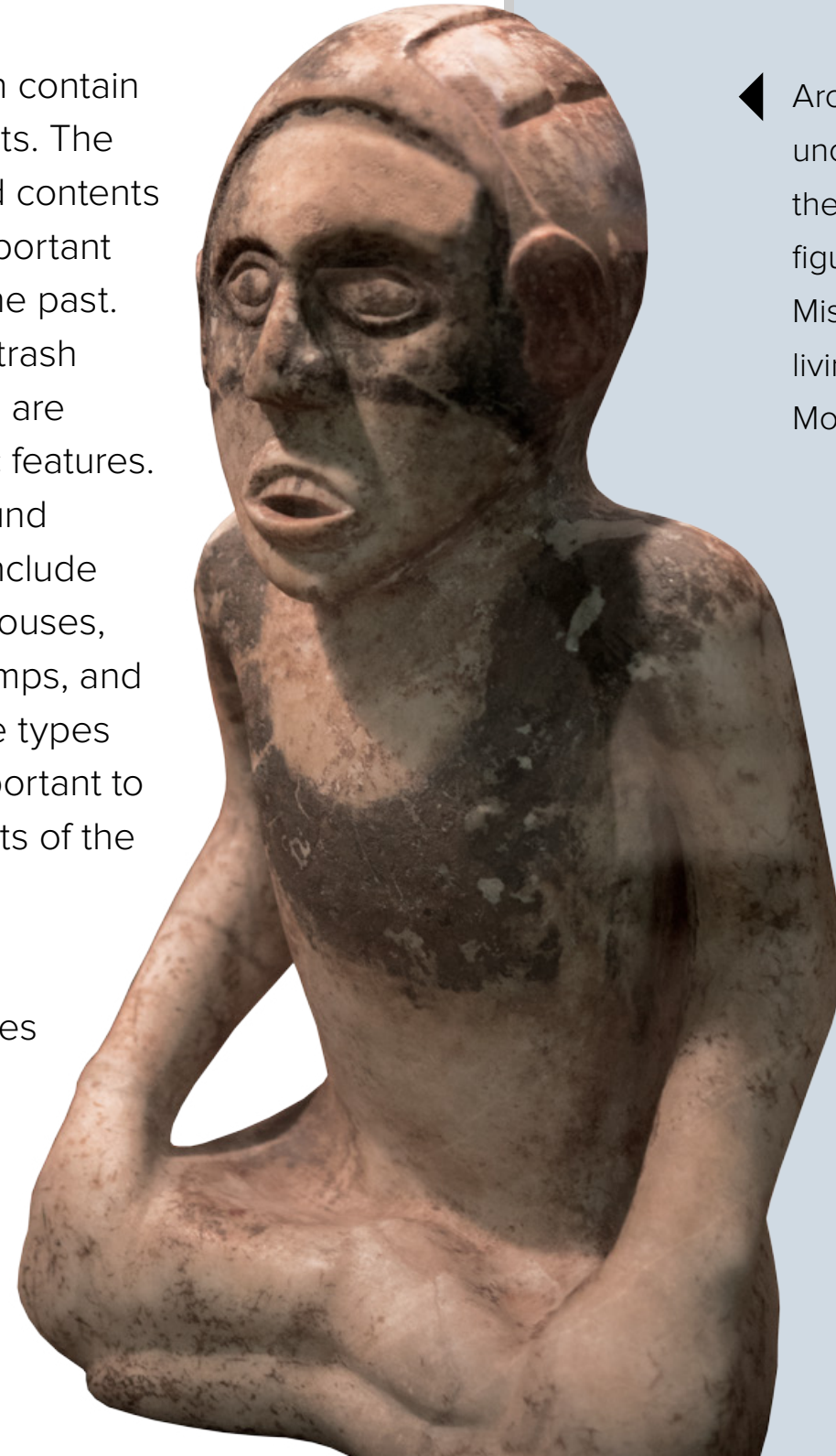
- 1 **Prehistory** - The period of the past before written records were kept.
- 2 **Hieroglyphics** - A form of writing developed by the ancient Egyptians that consisted of symbols and images.

Unearthing Clues to Georgia's Prehistoric Past

How is it possible to learn about Georgia's prehistoric Indians if they left no books, letters, or written records? The answer is that these early inhabitants left behind other types of evidence about their lifestyle. Scientists known as **archaeologists**¹ learn about previous societies by looking for clues in the physical evidence they left behind. Archaeologists look for three types of evidence: (1) **artifacts**² (objects made or shaped by humans, such as arrowheads, tools, pottery, and jewelry), (2) **ecofacts**³ (natural objects such as pollen, seeds, bones, teeth, skulls, and shells), and (3) **features**⁴ (a specific area of human activity visible in the ground such as a stain in the soil or a manmade arrangement of rocks or bricks). Archaeologists use the term "ecofact" to refer to remains of living matter, such as grain, shells, and bone, that have not been shaped by humans. Features are

manmade and often contain artifacts and ecofacts. The location, shape, and contents of a feature give important clues about life in the past. Postholes, fire pits, trash pits, and burial sites are common prehistoric features. Historic features found by archaeologists include wells, cisterns, outhouses, postholes, trash dumps, and burial sites. All three types of evidence are important to unlocking the secrets of the past.

Artifacts and other remains provide clues to the **culture**⁵, or way of life, of societies that vanished long ago.



◀ Archaeologists are uncertain about what these two-foot marble figures meant to the Mississippian Indians living at the Etowah Mounds near Cartersville.

It's like working on a jigsaw puzzle. Too bad that archaeologists are never able to find all the pieces they need. Normally, the most durable materials—like stone, metal, and bone—can survive for hundreds or thousands of years.

Yet even from a few pieces of evidence, much can be learned about the lives of people who lived long ago. This is because archaeologists look for evidence in a scientific manner. When they dig for objects like clay pots and arrowheads, they aren't looking for souvenirs. They're digging for *information*.

Like the historian, the archaeologist starts with questions. Both might ask, "What kind of food did a particular people eat, and how did they prepare it?" To find the answer, the historian could read descriptions of meals in diaries or printed in recipe books at the time. The archaeologist looking at prehistoric

societies, however, would have to find other sources. The answer would come from examining human bones or from clues in the ashes and garbage pits of ancient settlements.

Artifacts reveal a lot about the past, but there are always unsolved mysteries.



Digging Into Early Georgia

[Transcript](#)

FIELDWORK

The task of getting information from artifacts, ecofacts, and features begins in the field. The field location where an archaeological team works is called a **site**⁶. It may be an abandoned village, burial ground, or earthen mound used centuries ago. Sometimes archaeologists are able to predict the general area where a settlement was likely, such as near a river. They may use ground-penetrating radar (GPR) to locate and identify features beneath the earth's surface prior to digging. Then they conduct a series of test digs to look for evidence of an Indian village. In other cases, a site is discovered by chance, as when a farmer plowing a field uncovers scattered **projectile points**⁷ (spearheads and arrowheads), pottery **sherds**⁸ (bits of broken pottery), and other artifacts. Archaeologists use laser transits to record the exact location of a site and produce computer-generated site maps. A

Global Positioning System (GPS) can also be used to accurately record the exact location of a site.

Before **excavating**⁹ (digging to expose a site), the team will carefully measure the site and mark it into a pattern of squares called a grid. Each square is numbered so the team can record exactly where an object is found. By knowing the exact location of an object, an archaeologist can determine its **context**¹⁰—that is, how it relates to its surroundings at a site.

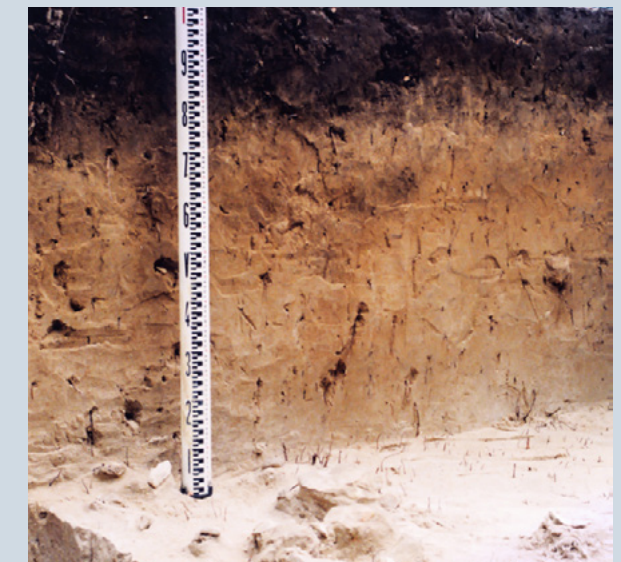
Knowing the context is important, since one artifact can be related to other pieces of information. For instance, a necklace found in a burial pit tells an archaeologist more than a necklace found alone in a plowed field. A necklace uncovered in a burial site tells something about the person, burial customs, and perhaps religion and belief in life after death.

An archaeological excavation may involve

Archaeologists excavate a cellar on the site of Mary Musgrove's trading post near Savannah.



Paleo-Indian artifacts were discovered at this excavation near the Savannah River at a depth of 1.1 meters (43 inches).



dozens of people and go on for several years. Because archaeologists want to collect reliable information, their work has to follow strict procedures. Artifacts such as pottery are fragile. If they are destroyed through carelessness or ignorance, the information they contain is lost forever.

Shovels for digging and wire screens to sift each shovelful of soil for artifacts are basic tools at an excavation. As digging takes place in areas that are less disturbed, smaller tools (such as trowels, ice picks, and brushes) may be necessary to recover some objects without breaking them. A tape measure is needed for recording precise locations of each artifact. Archaeologists take many pictures and fill notebooks with written comments and sketches as they work.

A site map is drawn to show the location of key features of an excavation. This map often reveals something about life at the site hundreds or thousands of years ago. For example, **postmolds**¹¹ —stains in the



soil left from decayed wooden posts—may reveal the outline of a house. Artifacts found inside the outline can give a clue to the work done by the people who lived there.

Every feature, sherd, tool, and other piece of evidence found at a site can be a useful source of information. Even ecofacts, such as bones and shells, serve as evidence of what materials were available and how they were used long ago.

◀ **Artifacts** reveal a lot about the past, but there are always unsolved mysteries.



[Transcript](#)

LABORATORY WORK

When an excavation is finished, the archaeologist's work shifts to the laboratory. That's where the pieces of the jigsaw puzzle are put together. Researchers begin by cleaning, sorting, and identifying evidence collected in the field. Some items, especially those made of metal, need conservation work to preserve them and prevent deterioration.

Laboratory work is slow and painstaking. On a given project, archaeologists may spend more time in the lab than in the field. There are hundreds of questions to be answered. What is this object? How was it used? What is it made of? How was it made? Who was its likely owner? Is it similar to objects from other sites?

Depending on the object, there are several different methods to determine the age of some artifacts. **Carbon-14**

dating¹² is one technique frequently used to find the age of plant or animal matter. Carbon-14 is a radioactive element found in all living matter. It begins to disintegrate—or break down—at a steady rate once a plant or animal dies. By determining the amount of carbon-14 in the remains of something that once was alive, scientists can measure its age. The less carbon-14 found, the older the object.

Carbon-14 can be used to date the remains of objects thousands of years old, with an accuracy within 200 years of the actual age! But carbon-14 can only be used with evidence composed of **organic**¹³ (plant or animal) matter. How could an artifact made of inorganic matter like stone or clay be dated? By knowing its context. Let's say an archaeologist on a dig finds a stone ax head in a fire

A laboratory technician sorts potsherds found at a Mississippian site along the Etowah River in northwest Georgia.



pit. A carbon-14 dating lab reveals that the charcoal in the fire pit is about 2,500 years old, but the lab cannot give a date on the ax head because it is not organic.



▲ Prehistoric artifacts, such as a mortar and pestle, mean less to archaeologists when removed from the context where they were found.

However, by knowing the context of the ax head—that is, it was found in the fire pit—the archaeologist may assume it came from the same time period. To confirm this, the ax head's style would be checked against other ax heads already identified from this time period.

The final and most important stage in the archaeologist's work is to report to others what has been found. Into this report will go the archaeologist's own findings and comparisons with discoveries by other archaeologists at other sites. Perhaps the report will draw some conclusions about the behavior of people whose way of life vanished long ago. ■

LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 Define:** prehistory, hieroglyphics archaeologist, artifact, ecofact, feature, culture, site, projectile points, sherds, excavate, context, postmolds, carbon-14 dating, organic
- 2** What did humans have to invent or develop to end their prehistory period?
- 3** Why could archaeology be called “the science of rubbish”?
- 4** Explain why the archaeologist must use pieces of a culture to draw conclusions about past societies.

