
PLYMOUTH 1620
JAMESTOWN 1607
COLUMBUS LANDING 1492


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CHRISTOPHER
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THE QUINCENTENARY AND THE NEW WORLD: A CELEBRATION OF AMERICA

by

Stanley M. Ulanoff, Ph.D.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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I would also like to cite Wally Gardiner, Joe Hufnagel, Rick Nebel and Oleh Stecyk without whose splendid cooperation this project could never have been completed.

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FOREWORD

It is indeed presumptuous of anyone to even attempt to cover, in a few pages, the myriad events of six centuries, and it is a Herculean task, as well.

However, by way of explanation, we have only endeavored to *highlight* the dramatic past 600 years. Furthermore, we have limited our subject matter to those significant, major events that have most affected America and are most related to the United States. And in the final analysis it became the responsibility of the author to keep everything within reasonable limits.

We are also well aware that readers may think of other events, that are important to them from their own perspectives or points of view. For those inadvertent omissions, we sincerely apologize.

15th Century

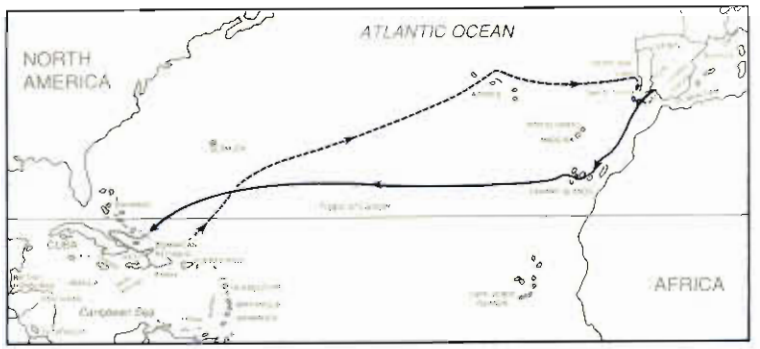
COLUMBUS OPENS UP THE NEW WORLD

"Tierra!! Tierra!!" ("Land!! Land!!") the long awaited cry rang out loud and clear. It was the dark of night, actually 2 A.M.– early in the morning. Ahead, lit only by the moonlight, was a welcome spit of land in what had been a dark, forbidding sea.

It was October 12, 1492. Little more than two months earlier, on August 3rd, Christopher Columbus, or Cristóbal Colón as he was called in Spain, set sail from Palos in command of three caravels—the *Niña*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*—and the blessings of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. In about 10 days, sailing south, he reached the Canary Islands where he took on fresh water, supplies and did some refitting. The small fleet weighed anchor on September 8th with Columbus' orders to sail due west.

Spurred on by visions of the treasures and stories brought back from China by Marco Polo, Columbus sought another route. (The traditional route eastward was blocked by the Turks who had captured Constantinople.) Clearly if the world was round, as he declared, by going in the opposite direction, westward, Columbus reasoned he would reach *Cathay* (China) and *Cipango* (Japan), the same places as those going in an easterly direction. However, neither Columbus nor anyone else in the Old World had any idea that there were two large continents between him and the Orient he sought.

COLUMBUS' FIRST VOYAGE
1492 - 1493



——— Outward Voyage 1492
-------- Return Voyage 1493

The Spain that Columbus had left had, that very year—after seven centuries—finally defeated and drove the Moors (Moslems/Arabs) out of their country. It was a country under the cruel hand of the Inquisition and the villainous Torquemada who in the name of Christianity, burned alive at the stake thousands of innocent people, and ruled with a brutal iron fist. Fourteen ninety-two was also the year in which Spaniards of the Jewish faith, who were not forcibly converted to Christianity or burned at the stake, were expelled. In his journal, Columbus tells of seeing boat loads of Jews sailing eastward to Turkey, the Balkan countries and North Africa. Indeed, some of Columbus' crew were "converted Jews" (*Maranos*), including Rodrigo de Triano, the first to see the New World, and Luis de Torres, the first to set foot on land.

Probably the best description of the discoveries in Columbus' first voyage were penned by the "Admiral of the Ocean Sea," himself in the following letter to King Ferdinand:

"SIR, As I know that you will be pleased at the great victory with which our Lord has crowned my voyage, I write this to you, from which you will learn how in thirty-three days, I passed from the Canary Islands to the Indies with the fleet which the most illustrious king and queen, our

sovereigns, gave to me. And there I found very many islands filled with people innumerable, and of them all I have taken possession for their highnesses, by proclamation made and with the royal standard unfurled, and no opposition was offered to me. To the first island which I found, I gave the name *San Salvador* (Watling Island in the Bahamas) in remembrance of the Divine Majesty, Who has marvelously bestowed all this; the Indians call it 'Guanahani.' To the second, I give the name *Isla de Santa María de la Concepción* (Rum Cay); to the third, *Fernandina* (Long Island), to the fourth *Isabella* (Crooked Island, all in the Bahamas); to the fifth, *Isla Juana* (Cuba), and so to each one I gave a new name.