Vocabulary

- 1 Archaeologist** - A scientist who learns about earlier societies by discovering and studying physical evidence of their lifestyles.
- 2 Artifact** - An object made or shaped by humans, such as projectile points, tools, pottery, and jewelry.
- 3 Ecofacts** - Natural objects, such as bones, teeth, and shells, that have survived from earlier cultures.
- 4 Feature** - In archaeology, a specific area of human activity visible in the ground.
- 5 Culture** - The way of life of a particular group of people at a particular time.
- 6 Site** - The location where an archaeological team attempts to locate clues from previous societies.
- 7 Projectile points** - The general term archaeologists use for the stone points (“heads”) of spears and arrows made by Indians.
- 8 Context** - How something relates to its surroundings.
- 9 Excavate** - To dig to expose a site and uncover archaeological evidence.
- 10 Sherds** - Bits of broken pottery left by earlier societies.
- 11 Postmolds** - Stains in soil left from wooden posts
- 12 Carbon-14 dating** - Technique used to find the age of plant or animal matter by determining the amount of carbon 14 still in its remains.
- 13 Organic** - Plant or animal matter.

Georgia's First Inhabitants

Who were the first humans to live in the land we call Georgia? When did they arrive? Where was their original home? Why did they come? What kind of wild animals did they find here? What did these early people eat? What did they wear? Where did they live? This section is about the first people to settle in Georgia—the prehistoric Native Americans.

HUMANS ARRIVE IN NORTH AMERICA

Exactly when and how the first humans set foot on the North American continent continues to be a matter of debate among archaeologists. However, it is widely believed that as recently as 12,000 years ago, humans came on foot from Asia. Look at a map or globe and you will see that Asia and North America are separated by an ocean. How, then, was it possible to

walk to our continent? The first humans arrived long ago during a geological period known as the **Ice Age**¹. Cold temperatures caused a great deal of the earth's water to freeze into glaciers and polar ice. As a result, ocean levels were as much as 300 feet lower than today. One land mass exposed during the Ice Age was **Beringia**²—the land between present-day Alaska and Siberia.

Beringia served as a “land bridge” because it allowed passage from one continent to another. Scientists estimate it was as wide as 1,300 miles, or four times the length of Georgia! Later, as global temperatures rose, the world's great ice fields melted, causing the sea to rise. Today, Beringia is covered by the ocean, and the area is known as the Bering Strait.

The **migration**³—or movement—of people from Asia into North America was not



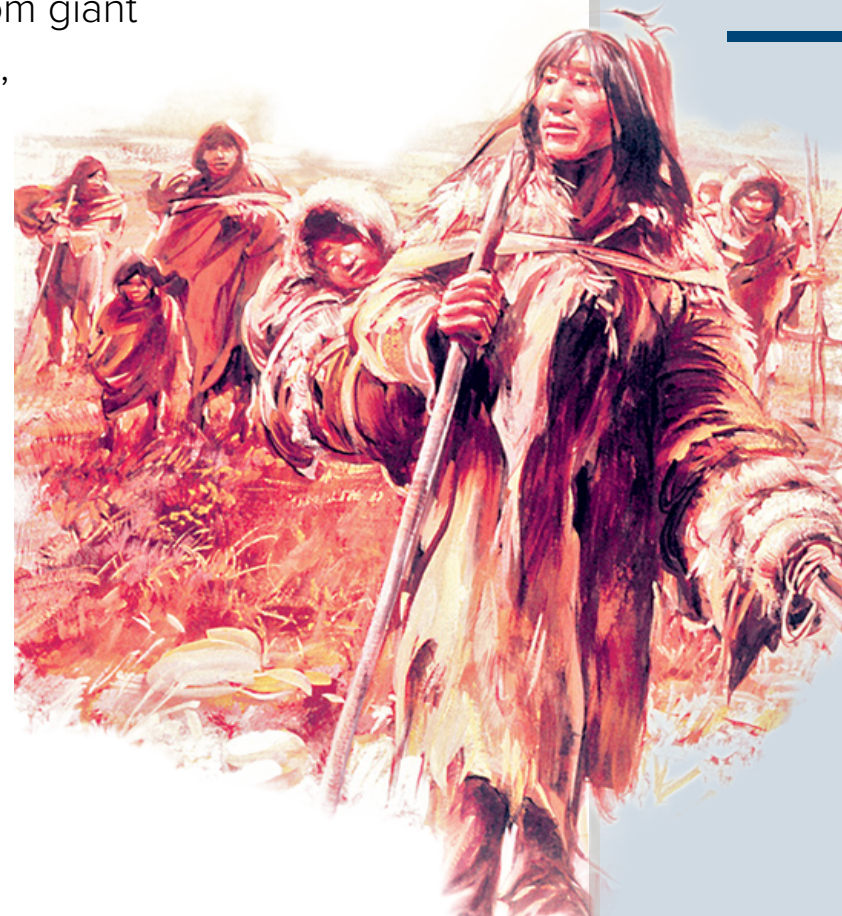
▲ The exposure of the land mass called **Beringia** created a “bridge” to North America from Siberia. New archaeological research suggests that humans also may have traveled by boat to South America and then continued moving north to Central and North America. As evidence unfolds, new theories of human arrival in the Western Hemisphere will be developed.

planned. The first migrants were **nomads**⁴—or wanderers—in search of food. Without maps, they had no idea where they were going. Perhaps while following a herd of game, the first of many bands eventually crossed Beringia into North America. Others followed, and slowly the new inhabitants pushed southward, where the climate was warmer and food more abundant. Here they found woolly mammoths, mastodons, great ground sloths, giant bison, musk ox, moose, bear, sheep, antelope, and a variety of other game. From these bands of Asian nomads descended all Native Americans—or “Indians”—in both North and South America.

By 10,000 B.C., the first humans had arrived in the Southeast. We divide the next 11,700 years of Georgia prehistory into four cultural periods—sometimes called **traditions**⁵—that developed among Native Americans: (1) Paleo, (2) Archaic, (3) Woodland, and (4) Mississippian. ■

PALEO-INDIAN PERIOD (10,000 TO 8000 B.C.)

The first 2,000 years of Indian life in the Southeast is called the **Paleo-Indian**⁶ period. (The word “paleo” means “ancient.”) These natives lived in small **bands**⁷, or groups, of 20 or so adults and children. Paleo-Indians depended on wild animals—or game—for food, clothing, and even many tools. Their diet consisted mainly of meat from giant bison, mastodons, giant sloths, and other large mammals—most of which are now extinct. They also ate small game, berries, and wild fruits and vegetables.



LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 **Define:** Ice Age, Beringia, migration, nomads, tradition
- 2 **Identify:** Bering Strait, Native Americans
- 3 Explain what happened to Siberia and Alaska during the Ice Age.
- 4 Why do scientists think that the first prehistoric people came to North America?

◀ Small bands of **Paleo-Indians** moved southward into North America, eventually reaching the Southeast. These were Georgia's first human inhabitants.

On the move in search of food, the early Indians never stayed in one place for long. Usually they camped out in the open. To protect against cold and wind, they might dig pits or build shelters covered with bark, brush, or animal hides, but we have no evidence of permanent settlements.

Paleo-Indians faced a hard life. Few lived to be older than 30 or 40, and many children died before their first birthday. Yet, helped by a moderate climate, the Indians were able to turn to nature for all their needs. The animals they hunted provided food, bone and antler for tools, leather for shoes and clothing, hide for blankets and shelter, and fur for coats. They knew which type of rock to use for making knives, spearheads, ax heads, and tools. Small tree trunks and cane were good for spear shafts, ax and tool handles, and poles for shelters. Today, it is hard to imagine living totally off nature—but Georgia's early Indians did.

Among the many Paleo artifacts uncovered at former campsites are large, distinctive spearheads known as “Clovis” points. Clovis points have been found all over North America, including Georgia, and even in South America. These points were from heavy spears, which were used for jabbing more than throwing.



Primitive Technology

[Transcript](#)

◀ The **atlatl** made it possible for spears to be thrown much farther and with greater accuracy—the same way a baseball bat or golf club enables the user to hit the ball farther and with more precision.

The bow and arrow had not yet been invented, and hunters had to get very close to their prey before making a kill with a spear. In time, Paleo-Indians may have developed the spear-throwing device known as the **atlatl**⁸. Clovis points have been found with the bones of a variety of extinct mammals, including mammoths and mastodons, suggesting the Paleo-Indians were brave and skillful hunters.

What else do we know about this culture? Few items have survived—or at least been

uncovered so far—other than tool and weapon artifacts. Likely, they believed in spirits, but we do not know if they had specific religious beliefs.

**ARCHAIC PERIOD
(8000 TO 1000 B.C.)**

Around 8000 B.C., the culture of Georgia's Indians began to change, making way for a new tradition known as the Archaic Period.

What we commonly call “arrowheads” archaeologists call **projectile points**. Many times what looks like an arrowhead is actually a spear point, or even a knife. In this photo, only the Late Woodland and Mississippian points are true arrowheads.



PROJECTILE POINTS



Early Paleo-Indian
9500 – 9000 B.C.
Clovis Point



Late Paleo-Indian
8500 – 7900 B.C.
Dalton Point



Early Archaic
8000 – 7000 B.C.
Kirk Corner & Notched Point



Middle Archaic
3500 – 2800 B.C.
Guilford Point



Late Archaic
2150 – 1800 B.C.
Savannah River Point



Middle Woodland
500 B.C. – A.D. 500
Yadkin Point



Middle Woodland
A.D. 1 – 500
Bakers Creek Point



Late Woodland
A.D. 500 – 1100
Triangular Point



Mississippian
A.D. 800 – 1700
Triangular Point

During the next 7,000 years, **Archaic Indians**⁹ adapted to a warming climate and the disappearance of big game, such as the mammoth and the giant sloth. They became dependent on a combination of hunting, fishing, and gathering. Deer, bear, small game (such as rabbit and squirrel), fish, berries, nuts, and wild fruits and vegetables were their main sources of food. Great heaps of shellfish and oyster shells discarded by the Indians have been found near the coast and in the interior. These heaps are called **middens**¹⁰. One shell midden on Stallings Island, located in the Savannah River near Augusta, is 260 feet wide, 400 feet long, and 6 to 12 feet deep. An archaeological deposit this size indicates that the Indians returned year after year.

At first, Archaic Indians continued living as nomads, traveling much of the time in search of food. Gradually, this changed. Archaic Indians learned to use the resources around them in new ways. Their

diet had more variety, and they no longer depended heavily on large game. They used a wider variety of tools and weapons that changed the way they hunted, saving them time and effort.

One such tool, the atlatl, came into wide use. The atlatl is a wooden shaft about two feet long with a bone or antler hook on one end in which a spear can be placed. The atlatl serves as an extension of a hunter's arm and allows a spear to be thrown farther and harder than with the arm alone.

Archaic Indians hunted many animals, including bear, fox, raccoon, opossum, squirrel, and turkey, but deer was their favorite game animal. The Indians learned to burn small areas of the forest to improve their hunting. The bushes and plants that grew back in the cleared areas attracted deer and other game.

With less time required for hunting, the Indians had more time for other activities.



▲ Archaeological digs into middens reveal information about the prehistoric people who created them.

Their shelters, framed with wooden poles and covered with deer hides, branches, and bark, were intended to last for a longer period of time. Archaic Indians learned how to polish stone and crafted many useful as well as decorative items from stone and bone. At the end of the Archaic Period, they found out how to make clay pottery—a discovery that changed the way they prepared their food.

The oldest evidence of pottery in North America was also found on Stallings Island. This pottery was tempered with fibers, such as Spanish moss or grass, to keep it from cracking during firing. With pottery, Indians were able to cook their food with water or oil. It is also evidence that life was becoming more settled. After all, pottery couldn't easily be carried long distances without being broken.

Archaic Indians surely had some type of religious beliefs. Proper burial of the dead seems to have become important. Tools, weapons, and body ornaments found in

some burial pits suggest a belief in life after death. ■

WOODLAND PERIOD (1000 B.C. TO A.D. 1000)

By about 1000 B.C., a new Indian tradition was emerging. During this period, **Woodland Indians**¹¹ throughout the Southeast built thousands of earthen mounds, many of which remain today. Kolomoki Mounds, located near Blakely



LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 **Define:** Paleo-Indians, bands, atlatl, Archaic Indians, midden
- 2 Why is it unlikely that Paleo-Indians built permanent homes?
- 3 Explain how the development of the atlatl and pottery changed the way Archaic Indians lived.