"When I reached *Juana* (Cuba) I followed its coast to the westward, and I found it to be so extensive that I thought that it must be the mainland, the province of Catayo. And since there were neither towns nor villages on the seashore, but only small hamlets, with the people of which I could not have speech, because they all fled immediately, I went forward on the same course, thinking that I should not fail to find great cities and towns. And, at the end of many leagues, seeing that there was no change and that the coast was bearing me northwards, which I wished to avoid, since winter was already beginning and I proposed to make from it to the south, and as moreover the wind was carrying me forward, I determined not to wait for a change in the weather and retraced my path as far as a certain harbour known to me. And from that point, I sent two men (Rodrigo de Xeres and Luis de Torres, 'the first Jewish American') inland to learn if there were a king or great cities. They travelled three days' journey and found an infinity of small hamlets and people without number, but nothing of importance. For this reason, they returned.

"I understand sufficiently from other Indians, whom I had already taken, that this land was nothing but an island. And therefore I followed its coast eastwards for one hundred and seven leagues (a league is approximately four miles) to the point where it ended. And from that cape, I saw another island, distant eighteen leagues from the former to the east, to which I at once gave the name *'Española'* (Hispaniola-Haiti and the Dominican Republic). And I went there and followed its northern coast, as I had in the case of *Juana* (Cuba)."

The letter was signed *"El Almirante"* or "The Admiral."

Hindsight or a more thorough study of history clearly shows that Columbus did not actually discover America. There are claims that he was preceded by second century Phoenicians and Hebrews; Saint Brendan, the Irish monk; Prince Madoc of Wales and, of course, Leif Ericson, the Viking. These had come across the Atlantic. Others may have crossed the Pacific—a Chinese Buddhist priest in the fifth century, and Polynesians. Most important of all, however, are the original settlers who came to the Americas tens of thousands of years ago from Asia, across the Bering Straiht. These are the people whose descendants we call "Native Americans," who were there to greet Columbus and the other "discoverers."

Although Columbus was not the first to discover the New World, he was the first to bring Spanish colonies and settlements which brought further Spanish exploration and encouraged the English, French, Dutch and Portuguese to do likewise. His four voyages served as the basis for the Spanish claims to all of South America (with the exception of Brazil which went to Portugal), Central America, Mexico, most of the Caribbean Islands and what is the southern United States today—Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Texas, New Mexico to Arizona, Colorado and California.

He left his legacy—his name—to the country of Colombia in South America; the cities of Cristóbal and Colón on opposite coasts of Panama; to Columbus, the capital city of Ohio; to Washington, D.C., the District of Columbia; to British Columbia in Canada; and to others. But the names of the two great continents North and South America honor another, later, Italian explorer—Amerigo Vespucci.

No discussion of the 15th Century would be complete, however, without mention of Johann Gutenberg, the first European to print from movable type in 1436. He is also credited with adopting the wine press to printing. These two inventions are probably the greatest contributions to the spread of knowledge and education the world has ever known.

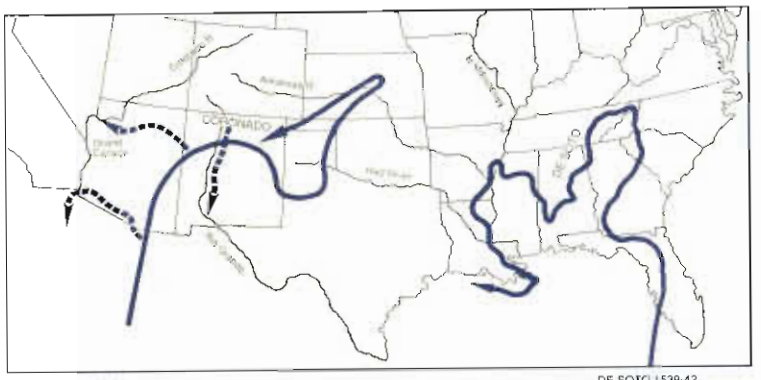
Like Gutenberg's efforts, from that memorable, historic day that Columbus first set foot on the island of San Salvador in the Bahamas, the world changed—forever.