◀ **Rock Eagle**, located just north of Eatonton, Georgia, is an example of an **effigy** mound built during the Woodland Period, circa A.D. 200.

in Early County, were built during this period. The mounds varied in size, shape, and usage. Some were only a few feet high, while others were enormous. Some were round and others flat on top. Through excavations, archaeologists have discovered that there were many different types of these earthen structures. Some were burial mounds and some were flat-topped, perhaps for ceremonial activities. The Indians even made mounds in the shapes of animals. In Georgia, Rock Eagle is a well-known **effigy**¹² mound from this tradition.

Like their Archaic ancestors, Woodland Indians were at home in the forest. For hunting, they developed a new weapon, the bow and arrow. The arrowheads were much smaller than the spear points used earlier. Even more important was the development of agriculture.

Woodland Indians began to save seeds in the fall for spring planting in cleared forest areas. Nuts became more important in

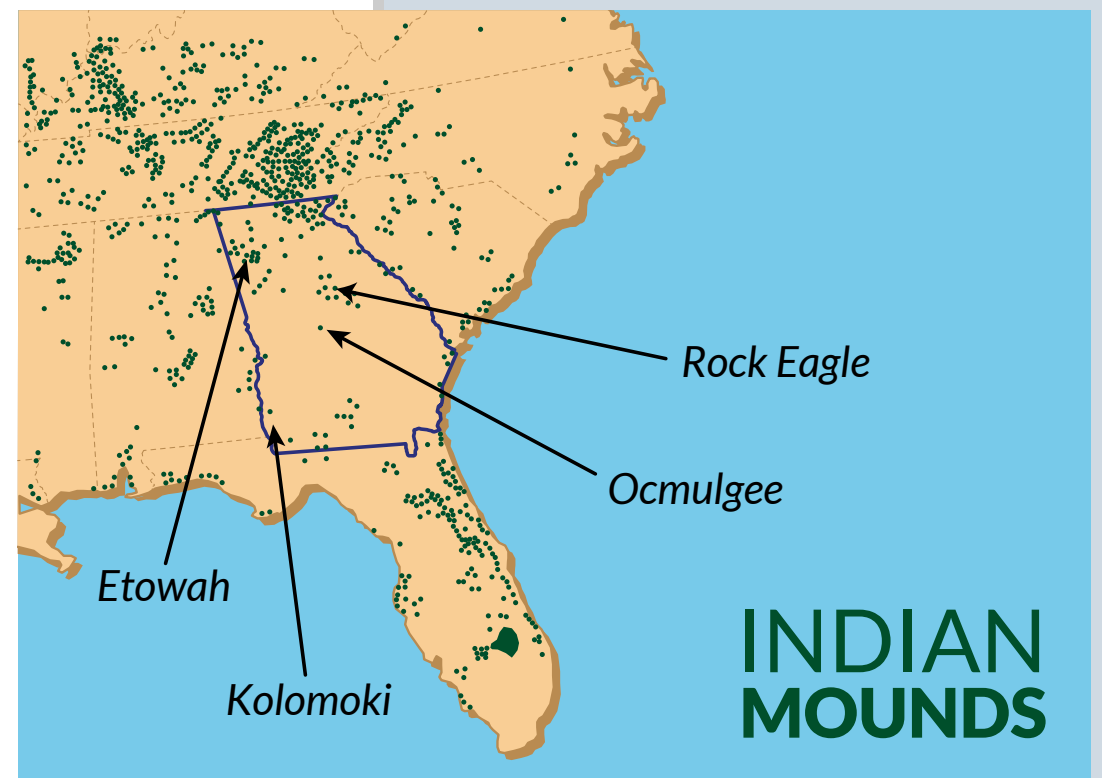
their diet, and they dug underground pits to store nuts and seeds. Corn, squash, and bottle gourd from what is now Mexico were other, less important, plant species used by the Indians.

These practices helped increase the food supply. The population grew, smaller groups joined together to form tribes, and villages began to appear. The Indians became more settled, and archaeologists have discovered traces of sturdy houses built to stand longer than the earlier Indian shelters.

During this time, the use of pottery became widespread throughout the Southeast. Instead of plant fibers, pottery makers began using sand, grit, or ground-up pieces of pottery with the clay.

Designs were stamped on the pots, or the surface

Numerous **Indian mounds** were found throughout the Southeast. Identified are four locations of Georgia mounds that can be visited.



was engraved with a stick. Each region had its own special designs.

There is evidence that Woodland Indians traded throughout what is now the eastern United States. Artifacts have been found in Georgia made of copper from as far away as the Great Lakes.

This evidence also reveals that Georgia's Indians may have shared religious ideas and practices with other Indians of the eastern woodlands. Their burial mounds, made of earth and stone, often contained jewelry, pottery figurines of humans and animals, and other ceremonial objects.

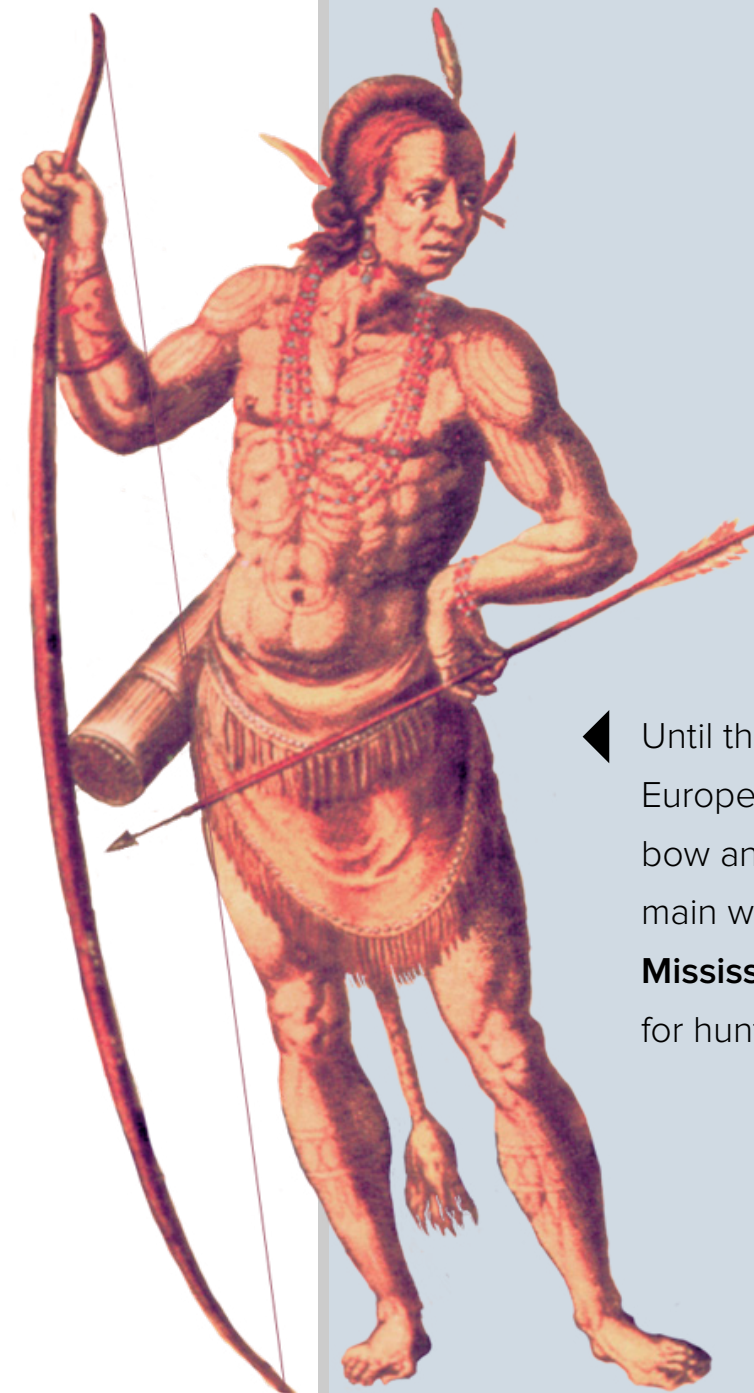
MISSISSIPPIAN PERIOD (A.D. 1000 TO 1600)

Between A.D. 700 and 900, a new cultural tradition developed along the Mississippi River, later spreading to other areas in the Southeast. The **Mississippian Indians**¹³

preferred places that offered (1) rich bottomlands by rivers, (2) long, moist growing seasons, and (3) good deer and turkey hunting. This tradition is named for the area where it first began.

Wild foods remained important to the Indians of the Mississippian period, but they also had come to rely more on agriculture, particularly corn. In addition, these Indians grew beans. Harvested crops were stored in community storehouses, giving the tribe a constant food supply.

Agriculture supported a larger population. It enabled the Mississippian people to live in large permanent settlements. A Mississippian settlement was usually protected by a wooden



◀ Until the arrival of European traders, the bow and arrow was the main weapon used by **Mississippian Indians** for hunting and battle.

palisade¹⁴ (a wall made of tall posts) and a **moat**¹⁵ (a wide ditch) outside the palisade. Within the safety of the walls, many structures of wood and clay (known as **wattle and daub**¹⁶ houses) were built by the people to live in.

A new, more complicated social and political organization developed, called a **chiefdom**¹⁷. It might include only a few villages or extend over a wide area and many villages. At the top, a priest-chief ruled, presiding over religious ceremonies as well as political affairs. This job was handed down through the ruling family.

Mississippian Indians built large flat-topped mounds with temples and other buildings for ceremonies at the top. Inside and at the base of mounds were burial places. Buried with the dead were food, tools, ornaments, and ceremonial objects of wood, copper, seashell, and stone. Etowah and Ocmulgee are the best-known Mississippian mound sites in Georgia.

Indian culture reached a high point

during the Mississippian Period. Evidence recovered from the many sites of the period tells us more about these people than we know about any of their ancestors. We know that Indian traders regularly traveled along waterways and forest trails between settlements such as Etowah (near Cartersville) and Ocmulgee (near Macon). Artifacts unearthed from burials show the high artistic level of the people. We even know what games they played and that they smoked tobacco and decorated themselves with jewelry,

Artist's idea of the great **Mississippian mound** complex of Cahokia located in Illinois. Though much smaller, Georgia's mound village at Etowah would have been similar in appearance.





Georgia's Indians were changed forever. But there were survivors, and from these would come such Indian societies as the Creek and the Cherokee. ■

feathers, and tattooing. We know their lives were full of ceremony and that they had special places to conduct ceremonies.

It was the Mississippian Indian culture that Hernando de Soto encountered in his exploration through Georgia in 1540. In a very short time, the societies of mound builders and chiefdoms vanished, as Europeans brought death in the form of diseases and steel weapons. The lives of

LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 Define:** Woodland Indians, effigy, Mississippian Indians, palisade, moat, wattle and daub, chiefdom
- 2 Identify:** Rock Eagle, Etowah Mounds, Ocmulgee Mounds
- 3** Describe the different types of mounds Woodland Indians built and their uses.
- 4** How did the practice of farming encourage the development of permanent settlements by the Mississippian Indians?

Vocabulary

- 1 Ice Age** - A geologic age of the earth when much of the earth's water was frozen into glaciers and polar ice, causing ocean levels to fall.
- 2 Beringia** - The exposed land between Alaska and Siberia during the Ice Age that served as a bridge between North America and Asia.
- 3 Migration** - Movement of humans or animals from one place to another.
- 4 Nomads** - Wanderers.
- 5 Tradition** - Another word for Native American cultural periods, such as the Paleo-Indian Tradition.
- 6 Paleo-Indians** - The first prehistoric Native Americans to live in the Southeast, from approximately 10,000 to 8000 B.C.
- 7 Band** - A group of people.
- 8 Atlatl** - A spear-throwing tool developed by early prehistoric Indians to increase the speed and distance a spear could be thrown.
- 9 Archaic Indians** - Prehistoric Native Americans who lived in the Southeast during the period from about 8000 to 1000 B.C.
- 10 Middens** - Massive heaps of discarded oyster and mussel shells.
- 11 Woodland Indians** - The prehistoric Native American culture that existed between Archaic and Mississippian periods, lasting roughly from 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1000.
- 12 Effigy** - An image of a person or an animal.