16th Century

THE AGE OF CONQUEST AND EXPLORATION

"Santiago y á ellos!!" ("Saint Iago and at them!!") was the battle cry of the Spanish *Conquistadores* as they charged headlong, swords swinging, into the hordes of Aztecs in the battle for Mexico City, then known as *Tenochtitlan.*

Following closely in the footsteps of Columbus the *Conquistadores*, eager for gold, flocked to the New World. In 1513 Ponce de Leon, seeking the "Fountain of Youth," discovered Florida—that same year Balboa also claimed the Pacific Ocean for Spain. Cortés brutally conquered Mexico in 1521 followed little over a decade later by Pizarro's bloody conquest of Peru. The year 1541, however, saw extensive expeditions in what is now the United States. De Soto, who discovered the Mississippi River and died and was buried there, covered the Southeast from Florida through Georgia, Alabama, the Carolinas, Tennessee and Mississippi to Arkansas and Louisiana. And, Coronado marched from Arizona and New Mexico, to Texas, thru Oklahoma and Kansas in a vain quest for the fabled "7 Cities of Cibola" and "El Dorado," but he did succeed in opening up the Southwest. In subsequent expeditions Coronado discovered the Grand Canyon and the Colorado River and explored the Rio Grande.



Captain General Hernando Cortés had conquered Mexico (the Aztec Empire) in 1519 after holding hostage their ruler, Moctezuma, who had welcomed them as Gods. The next year Cortés had to leave the capital city under command of one of his captains, Pedro de Alvarado, who was then driven out by the Aztecs. On his return, Cortés retook Tenochtitlan, in 1521, after 93 days of bloody fighting, and the destruction of what Cortés called "the most beautiful city in the world," and the Aztec Empire.

This is an excerpt from a letter written by Cortés to Carlos V, king of Spain. It covers only a few days in June 1521, and describes Cortés' assault and hand-to-hand fighting on the causeways, on the lake and on the Aztec Island, Tenochtitlan:

"24th June: When on my return to camp in the evening I heard about Pedro de Alvarado's reverse, I decided to go to his camp on the following morning and reprimand him on what had happened and to see how far he has advanced and where he had placed his camp. When I arrived there I was astonished to see how far he had penetrated into the city and the formidable passes and bridges which he had captured, and having seen them I could not impute much blame to him, and after talking over what was to be done I returned to my own camp.

"I made several advances into the city during the next few days and was everywhere victorious. However, we had now been continuously fighting for more than twenty days, and every attack exposed us to great risk for the enemy were united and powerful and ready to fight to the death. The Spaniards, irritated at the delay, importuned me to advance and capture the market place for having gained that the enemy would have little space in which to defend themselves, and if they would not give in, would die of hunger and thirst for they had nothing to drink but the salt water of the lake.

"When I demurred to this plan, your Majesty's Treasurer told me that the whole camp was set on it and I ought to do it, and in the end they pressed me so greatly that after consultation with others, I gave way. The next day I called together the most important persons in the camp and we agreed to give notice to Sandoval and Pedro de Alvarado that on the following day we should advance into the city and endeavor to reach the market place of Tlatelolco and I also sent them written instructions and asked them to send me seventy or eighty foot soldiers.

"The following day after hearing Mass there set out from our camp seven launches, more than three thousand canoes of our (Indian) allies, and I followed with twenty-five horsemen and all my foot soldiers and those who had come from Tacuba, and when we reached the city I divided my force as follows:

- From the position we had already gained there are three streets leading to the market place, or Tianginz as the Indians call it, of Tlatelolco. Along the principal street I sent your Majesty's treasurer and accountant with seventy men and fifteen or twenty thousand of our allies and seven or eight horsemen as a rearguard, and as they took the barricades they were to fill in the bridge openings, and for this purpose a dozen men carried mattocks, and our allies were very useful at this work. The other two streets lead from the Tacuba street to the market place, and they are narrower and there are causeways with bridges and canals. By the broadest of these two I ordered two captains to advance with eighty men and more than ten thousand Indian allies. At the entrance to the Tacuba street I posted two large cannon with eight horsemen to guard them. I myself with eight horsemen and one hundred foot soldiers including

twenty-five crossbowmen and musketeers and a great host of our allies went on so as to advance along the narrowest street as far as possible.