- 13 **Mississippian Indians** - The prehistoric Native American culture that first developed along the Mississippi River around A.D. 700 to 900, later spreading to other areas in the Southeast.
- 14 **Palisade** - A wall made of tall posts built around Mississippian Indian villages for protection.
- 15 **Moat** - A wide ditch around a village palisade used to provide protection against attack.
- 16 **Wattle and daub** - Combination of wood and clay used by the Mississippian Indians for building their houses.
- 17 **Chiefdom** - A social and political institution that developed during the Mississippian Indian period. Ruled over by a priest-chief, a chiefdom could consist of from one to many villages.



CHAPTER 4 QUIZ

Text Version

Chapter 5 Foreword

Georgia Standards of Excellence
Correlations ▼

SS8H1

Chapter Outline

The Age of Discovery

- Columbus Discovers the New World
- Spanish Claims in the New World
- English Claims in the New World

Spain Comes to the Southeast

- First European Settlement in North America
- Hernando de Soto Explores Georgia
- French Claims in the Southeast
- Spanish Settlements in La Florida

England Comes to North America

- Types of Colonies
- England Creates Carolina
- A New Colony South of the Savannah River

SS8H1

Evaluate the impact of European exploration and settlement on American Indians in Georgia.

- Explain reasons for European exploration and settlement of North America, with emphasis on the interests of the Spanish and British in the Southeastern area.
- Evaluate the impact of Spanish contact on American Indians, including the explorations of Hernando de Soto and the establishment of Spanish missions along the barrier islands.



In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, great sailing ships ventured to the North and South American continents exploring and claiming portions of the New World.

CHAPTER 5

AT FIRST GLANCE

The chapter covers European discovery and exploration of the New World and the impact of Europeans on the Native American population. Georgia's Spanish mission period with a focus on the exploration of Hernando de Soto is covered. The chapter traces the claims and settlements that led to Georgia's founding.

Europe Discovers the New World

[The Age of Discovery](#)

[Spain Comes to the Southeast](#)

[England Comes to North
America](#)

The first European to set foot on North America was a Viking explorer named Leif Ericson. Around the year 1000, he sailed from Greenland, probably landing along the coast of Newfoundland, Canada. The Vikings settled there briefly but left the new continent and returned to Greenland. In time, the story of Ericson's discovery became a well-known Viking legend.

The Age of Discovery

By the fifteenth century, the future of Georgia and its native people was being shaped by events taking place thousands of miles away. Far across the Atlantic, Europe's great "Age of Discovery" was about to begin. Thereafter, for almost three centuries, European nations would challenge each other for rights to the Western Hemisphere.

In the beginning, Europe was not interested in North or South America. The truth is, neither continent was known to exist. Rather, Europeans believed the world consisted of only three continents—Europe, Africa, and Asia—plus scattered islands in the ocean.

Europeans were really interested in the **Far East**¹, a region of southeastern Asia that included India, China, and Japan. This area, also known as the **Indies**², was the source of goods highly prized in Europe, such as silk, spices, tea, and gems.

Muslim traders in western Asia, however, controlled the land and sea routes over which these goods were supplied to the west. The Age of Discovery began because European nations wanted their own direct access to the Far Eastern trade.

Portugal took an early lead in this race, exploring the western coast of Africa southward in search of an eastern route to the Indies. By now, most European geographers recognized that the earth was round. If this were true, would it be possible to find a shorter route to the Far East by sailing west? "Yes!" said Italian-born explorer Christopher Columbus, believing that to the west, only ocean separated Europe from the Indies.



▲ On October 12, 1492, Christopher Columbus landed with his party on the Caribbean Island of San Salvador. Columbus believed he had reached islands on the eastern edge of the **Indies** - the east Indies. However, as later explorers would discover, these weren't the Indies at all. Soon Europeans began calling these islands the West Indies to distinguish them from those in the **Far East**.

Little did he know that two vast continents—North and South America—lay as great barriers to the Indies.

Columbus tried to get support for a voyage westward across the Atlantic Ocean. King John of Portugal turned him down, preferring to seek an eastern route. Columbus turned to Spain, and finally convinced King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella to finance his great exploration. Columbus was instructed to discover and conquer any islands or continents he should find on behalf of Spain.

COLUMBUS DISCOVERS THE NEW WORLD

You can imagine the relief felt by the crews of the *Niña*, *Pinta*, and *Santa Maria* on the morning of October 12, 1492. After six weeks at sea, they finally sighted land. The land turned out to be an island, which Columbus claimed for Ferdinand

and Isabella. In the weeks that followed, other islands were discovered and claimed. Convinced that these were part of the Indies, Columbus called the dark-skinned natives living on the islands “Indians.” It was a term Europeans came to apply to all natives in this newly discovered world.

For several months, Columbus explored the islands of the Caribbean Sea. He was disappointed to find no silk, spices, or riches, except for native jewelry. But he remained convinced that this was the Indies. Columbus returned to Spain with the great news that a westward route had been found.



◀ A sixteenth-century navigator's compass

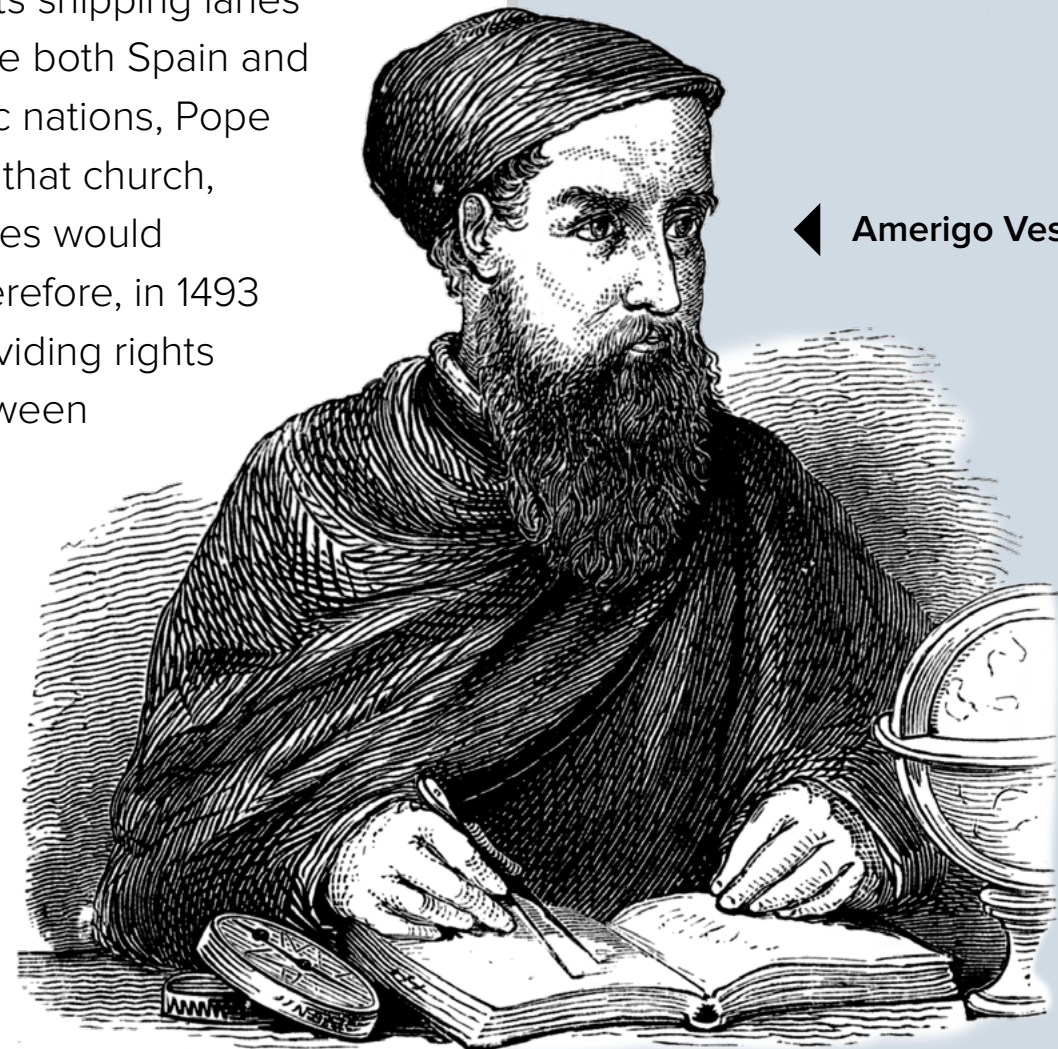
Three other explorations would follow. Until his death, Columbus believed he had reached the Far East. Others, however, soon realized that the continents and islands being discovered were part of a world previously unknown to Europeans. Accompanying one expedition was Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian businessman. Vespucci was convinced that a new continent had been found and called the region a **New World**³. The term became popular in Europe, although in 1507, a Swiss mapmaker applied a different name to this area of the world. For some unknown reason, he named it after Amerigo Vespucci. Soon, other explorers discovered that “America” was not just one continent but two.

SPANISH CLAIMS IN THE NEW WORLD

Although Columbus had found no riches, Spanish claims in the New World worried

Portugal. Portugal had been searching for an eastern sea route to the Far East. By sailing west, Columbus had appeared to achieve in one voyage what Portugal had failed to accomplish in nearly a century. Spain was now an active rival for access to the Far East. Portugal also feared that Spain might threaten its shipping lanes around Africa. Because both Spain and Portugal were Catholic nations, Pope Alexander VI, head of that church, feared the two countries would become enemies. Therefore, in 1493 he issued a decree dividing rights to the New World between Spain and Portugal.

According to Pope Alexander, at a point nearly 400 miles to the west of the Azores islands, a line would be drawn north and south to the two



◀ Amerigo Vespucci

poles. This line was known as the **Line of Demarcation**⁴. All lands east of this line could be claimed by Portugal, while lands to the west—including what today is Georgia—went to Spain.



Portugal, however, was not happy. The Portuguese believed the Line of Demarcation favored Spain. Portugal called upon Spain to negotiate a new line. The next year, the two nations signed the Treaty of Tordesillas (pronounced

Tor-da-see-yus), which shifted the line 700 miles further to the west. Portugal's shipping interests around Africa were better protected—but new land was another matter. Although no one knew it at the time, Portugal received rights to only one territory in the New World—a South American land it would one day name Brazil.

ENGLISH CLAIMS IN THE NEW WORLD

Other European nations refused to accept Spain and Portugal's division of the Americas between themselves. England and France prepared to make their own explorations.

Within four years of Columbus's first voyage, English merchants were anxious to have access to the New World. In 1497, John Cabot sailed from England to the northeastern coast of North America. The following year, Cabot began a second

◀ **The Cross of Burgundy** was used as the Spanish flag in many colonial territories. This one still flies over Fort San Cristobal in Puerto Rico.

Early European
voyages of discovery
of the New World

Cabot 1497 (England)

Cabot 1498 (England)

Verrazano 1524 (France)

Columbus 1492 (Spain)

Treaty of Tordesillas 1494

Line of Demarcation 1493

North
America

Europe

Africa

South
America



exploration, possibly sailing as far south as the Carolinas, Georgia, or even northern Florida. England later claimed North America's eastern seaboard for itself, arguing that Cabot's voyage gave England the rights to it.

England ignored the pope's decree that North America belonged to Spain. England also rejected the Treaty of Tordesillas as a basis for Spanish rights to the New World. Spain replied with a third defense: the right of first discovery. According to this theory, a country could claim those lands its explorers found first.

In the race to discover as much land as possible, Spain financed more than 80 voyages to the New World during the 12 years after Columbus's first voyage.

How much land could an explorer claim, and for how long? European nations could not agree, so England proposed another standard: any first discovery claims had to be followed by actual occupation. It was

not enough to plant a flag on the beach. To enforce a claim, settlers and soldiers from the explorer's country must follow and **colonize**⁵—or occupy and control—the land.

On one point, however, all European powers agreed. New World claims did not require permission from Native Americans. Catholic and Protestant rulers alike believed they had a legal right to occupy any land not already colonized by another power. They also felt a moral duty to convert the natives to Christianity. ■

LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 **Define:** Far East, Indies, New World, Line of Demarcation, colonize
- 2 **Identify:** Leif Ericson, Pope Alexander VI, Treaty of Tordesillas
- 3 Why were Native Americans called “Indians”?
- 4 Why is Portuguese the official language of Brazil?