"At the entrance of the street I halted the horsemen and ordered them to stay there and not to follow me unless I sent for them. Then I dismounted and we reached a barricade at the end of a bridge and with the help of a small field piece and the musketeers and crossbowmen we took it and went along the causeway, which had been broken down in two or three places. In addition to the three lines of attack which we were following, our allies were so numerous that they swarmed over the azoteas in all directions and it seemed as if nothing could harm us. As the Spaniards captured those bridges and barricades, our allies followed us along the causeway without making good, and I halted with about twenty Spaniards where there was an island, for I saw that some of our allies were surrounded by the enemy who sometimes drove them back and thrust them into the water, but with out help they rallied. In addition to this we had to take care that the people of the city did not emerge from the cross streets and attack in the rear the Spaniards who had advanced along the street, and who at this time sent to tell me that they had made great gains and were not far from the market place, and that in any case they should press forward, for they already heard the noise of battle which Sandoval and Pedro de Alvarado were waging from their side. I sent to tell them on no account to go ahead without first thoroughly filling in the bridge openings so that in case of retreat the water should not trouble or impede them, for they knew that there lay the greatest danger. They sent back to say that every place they had captured had been made good, and I could go there and verify it for myself.

"Having some misgiving lest they might err and be wanting in caution about filling the bridge openings I went there and found that they had advanced across one breach in the street which was ten or twelve paces in width and the depth of the water that filled it was twice a man's height. In order to cross it they had thrown in timber and bundles of reeds and as they crossed with care, a few at a time, the timber and reeds had not given way with them, and they in the joy of victory were so dull witted as to think that they had left it quite firm.

"At the moment that I reached that wretched bridge I saw that the

Spaniards and many of our allies were retreating in full flight with the enemy setting on them like dogs and, when I saw that great disaster I began to shout: 'Hold on!' and when I got to the water I found it full of Spaniards and Indians as though not a straw had been thrown into it (for a footing), and the enemy in order to kill the Spaniards charged into the water after them, and canoes manned by the enemy came along the canals and carried off the Spaniards alive. The whole affair was so sudden that seeing how the people were being killed I determined to stay there and die fighting.

"All that I and those with me could do was to give a hand to some unfortunate Spaniards who were drowning and drag them out; some got out wounded and others half drowned, and others without weapons, and we sent them to the rear. Then such numbers of the enemy charged on me and the dozen or fifteen Spaniards in my company that they completely surrounded us. As I was busy helping those who were drowning, I did not see or think of the danger we were in and some of the Indians seized me and would have carried me off but for a captain of fifteen who always attended me, and a youth of his company, who, after God, saved my life. Like the valiant man he was, Olea in saving my life lost his own.

"Meanwhile the defeated Spaniards got along the causeway, and as it was small and narrow and on a level with the water, for the 'dogs' (Aztecs) had been careful to make it so, and many of our routed allies were pouring along it, it became so crowded that movement was slow and the enemy had time to reach it by water on either side and capture and kill at their will. A captain who was with me named Antonio Quiñones said to me: 'Let us get away from here and save yourself, for you know that without you none of us will escape,' but he could not prevail on me to go, and seeing this he seized me by the arms to urge me to flight, and although I was better pleased with death than with life, at the urgency of that captain and other companions who were present we began to retreat fighting with our swords and shields against the enemy who came rushing against us.

"Then one of my servants arrived on horseback and cleared a small space, but at that moment from a roof he took a spear thrust in the throat which made him turn back, and while we were battling fiercely,

waiting for the people to pass along that narrow causeway and gain safety and keeping back the enemy, another servant of mine brought a horse for me to mount, but such was the mud on the causeway from those who fell in and scrambled out of the water, that no one could keep his feet, all the more from the jostling of one against another in the efforts to save themselves.

"I mounted, but not with the intention of fighting on the causeway for that was impossible on horseback, and if it could have been done the eight horsemen whom I had left on the island at the entrance of the causeway would have done so, but they could do no more than retreat along it, and even this was dangerous enough and two mares ridden by two of my servants fell from the causeway into the water, one being killed by the Indians and the other rescued by some foot soldiers. Another of my servants named Cristobal de Guzman mounted a horse on the island to bring it to me so that I could escape, but before reaching me the Indians killed both him and the horse. His death caused grief throughout the camp and grief is still intense among those who knew him.

"Notwithstanding all these dangers it pleased God that we who survived should reach the Calle de Tacuba which is very broad, and collect the troops while I and nine horsemen formed a rearguard. The enemy came on so greatly elated by victory and pride it seemed as though no one would be left alive, and retiring as best I could I sent to tell the treasurer and accountant to retreat to the Plaza with great caution, and I sent to say the same to the other two captains who had advanced by the street leading to the market place. Both one and the other had fought valiantly and captured many barricades and bridges which they had carefully filled in which was the reason of their suffering no loss in their retreat.

"Before the treasurer and accountant retired the people of the city threw from the barricade where they were fighting the heads of two or three Spaniards which they had cut off, and the Treasurer could not tell at the time if they came from our troops or from those of Pedro de Alvarado.