Vocabulary

- 1 **Far East** - Area of Asia that included India, China, Japan, and southeastern Asia.
- 2 **Indies** - Another name for the Far East used by Europeans beginning in the 1400s.
- 3 **New World** - Name given in the fifteenth century by Amerigo Vespucci to the newly discovered continents of South America, North America, and surrounding areas.
- 4 **Line of Demarcation** - Line drawn by Pope Alexander in 1493 to divide the rights to the New World between Spain and Portugal.
- 5 **Colonize** - To set up a colony.

Spain Comes to the Southeast

In the New World, Spain hoped to convert the natives, expand its empire, and discover new riches—God, glory, and gold (although not always in that order). At first, the Spanish concentrated their efforts on the West Indies, Central America, and northern South America. But soon came stories of the fabled cities of gold to the north.

The first Spanish explorer to set foot on the soil of what today is the United States was Juan Ponce de León. He came in search of riches, adventure, and a legendary fountain of youth located somewhere north of Cuba. In April 1513, Ponce de León came ashore on what he thought was a large island. Actually, it was the Florida coast near the future site of St. Augustine. Because he arrived during the religious holiday Pasqua Florida, he named his discovery “Isla Florida” (Island of Flowers), later shortened to **La Florida**¹. Eight years later, Ponce de León returned



to Florida’s west coast, now intending to begin a permanent settlement. Hostile Indians attacked his force, and many Spaniards were killed. Ponce de León was wounded in this battle and died soon after.

◀ Juan Ponce de León

Despite the dangers, other Spanish explorers came. Spain wanted to see the settlement of La Florida, an area that includes what today is Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, and Mississippi.

FIRST EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN NORTH AMERICA

Many historians now believe that the first European settlement in North America since the Vikings occurred along the coast of Georgia. They think that happened 14 years before Hernando de Soto's expedition through Georgia in 1540. In 1504, a young Spanish lawyer named Lucas Vázquez de Ayllón was appointed to a judgeship on the Caribbean island of Hispaniola. He became an owner of a sugar cane plantation that was worked by Indian slaves. Many of the slaves died from disease and other reasons, and Ayllón and other planters began looking to the

north for more Indians to enslave. One expedition to capture new slaves, financed by Ayllón, landed on the coast of what is present-day South Carolina. Based on reports about the land, Ayllón asked for and received permission from the king of Spain to explore and colonize La Florida.

In July 1526, Ayllón sailed from Hispaniola with 600 Spanish settlers. Aboard were men, women, and children, among them many Africans (whose number included slaves and perhaps some free blacks who were skilled laborers). Their destination was the mainland of North America. Their objective was not gold or silver but rather to settle the land granted by the

Artist's conception of Ayllón's colonists building San Miguel de Gualdape—the first Spanish settlement in North America.



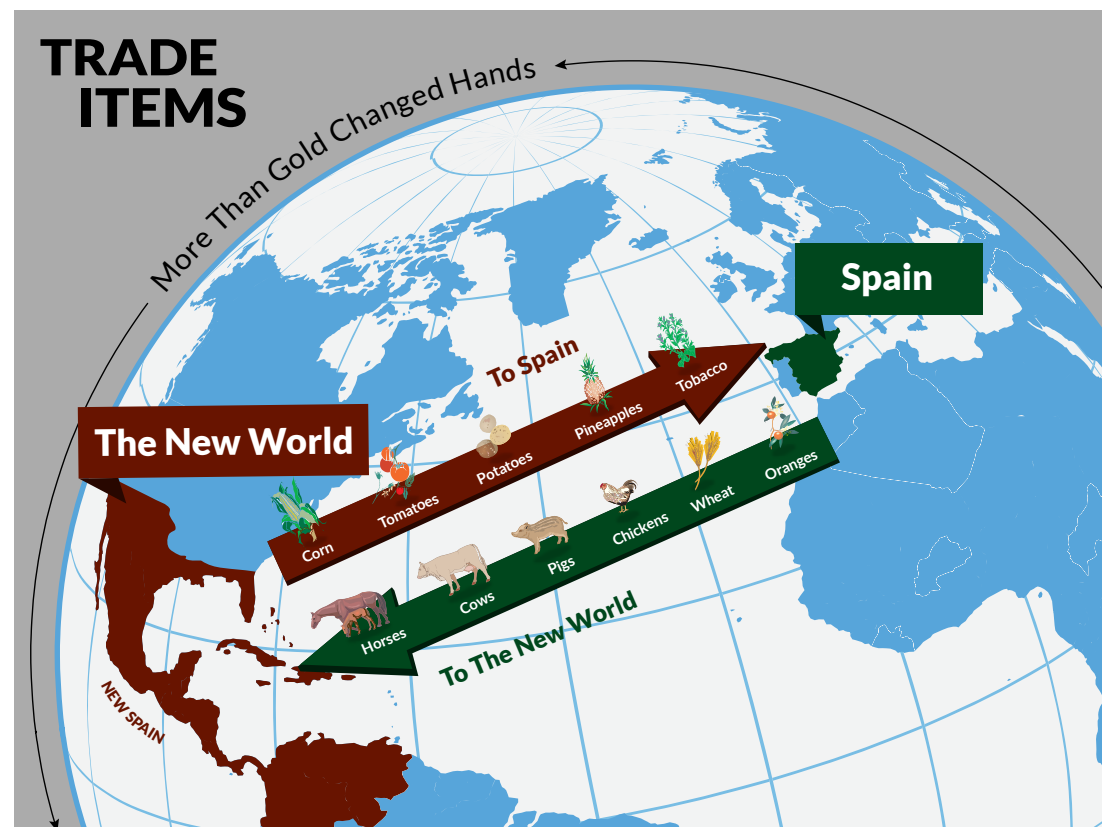
king. If successful, Ayllón's colony would be Spain's first settlement on the North American mainland.

Ayllón's fleet landed on the Carolina coast in August, too late in the year to plant crops. He hoped to find friendly Indians who not only would allow them to settle but would provide the colonists with food until they could grow their own crops. Failing to find Indians, Ayllón's colonists

sailed southward in September. Near the mouth of a river in what is today McIntosh County, Georgia, they found Indians nearby. On September 29, 1526, they unloaded their personal belongings, tools, and livestock and began construction of the new settlement of San Miguel de Gualdape.

As it turned out, however, the colony was doomed. Cold weather came unusually

early that year. Just 10 days after their arrival, Ayllón died. Illness and death followed for others in the settlement. Fear set in over lack of food and shelter, and a revolt broke out among the colonists. The African slaves rebelled—the first case of a slave revolt in America—and the Indians rose up against the Spanish colonists.



Soon, San Miguel de Gualdape was abandoned, and the survivors set sail for Hispaniola. Only 150 of the colonists are known to have made it back to the island alive.

HERNANDO DE SOTO EXPLORES GEORGIA

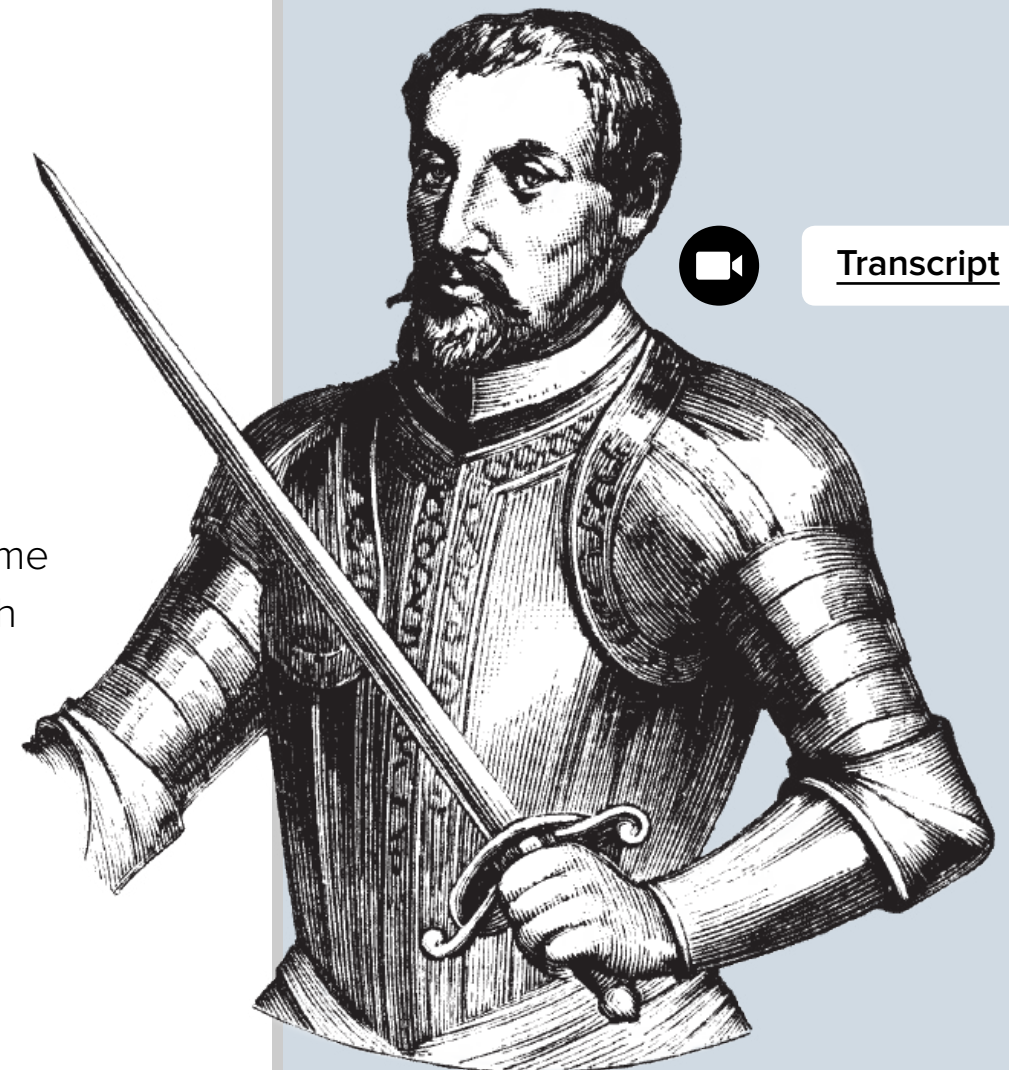
In 1537, Hernando de Soto decided he would succeed where Ayllón had failed. Using gold and silver from his conquests in Peru, de Soto asked the king of Spain for permission to colonize La Florida. The king agreed, giving him 18 months to explore an area 600 miles inland from the Florida coast. De Soto was to look for riches and conquer hostile Indians there. In return, he would be given a title, land, and a portion of the colony's profits.

In 1538, de Soto and 600 followers sailed from Spain to Cuba, where they spent most of a year preparing for their

expedition. In 1539, they sailed for the North American mainland, landing on Florida's western coast. After spending the winter near present-day Tallahassee, they headed north, crossing into Georgia in March 1540. On this journey, the Spanish encountered the Indian chiefdoms of the Mississippian Period.

De Soto's route through the Southeast quickly became a journey of death and disappointment. Food was a continual problem, and de Soto often seized stored food supplies from the Indians. Meat was in such short supply that the expedition reportedly even ate the dogs in some Indian villages. The four-year search turned up practically no gold or silver. Almost half of the expedition—including de Soto himself—died from disease, exposure, Indian attacks, or other causes.

Hernando de Soto



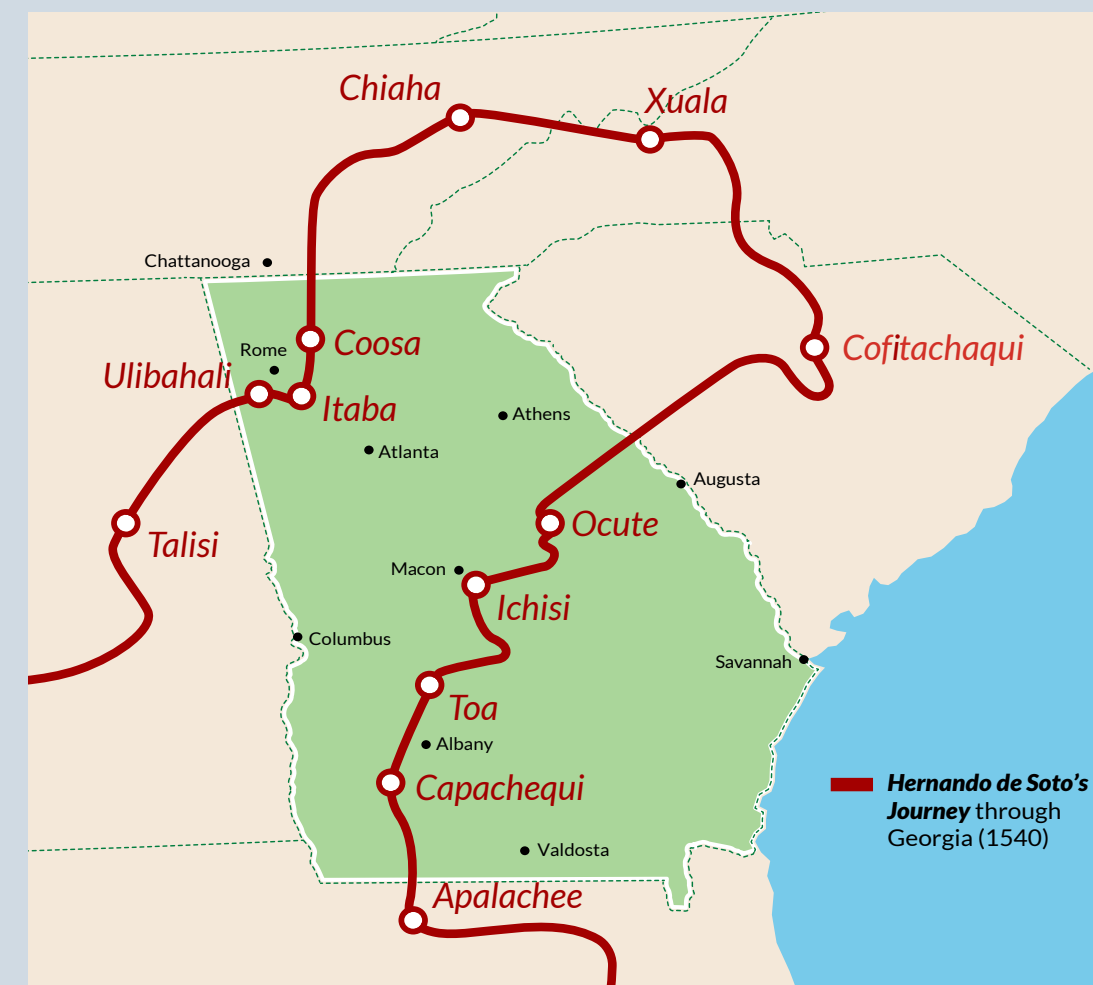
More tragic was the fate of the Indians of the Southeast. The natives had never seen guns, steel swords, metal armor, and horses. They had only weapons of stone and wood and were often unable to defend themselves successfully. Many were killed in battle or forced into slavery by the Spanish. Worst of all, they were exposed for the first time to European diseases against which they had little resistance, such as measles and chicken pox. Smallpox, which spread rapidly throughout the Southeast, killed about one in three Indians. In just a matter of years, chiefdoms were abandoned and entire villages stood vacant.

Twenty years after de Soto's expedition through the Southeast, Spain decided to create an inland colony in the territory de Soto had explored. In 1559, Tristán de Luna sailed from Mexico with 500 soldiers and 1,000 colonists and servants. Landing near Pensacola on the Gulf Coast, they proceeded northward into Alabama,

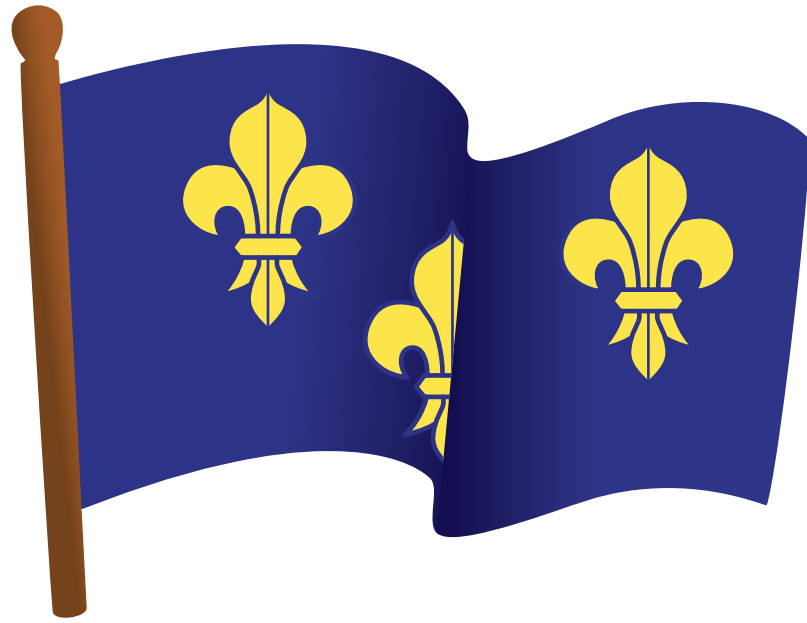
arriving eventually at the Indian chiefdom of Coosa in northwest Georgia. However, the effort failed, and de Luna's colonists returned to Mexico in 1561. Other Spanish expeditions to Georgia followed, but none of the colonization efforts succeeded.

During the two centuries following the discovery of the New World, over 90 percent of the native population vanished. As a result, the Spanish began exporting slaves from western Africa to work the fields and mines of the Caribbean islands. For the few Indians who survived in the Southeast, life was forever changed. Their descendants would later emerge as the Cherokee, Creek, and other native tribes and nations.

DE SOTO'S JOURNEY



▲ **Hernando de Soto's journey** through Georgia in 1540 was part of a four-year exploration through the Southeast from 1539 to 1543.



FRENCH CLAIMS IN THE SOUTHEAST

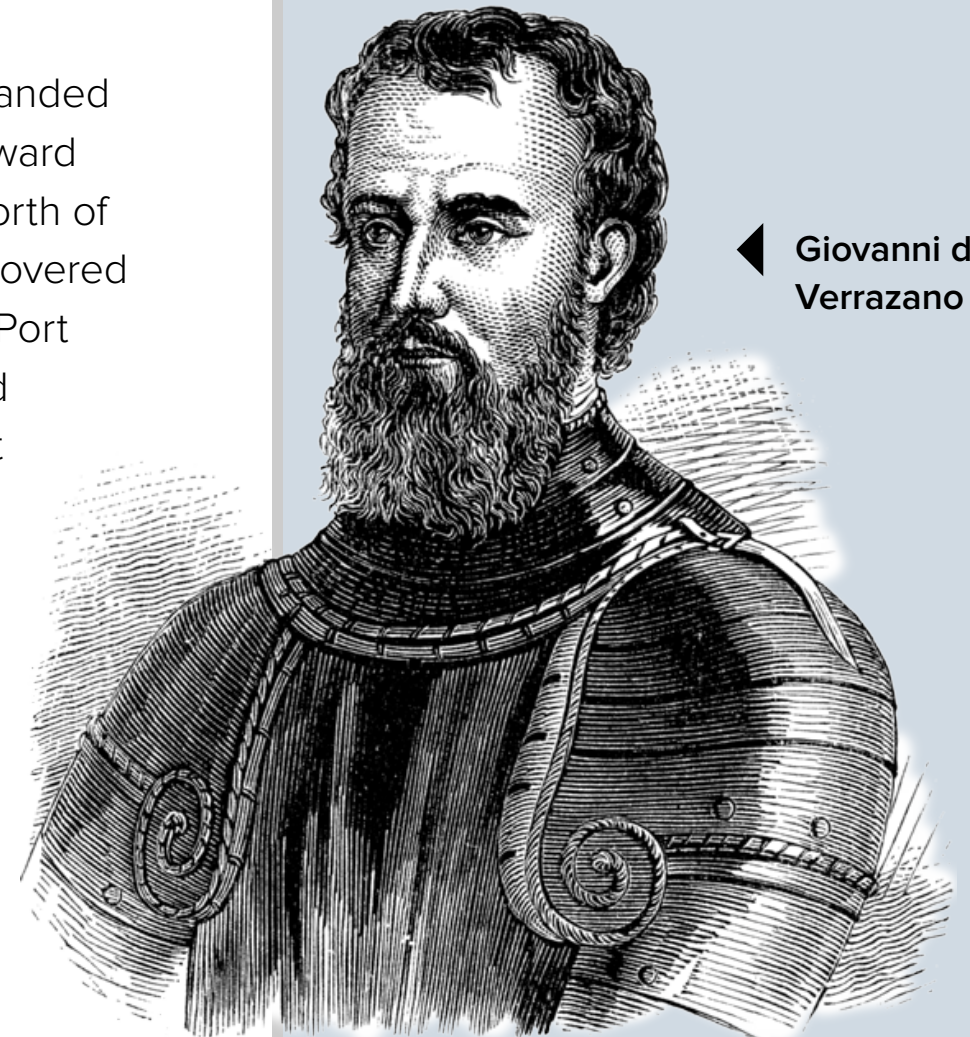
France had been the third European power to enter the race for North America. In 1524, only three years after Ponce de León's death, Giovanni de Verrazano sailed from France. Like Columbus, Verrazano believed that he could sail westward from Europe to Asia. Instead, he found his way blocked by North America. He first came ashore on the Carolina coast, or possibly even as far south as

Georgia or Florida. From there, he sailed up North America's east coast to Nova Scotia before returning home. France later used Verrazano's exploration as the basis for its claim to the Southeast.

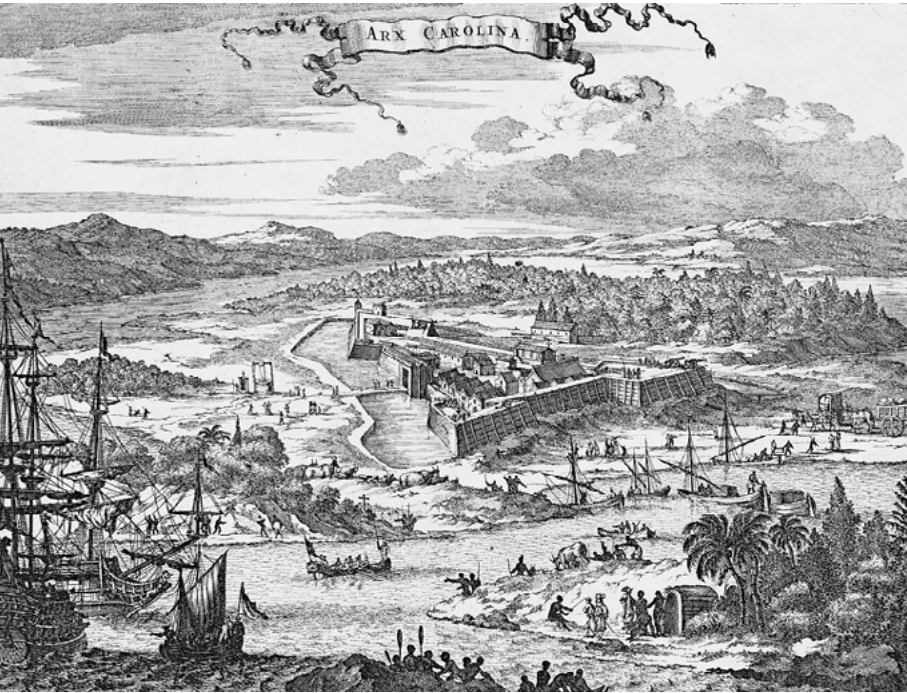
By 1562, France was ready to join Spain in the New World. Jean Ribault (pronounced Jahn Re-bow) and a band of 150 **Huguenots**² (French Protestants) landed on Florida's coast and sailed northward looking for a place to settle. Just north of present-day Savannah, Ribault discovered a protected inlet, which he named Port Royal. Here the French constructed Charles Fort, the first European fort on the North American mainland. Famine and other hardships, however, forced them to abandon the settlement.

Two years later, a second group of Huguenots arrived in Spanish Florida. There, at the mouth of the St. Johns River, they built Fort Caroline.

◀ Royal flag of France before the Revolution



◀ Giovanni de Verrazano



Catholic Spain was outraged. Not only were these French Protestants building forts and settling on Spanish soil, they were even raiding Spanish ships. Spain now moved quickly to push the Huguenots out.