"We all got together in the Plaza when such hosts of the enemy charged on us from all directions that it was all we could do to keep them

off, and this in a place where before our defeat they did not dare to await the approach of three horsemen or foot soldiers. Then they promptly burned incense of perfumes and resins of the country on the summit of a lofty tower near the Plaza as an offering to their Idols and as a sign of victory, and however much we might wish to prevent it, nothing could be done, for already our people were hastening towards our camp.

"In this defeat the enemy killed thirty-five or forty Spaniards, and more than a thousand of our Indian allies, and I was wounded in the leg, and we lost a small field piece, and many crossbows, muskets and other arms."

As history records it this was only a temporary setback and Cortés went on to the final triumphant conquest of Mexico.

Francisco Pizarro's conquest of Peru was equally as brutal and treacherous. Welcomed by the Inca Atahualpa, Pizarro's men attacked and slaughtered his company of unarmed escorts and attendants. He then held Atahualpa hostage for a very considerable ransom of silver and gold—which the Inca paid in full. In gratitude, Pizarro had him forcibly baptized and then had him murdered. He, too, destroyed a magnificent empire.

While the principal quest was for plunder—for gold and silver, along with the guise of spreading the "true faith," probably the greatest treasure the *Conquistadores* took from the New World was food—corn, potatoes, chocolate, tomatoes, green beans, turkeys, pineapple and peppers. It wasn't a one-way street, however—the Spaniards introduced sugar, wheat, cows, pigs, chickens, sheep and horses. Though not a food, the latter became the principal means of transportation for the North American Indians.

This is not to say that Cortés, Pizarro and other *Conquistadores* did not send back treasure-laden galleons to Spain. Indeed, one Inca silver mine alone filled the treasuries of Europe for 200 years, and by 1592, 100 years after Columbus' discoveries, it had provided three times the value of the entire European reserves. And in that very centennial year, that one mine at Potosi produced 220 tons of silver. In today's market, at approximately four dollars an ounce, it would have a value of $28,160,000.

Along with the gold and silver the seeds for corn and potatoes from the New World and wheat and sugar from the Old World, other non-beneficial seeds were exchanged—the seeds of disease and pestilence. Among others, Europe contributed smallpox and the Americans spread syphilis. Another evil exported to America was slavery, in which Columbus, too, was an active participant.

Despite the fact that we have concentrated on Spanish explorers in the New World, others of the 16th Century adventurers were girdling the globe. Among these were the Cabots, Frobisher, Drake, Raleigh, and Davis for England; Magellan, da Gama, Cabral, Sequira and Serrano for Portugal; Verrazano and Cartier for France; and Amerigo Vespucci, who inadvertently stole the honors from Columbus.

17th Century

THE FIRST ENGLISH AMERICAN COLONIES, 1607 AND 1620

While the Spanish had established colonies more than a century earlier, in Columbus' Caribbean discoveries and others in Florida, Mexico, Central America and Peru, Sir Walter Raleigh's attempt on Roanoke Island in 1585 did not succeed and it was not until 1607 that the English successfully established a permanent settlement at Jamestown, Virginia. The next significant enduring English colony was organized at Plymouth on the Massachusetts coast in 1620 by the Pilgrims, who had sailed from England aboard the *Mayflower*. It was here that the earlier colonists celebrated America's first Thanksgiving. Other English colonies followed in Maryland, Salem and Rhode Island.

The principal champion of English colonization of America was Sir Walter Raleigh, who together with Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake carried on England's war with Spain by attacking their treasure ships and settlements in the New World.

In 1585 Raleigh sent 108 men to settle Roanoke Island in what they called *Virginia*. Two years later he sent three ships and 121 men and women. They found that the original settlers had been murdered by the Indians, however, undaunted they built a new community, which thrived. Here Virginia Dare was born, the first English child born in North America. But supplies ran low and Governor John White returned to England to replenish their stores.

Fate in the form of the Spanish Armada and the war with Spain, however, prevented his return. When he was able, Raleigh, at his own expense, sent ships five times, to no avail. No trace of the "Lost colony" could be found.

That all took place in the 16th century, but in 1607 Captain John Smith was able to establish England's first permanent settlement at Jamestown, Virginia. Fraught with privation, mutiny, Indian attacks, and other disasters, the colony nevertheless survived. Colonists never did find the passage to the "South Sea" and the treasures of India, nor did they ever deliver even one ounce of gold or silver to King James I, under whose charter they had sailed and whose provisions called for one fifth of the precious metal found in Virginia. They did, however, establish a lucrative trade in tobacco. It was to John Rolfe that Virginia owed this success. Rolfe, who had married Pocahontas, daughter of the Indian Chief Powhaten, developed a very popular type of tobacco with an aroma known all over the world as "Virginia."

Pocahontas was the same young lady who at the age of 10, as the legend goes, saved the life of John Smith. Captured by the Indians, he was about to be executed when Pocahontas threw herself upon him and pleaded with her father to spare his life.

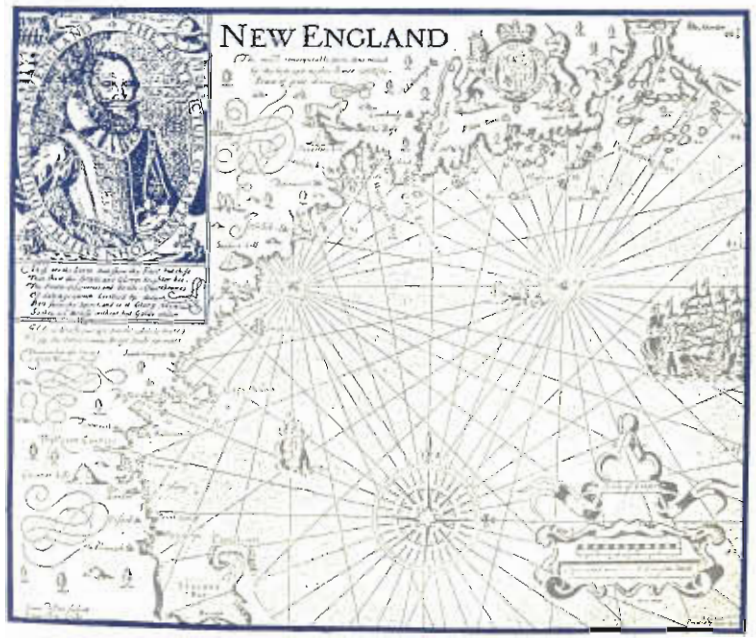
Captain Smith, an adventurer and soldier of fortune, had been captured by Indian warriors while hunting for food for the settlement.

In his own words in his book, *General History* he describes his captors:

"They led me along bound by cords to two strong savages, whilst the others danced about me, looking like very devils. Their town, truly, was not much, for it consisted only of thirty or forty hunting lodges, built up of mats, which they remove as they please, as we do tents; and all the women and children came staring to look at the wonderful white man. Then did they exalt themselves greatly, and setting me bound in their midst, they cast themselves into a ring, dancing in such several postures, and singing and yelling out hellish noises and screeches; being strangely painted, with every one of his quiver of arrows, and at his back a club. They were clad in fox or otter skins, or some such matter, their head and shoulders painted scarlet, which made an exceeding handsome show.

Their bows they carried in their hands, and had the skin of a bird, with its wings spread out, dried, with a piece of copper, a white shell, a long feather, a small rattle from the tail of one of their snakes, or some such toy in their hair."

The next important English settlement was in Plymouth, Massachusetts in the region of New England. It is interesting to note that it was Captain John Smith who gave it the name *New England*, encouraged settlement there, and drew one of the first maps of the area.



Seeking religious freedom and escape from persecution, the "Pilgrim Fathers" or Puritans as they were known, set sail from England aboard the *Mayflower*. While at sea, the colonists drew up and agreed to what has been called the *Mayflower Compact*, which remained the basis of the new colony's government.

Then, after a rough two-month Atlantic crossing, they landed at Plymouth Rock in November 1620.

Unlike their brethren in the warmer, more hospitable weather of Virginia, the Massachusetts colonists had to face much more severe and grim climatic conditions. Eking out an existence was very difficult. Despite the many hardships and adversity, however, perseverance prevailed and the colony survived, growing into the vital northeastern states of New England.

Other settlements followed in quick succession. Among them were Providence and the rest of Rhode Island. Both were founded by Roger Williams, a clergyman, who paradoxically was banished from the Massachusetts colony because he was an advocate of religious freedom.

From these modest, often precarious beginnings, these tiny settlements and colonies prospered and grew into what we know today as *the great superpower*—the United States of America.