In 1565, Pedro Menéndez and a large force of soldiers and colonists sailed from Spain. Their orders were to drive the French out and begin colonizing La Florida. They quickly carried out their orders. After landing on the coast of

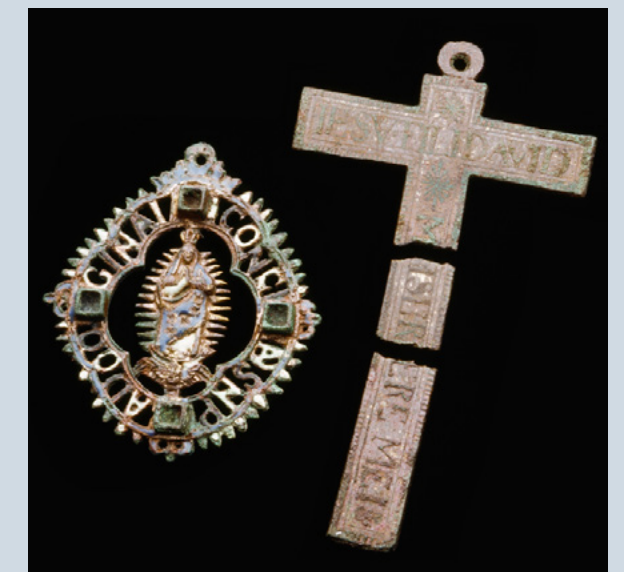
Florida, Menéndez proceeded to the St. Johns River for a surprise raid on Fort Caroline. The Spanish captured Fort Caroline and then executed its French Huguenot defenders.

SPANISH SETTLEMENTS IN LA FLORIDA

Menéndez founded St. Augustine, Spain's first successful settlement on the North American continent. Located on the Atlantic coast, St. Augustine soon became an important military and political base for La Florida. It was also well situated to protect Spanish treasure ships using the Gulf Stream to speed their return home. Spanish ships loaded with New World gold and silver were tempting prizes for pirates or raiders hiding along the East Coast. Because St. Augustine is close to the Gulf Stream, Spanish crews could patrol the waters off Florida's coast, thus giving some protection along this passageway.

◀ French Fort Caroline

Religious artifacts from Mission Santa Catalina de Guale, St. Catherines Island, Georgia, formerly kept at the American Museum of Natural History in New York, are now being preserved at Fernbank Museum of Natural History in Atlanta.



SPANISH MISSIONS IN LA FLORIDA

In an attempt to transform La Florida's Indians into Christian subjects of the King, Spain proceeded to build Catholic **missions**³—church outposts—along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. Church missionaries, known as **friars**⁴, lived and

worked with the Indians at these outposts. Sometimes a few soldiers were assigned to a mission for protection.

Missions—not forts—were the key to Spain's plan to prepare the Southeast for colonization. A mission was usually built at the village of an important local chief. Here the Indians could be instructed in religion and social behavior. The young would

be taught to read and write, while adults learned of new crops and farming methods. The missions also provided a place for trading between Indians and Spanish colonists.

For purposes of missionary work, Georgia's coast was divided into two Spanish provinces. **Guale**⁵ (pronounced Wal-lee) was in the north, and **Mocama**⁶ was in the south. Guale consisted of the coastal area between



◀ The **Gulf Stream** was used by Spanish treasure ships returning to Europe. La Florida's nearness to the Gulf Stream made it important to Spain.

the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Mocama included the area between the Altamaha and St. Marys rivers.

Within a century from the founding of St. Augustine, 38 Spanish missions were in operation in La Florida, providing contact with some 25,000 Indians. But the work of the missionaries was not always welcomed by these Native Americans. Several friars lost their lives because of Indian uprisings.

GUALE AND MOCAMA

Soon after the founding of St. Augustine, Pedro Menéndez began a search for sites to build missions. In early 1566, he traveled up the Atlantic coast. Leaving a **garrison**⁷ (unit) of Spanish soldiers on Cumberland Island, he visited the main chief of the Guale Indians on St. Catherines Island. Here, Menéndez erected a cross and conducted four days of religious instruction for the Indians.

Father Antonio Sedeño and Brother Domingo Báez were assigned to St. Catherines Island. Here they began the mission known as Santa Catalina de Guale. Báez died of malaria before the year's end, while Sedeño stayed for 16 months. During this time, only seven Indians were converted, four of them children. Missionary work came to a standstill.

In the 1580s, a new round of missionary work began in Mocama. A decade later, Spanish missionaries became active along the Georgia coast in Guale.



JUANILLO REBELLION

In 1597, an event occurred that threatened the future of the Spanish missions. Don Juanillo, a Guale Indian, was next in line to become chief. The young Juanillo, however, had two wives—a practice local missionaries had tried in vain to change. Now, he was about to become chief. Taking a bold step, one of the friars declared Juanillo unfit to be chief and named another tribal member as the next leader.

Juanillo was furious. By what right did Spanish friars have the power to say who should be chief? Juanillo assembled a small band of Indians to kill the friar who had denied him his chiefdom.

After the murder, Juanillo called for other chiefs in Guale to revolt against the Spanish missionaries. The unarmed priests could do nothing, and one by one,

the missions fell. Finally, on Cumberland Island, Mocama Indians who supported the Spanish turned back the uprising. The Juanillo Rebellion ended, but not before five missionaries were executed.

Later, the missions would again become active. Recent excavations on St. Catherines Island have uncovered a mission graveyard with the remains of over 400 Native Americans. Religious artifacts buried with the bodies suggest Catholic influence on these coastal Indians. ■

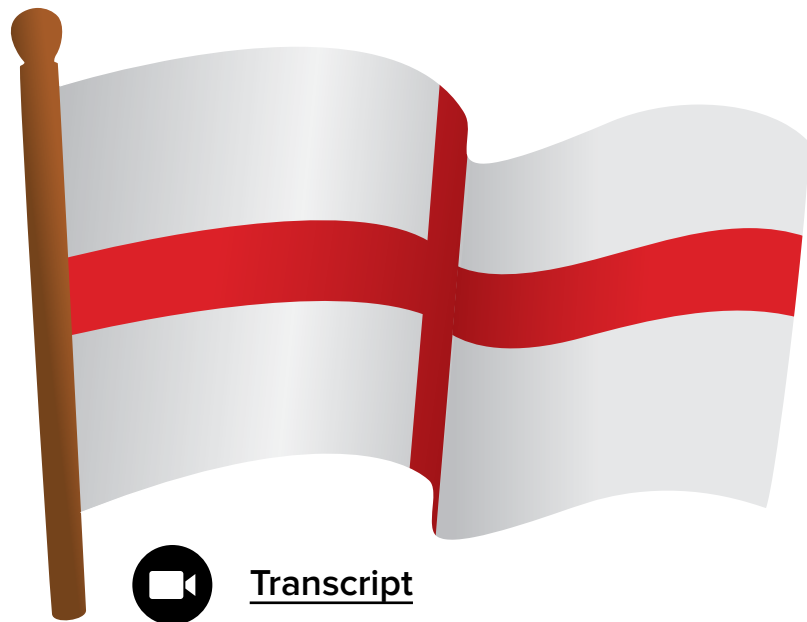
LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 **Define:** La Florida, Huguenots, mission, friar, Guale, Mocama, garrison
 - 2 **Identify:** Juan Ponce de León, Lucas Vázquez de Ayllón, Hernando de Soto, Jean Ribault, Pedro Menéndez, Santa Catalina de Guale
 - 3 What was the most tragic result of Hernando de Soto's contact with the Indians?
 - 4 What were the reasons why France's two colonies failed?
-

Vocabulary

- 1 **La Florida** - The Spanish name for the Southeast in the 1500s and 1600s.
- 2 **Huguenots** - Persecuted French Protestants who fled to North America in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
- 3 **Missions** - Church outposts, usually in foreign lands.
- 4 **Friars** - Catholic missionaries, particularly from Spain, who worked in church missions and outposts in foreign lands.
- 5 **Guale** - The name Spain gave to the northern half of Georgia's coast, taken from the name of the Indians who inhabited the area.
- 6 **Mocama** - The Spanish province, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, on the southern half of Georgia's coast between the Altamaha and St. Marys rivers.
- 7 **Garrison** - A unit of soldiers.

England Comes to North America



During the sixteenth century, Spain grew richer and more powerful because of its dominance in the New World. England was concerned about its future and determined to enjoy a share of the New World trade. When Spain refused to share, English sea captains began raiding Spanish ships and settlements in the Americas. In 1586, Sir Francis Drake attacked and burned St. Augustine, the main city in La Florida. The conflict continued for almost 20 years.

Finally, in 1604, the two powers signed a peace treaty. Now, England was ready to claim its share of North America.

Using Cabot's 1497 and 1498 explorations to justify English rights in the New World, King James I prepared a plan to establish **colonies**¹—territories on foreign soil that it controlled and settled. In 1606, he issued a **charter**² (a legal document signed by the king) to some merchants for a new colony in America. These merchants were known as the Virginia Company.

In January 1607, three small ships sailed from England with Virginia's first settlers. Once in the new land, the leaders selected an inland site on the James River for the colony's first settlement. Named in honor of the king, James Town (later combined as Jamestown) became England's first permanent settlement in America. Within a hundred years, England had colonized most of the eastern coast of North America.



▲
Sir Francis Drake

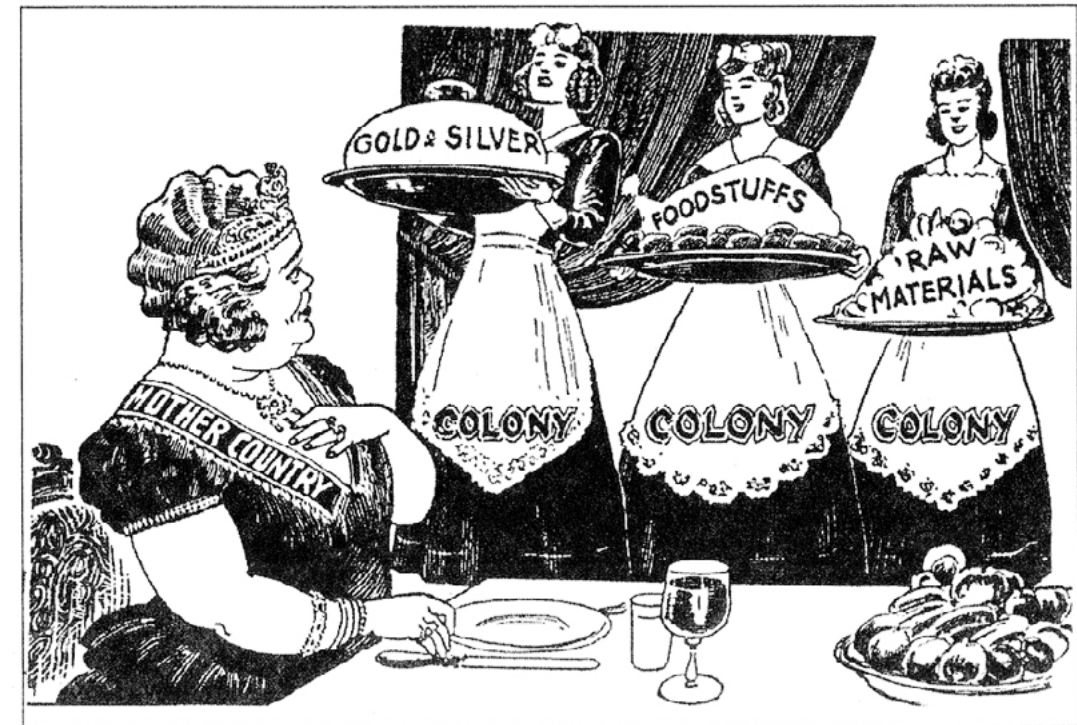
England had many reasons for wanting colonies in North America. Foremost was the desire to compete with other countries for power and glory. By being the first to establish permanent colonies, England would win out over rival countries in controlling land areas in North America.

Economic gain was another reason. Colonies in North America had the potential to provide resources that would benefit England economically. During the 1600s, a policy known as **mercantilism**³ was practiced by England. Mercantilism was a trade policy designed to make a nation as self-sufficient and wealthy as possible. The idea was for England to sell more to other countries than it had to buy from abroad. But the small island nation simply did not have the needed natural resources to sustain its economy. Also, because of its latitude and climate, many crops—such as cotton, tobacco, oranges, grapes, and spices—could not be grown at home.

For mercantilism to work, England had to find new sources of needed goods and raw materials. This would only be possible if England had its own colonies. The vast continent of North America held the most promise as a new source of food crops, tobacco, and raw materials for England. Colonies would also serve as a valuable market for English goods.