18th Century

BIRTH OF A NATION, 1776-1789

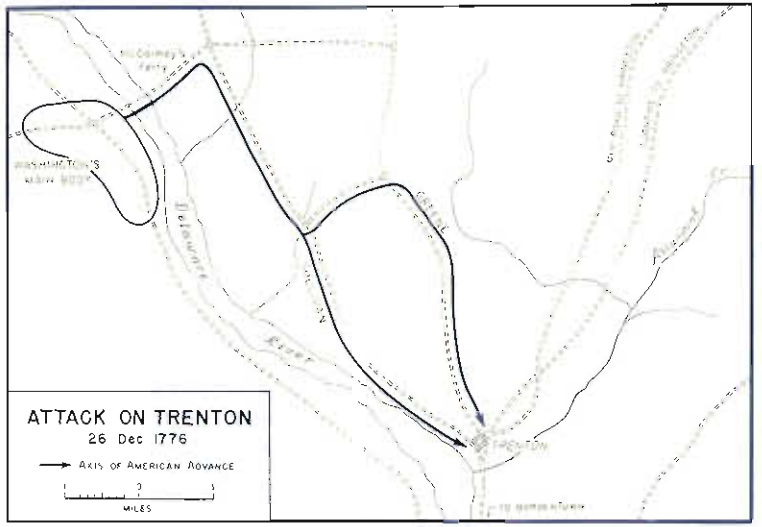
American independence was won both by the pen and by the sword.

The incomparable documents of American liberty—the Declaration of Independence, written by Thomas Jefferson; and the Constitution, and Bill of Rights by James Madison—were also results of the speeches and writing of Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Thomas Paine, Benjamin Franklin, George Washington and other patriots. And they were influenced by such events as the Boston Massacre, the British Stamp Act, the Boston Tea Party, and Lexington and Concord, among others.

American arms, which had been proven in the French and Indian War, showed how militiamen ("embattled farmers") could stand up against the professional British Army at Bunker Hill (Breed's Hill) and capture Ft. Ticonderoga and Crown Point. On 14 June 75, the Continental Army was born, by absorbing the New England troops and raising 10 companies of riflemen from Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia. (That date is still celebrated as the birthday of the United States Army.) The next day George Washington was appointed Commander in Chief.

While the American invasion of Canada was a failure, Washington took Boston. American forces were victorious at Charleston, South Carolina, but Washington lost the Battle of Long Island and was forced to retreat from New York. One of the most dramatic events of the

American Revolution was Washington's crossing of the Delaware and surprise attack on the Hessians at Trenton on Christmas 1776. This glorious victory was followed by success at Princeton. In New England the militia won at Bennington and British General Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga.



Winter at Valley Forge was a terrible ordeal for the American troops, followed by a non-decisive battle at Monmouth. In the Northwest, Lt. Col. George Rogers Clark and his Virginians captured all the British posts in what is now Illinois and Indiana. The British were successful in the south, retaking Charleston, but American Lt. Col. Francis Marion, known as the "Swamp Fox," continued a guerilla war against them.

The American cause was hurt by the treason of Benedict Arnold but American victories at King's Mountain and Cowpens led to the decisive defeat of British General Lord Charles Cornwallis' forces at Yorktown.

Victory at Yorktown

Generals Sir Henry Clinton (Commander in Chief of British Forces in America from 1778 to 1781) and Lord Charles Cornwallis, in 1781, paved the road to the American victory at Yorktown by their disagreements and lack of coordination. Though Clinton was Cornwallis' superior, the latter enjoyed the confidence of Lord George Germain, British Secretary of State for America. Clinton believing that without large reinforcements the British could not operate far from coastal bases, had opposed Cornwallis' ventures in the interior of the Carolinas, and when Cornwallis came to Virginia he did so without even informing his superior of this intention.

Since 1779 Clinton had sought to paralyze the state of Virginia by conducting raids up its great rivers, arousing the Tories, and establishing a base in the Chesapeake Bay region. He thought this base might eventually be used as a starting point for one arm of the pincers movement against Pennsylvania for which his own idle force in New York would provide the other. A raid conducted in the Hampton Roads area in 1779 was highly successful, but when Clinton sought to follow it up in 1780 the force sent for the purpose had to be diverted to Charleston to bail Cornwallis out after King's Mountain. Finally in 1781 he got an expedition into Virginia, a contingent of 1,600 under the American traitor, Benedict Arnold. In January Arnold conducted a destructive raid up the James River all the way to Richmond. His presence soon proved to be a magnet drawing forces of both sides to Virginia.

In an effort to trap Arnold, Washington dispatched Lafayette to Virginia with 1,200 of his scarce Continentals and persuaded the French to send a naval squadron from Newport to block Arnold's escape by sea. The plan went awry when a British fleet drove the French squadron back to Newport and Clinton sent another 2,600 men to Virginia along with a new commander, Maj. Gen. William Phillips. Phillips and Arnold continued their devastating raids, which Lafayette was too weak to prevent. Then on May 20 Cornwallis arrived from Wilmington and took over from Phillips. With additional reinforcements sent by Clinton

he was able to field a force of about 7,000 men, approximately a quarter of the British strength in America. Washington sent down an additional reinforcement of 800 Continentals under General Anthony Wayne, but even with Virginia militia Lafayette's force remained greatly outnumbered.