Although Virginia, England's first American colony, had a poor beginning, it proved mercantilism could work. The key was introduction of sweet tobacco from the West Indies and South America. Prized in Europe, the plant grew well in Virginia and fit perfectly into England's mercantile scheme. Virginia's success with tobacco encouraged other English colonies to follow its lead. Trading companies and

The Mercantilist Argument for Colonial Expansion



Source: Philip Dorf, *Our Early Heritage: Ancient and Medieval History*, Oxford Book Company (adapted)



The Mercantilist Argument for Colonial Expansion

Mercantilism

Britain's American Colonies



rice



meat



lumber



indigo



corn



tea



metalware



guns



furniture



cloth

wealthy persons were an important force in English colonization of North America.

The idea of colonies in North America appealed to England's upper class for still another reason. They believed their country was overpopulated with poor, homeless, and unemployed people who survived by begging or criminal activity. New colonies could provide a home for the poor and give them hope for a better life.

Finally, new colonies could serve as a home for religious groups seeking to practice their faith without discrimination. In England a group known as **Puritans**⁴ were speaking out against the Church of England. They opposed many of its practices and beliefs. In England, individuals known as Puritans were speaking out against the Church of England. Others, known as Separatists, wanted to break away and create a new church.



In 1617, one group of Separatists requested permission to immigrate to America, though not all came for religious reasons. Three years later, the **Mayflower** sailed from England with 102 colonists known as **Pilgrims**⁵. They arrived off the coast of Cape Cod in November 1620. Before going ashore,

◀ Family life was very important to the success of the **Pilgrims** in the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

Pilgrim leaders signed a contract known as the **Mayflower Compact**⁶ in which they agreed to be governed by fair and just laws that promoted the general good. This important document became the basis for the idea of government by consent of the people. The Plymouth settlement eventually became part of the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

TYPES OF COLONIES

In most cases, a new colony was created following an appeal to the king by a person, group, or company. The appeal was usually based on a combination of reasons, such as defense, trade, and religion. No matter what its purpose, creation of a new colony required a formal charter from the king. In many ways, the charter served as a constitution for the colony, describing its form of government. In some cases, charters were given to friends of the king, and in one case—Pennsylvania—the charter was issued to

repay a debt owed by the king.

England's American colonies took one of three forms. One type of colony was the **corporate colony**⁷. The king gave a grant of land to a corporation to settle a new colony in America. Most often the corporation was a **joint-stock company**⁸. The company assumed all costs for the colony through the sale of stock to investors in England. In return, profits from colonial trade, the sale of land, and other sources went back to the company and its stockholders. Virginia—England's first colony in North America—was founded by a joint-stock company.

A second type of colony in America was the **proprietary colony**⁹. This was a colony where the king issued a charter granting ownership of the colony to a person or group. The owner then had full rights to govern and distribute land in the new colony. Pennsylvania, established as a safe place for Quakers, was a proprietary colony.



▲
Signing the Mayflower Compact 1620

The third type of colony was the **royal colony**¹⁰. This was a colony operated directly by the English government through a royal governor appointed by the king. No American colonies started out this way, but by the end of the colonial period most had become royal colonies.

ENGLAND CREATES CAROLINA

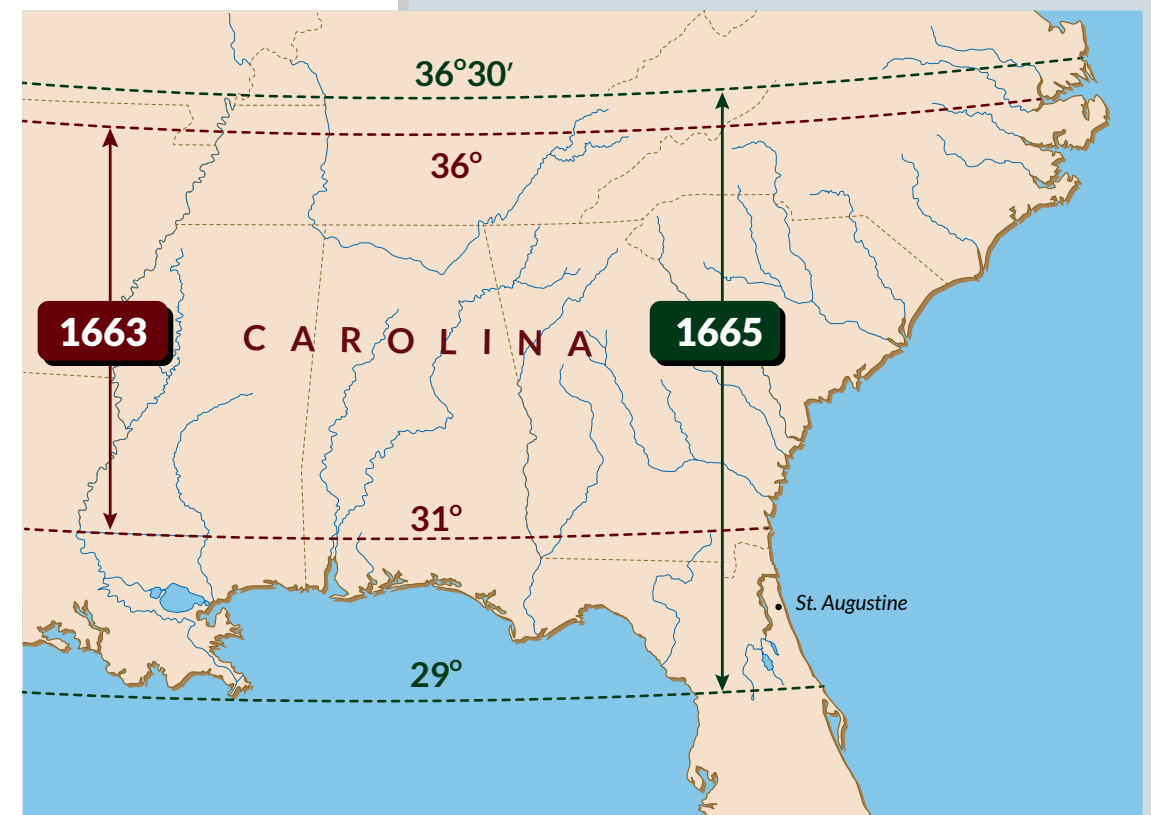
At first, England focused its efforts on colonies north of Virginia. Then, in 1663, King Charles II issued a charter for England's sixth American colony. Located south of Virginia, it would be named "Carolina."

The 36th parallel was selected as Carolina's northern boundary, and the 31st as its southern. England was now asserting a claim to most of Spanish Guale and Mocama. Two years later, King Charles claimed even more. He announced that Carolina's southern boundary actually was

the 29th parallel—a latitude some 60 miles to the south of the Spanish fortress at St. Augustine. King Charles said that because John Cabot in 1498 had sailed as far south as the 29th parallel, England was entitled to this area. He also slightly extended the northern boundary to 36°30'.

The British began settling the new Carolina colony. In 1670, the new settlement of Charles Town (later Charleston) quickly drew the anger of Spanish officials at St. Augustine. They correctly guessed that Charles Town would become a base for English efforts to gain control of Guale and Mocama. They could see that England intended to take over the entire Southeast. Carolina traders soon developed an active business with the Indians to the south

The **colony of Carolina**, chartered in 1663, had its boundaries extended by King Charles II in 1665. Much of this land, however, was already claimed by Spain as La Florida.



of the Savannah River. They exchanged firearms, tools, clothing, and other items for deerskins and furs. However, there was one thing even more valuable than animal hides—Indian slaves. Until the Yamasee Indians revolted in 1715, English traders actively provided Indians with weapons in exchange for captured Indian slaves. Rather than being used on Carolina farms, Indian slaves were sold to work in Caribbean island sugar fields and mines.

In 1680, English officers led a party of 300 Indian allies in a raid on Santa Catalina de Guale, the Spanish mission on St. Catherines Island. Though vastly outnumbered, the mission's defenders bravely turned back the attack. Fearing another attempt, however, the Spanish abandoned the outpost and retreated to Sapelo Island. They continued missionary work there for four years and then retreated to St. Augustine. By 1685, Spain had withdrawn entirely from coastal Georgia. However, for 60 more years,

Spain continued to claim the provinces of Guale and Mocama.

In 1673, French explorer Louis Joliet and Father Marquette, a Jesuit priest, journeyed westward from the Great Lakes in search of a great river that they had heard about. Finding the Mississippi River, they built boats and explored the river as far south as Arkansas. In 1682, La Salle followed the river all the way to the Gulf of Mexico. In honor of King Louis XIV, La Salle named the vast Mississippi Valley region "Louisiana." In the Southeast, France began extending its influence eastward along the Gulf Coast, with an eye toward reaching the Atlantic Ocean. Thus, at the turn of the century, in 1700, all the conflicting claims to land caused some to call the region south of Carolina's frontier "the debatable land."

In 1712, Carolina was divided into a southern and a northern province. Three years later, South Carolina was rocked by

a Yamasee Indian revolt. Many settlers along the frontier were killed before the revolt was put down. The Yamasees fled southward to Florida. Now more than ever, England worried about protecting Carolina’s southern frontier.



A NEW COLONY SOUTH OF THE SAVANNAH RIVER

The first serious proposal to colonize the area south of the Savannah River for England came in 1717. Sir Robert Montgomery proposed that he be allowed—at his own expense—to settle the land between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. He called the land “the most delightful country of the universe.”

Montgomery proposed to name the settlement Azilia. His dream was to produce silk, wine, and other products for England. Azilia’s main purpose, however, would be as a **buffer**¹¹ to protect South Carolina from Spanish, French, and Indian attacks. Montgomery, however, was unable to raise money or enlist colonists for his venture. Plans for a buffer colony were postponed.



Fort King George has been reconstructed using old records of the original fort. Located at Darien, it features a blockhouse, barracks, and a palisade with cannons placed to guard against a river attack.



Old Fort King George historical marker

Then, in 1720, John Barnwell, a Carolina trapper, called on Britain to build a series of small forts at various sites to the south and west of Carolina's frontier. Government officials agreed. The first outpost would be built near the mouth of the Altamaha River. When construction of Fort King George began in 1721, Spain immediately protested. Other factors, however, spelled doom for the fort. Sickness, climate, and biting insects contributed to an unhappy garrison,

and in 1727 the post was abandoned. Other proposals soon followed, including one in 1724 by Jean Pierre Purry of Switzerland. Although his proposal failed, his idea for naming the new colony would survive. In recognition of England's king, Purry suggested two names for the new colony. "Georgine" was one. His other choice was "Georgia."

Even though these early attempts were unsuccessful, interest in starting a new colony continued to develop in England. A member of Britain's Parliament, James Oglethorpe, had become well known for his work on prison reform, particularly in freeing people in jail for not paying their debts. By 1732, he and his supporters had convinced King George II to approve a new English colony south of the Savannah River. That colony would be Georgia. ■

LOCATING *the* MAIN IDEAS

- 1 **Define:** colony, charter, mercantilism, Puritans, Pilgrims, Mayflower Compact, corporate colony, joint-stock company, proprietary colony, royal colony, buffer
- 2 **Identify:** St. Augustine, Jamestown, *Mayflower*, Charles Town, "the debatable land," Azilia, Fort King George, Jean Pierre Purry
- 3 What three European countries wanted to colonize the Southeast? From what direction was each country moving into the Southeast?



Vocabulary

- 1 **Colony** - A territory on foreign soil claimed, settled, and controlled by another country.
- 2 **Charter** - 1: A legal document that grants certain rights or privileges. 2: A document passed by the state legislature creating a city and spelling out its boundaries, form of government, and powers.
- 3 **Mercantilism** - A trade policy based on the idea that a country should sell more to other countries than it buys from them, in order to increase its wealth.
- 4 **Puritans** - Members of a Protestant religious group who were opposed to the Church of England's practices and wanted to change them.
- 5 **Pilgrims** - Members of a religious group that chose to separate and break away from the Church of England. Pilgrims settled in America in 1620.
- 6 **Mayflower Compact** - Contract signed by Pilgrims in which they agreed to be governed by fair and just laws promoting the general good.
- 7 **Corporate colony** - Colony established through a grant of land made by the king to a corporation or company.
- 8 **Joint-stock company** - A business given an exclusive charter by the king to settle a new colony in America. The colony was financed by selling stock to investors.
- 9 **Proprietary colony** - Established when the king issued a charter granting ownership of a colony to a person or a group.
- 10 **Royal colony** - A colony set up and run directly by the British government in the 1600s and 1700s.
- 11 **Buffer** - A protected area along the frontier to defend more settled areas.



CHAPTER 5 QUIZ

Text Version