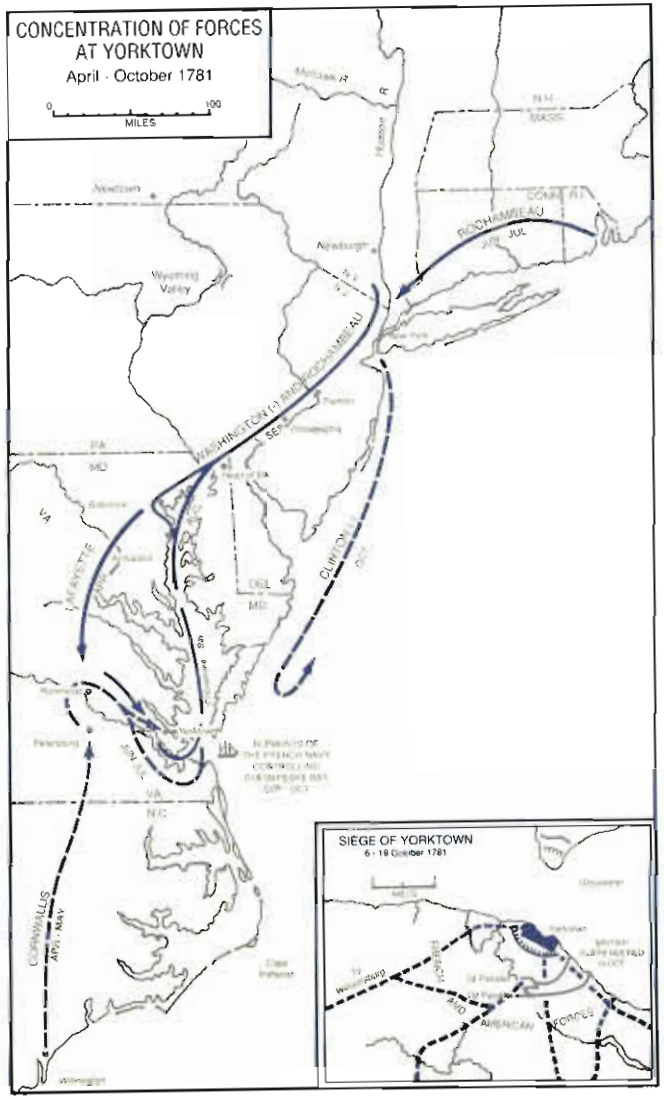
Cornwallis and Clinton were soon working at cross-purposes. Cornwallis proposed to carry out major operations in the interior of Virginia, but Clinton saw as little practical value in this tactic as Cornwallis did in Clinton's plan to establish a base in Virginia for the pincers movement against Pennsylvania. Cornwallis at first turned to the interior and engaged in a fruitless pursuit of Lafayette north of Richmond. Then on receiving Clinton's positive order to return to the coast, establish a base, and return part of his force to New York, Cornwallis moved back down the Virginia peninsula to take up station at Yorktown, a small tobacco port on the York River just off Chesapeake Bay. In the face of Cornwallis' insistence that he must keep all his troops with him, Clinton vacillated, reversing his own orders several times and in the end granting Cornwallis' request. Lafayette and Wayne followed Cornwallis cautiously down the peninsula, lost a skirmish with him at Green Spring near Williamsburg on July 6, and finally took up a position of watchful waiting near Yorktown.

Meanwhile, Washington had been trying to persuade the French to cooperate in a combined land and naval assault on New York in the summer of 1781. Rochambeau brought his 4,000 troops down from Newport in April and placed them under Washington's command. The prospects were still bleak since the combined Franco-American force numbered but 10,000 against Clinton's 17,000 in well-fortified positions. Then on August 14, Washington learned that the French Fleet in the West Indies, commanded by Admiral Francois de Grasse, would not come to New York but would arrive in the Chesapeake later in the month and remain there until October 15. He saw immediately that if he could achieve a superior concentration of force on the land side while de Grasse still held the bay he could destroy the British army at Yorktown before Clinton had a chance to relieve it.

The movements that followed illustrate most effectively a successful application of the principles of the offensive, surprise, objective, mass, and maneuver. Even without unified command of Army and Navy forces, Franco-American cooperation this time was excellent. Admiral Louis, Comte de Barras, immediately put out to sea from Newport to join de Grasse. Washington sent orders to Lafayette to contain Cornwallis at Yorktown and then, after making a feint in the direction of New York to deceive Clinton, on August 21 started the major portion of the Franco-American Army on a rapid secret movement to Virginia, via Chesapeake Bay, leaving only 2,000 Americans behind to watch Clinton.

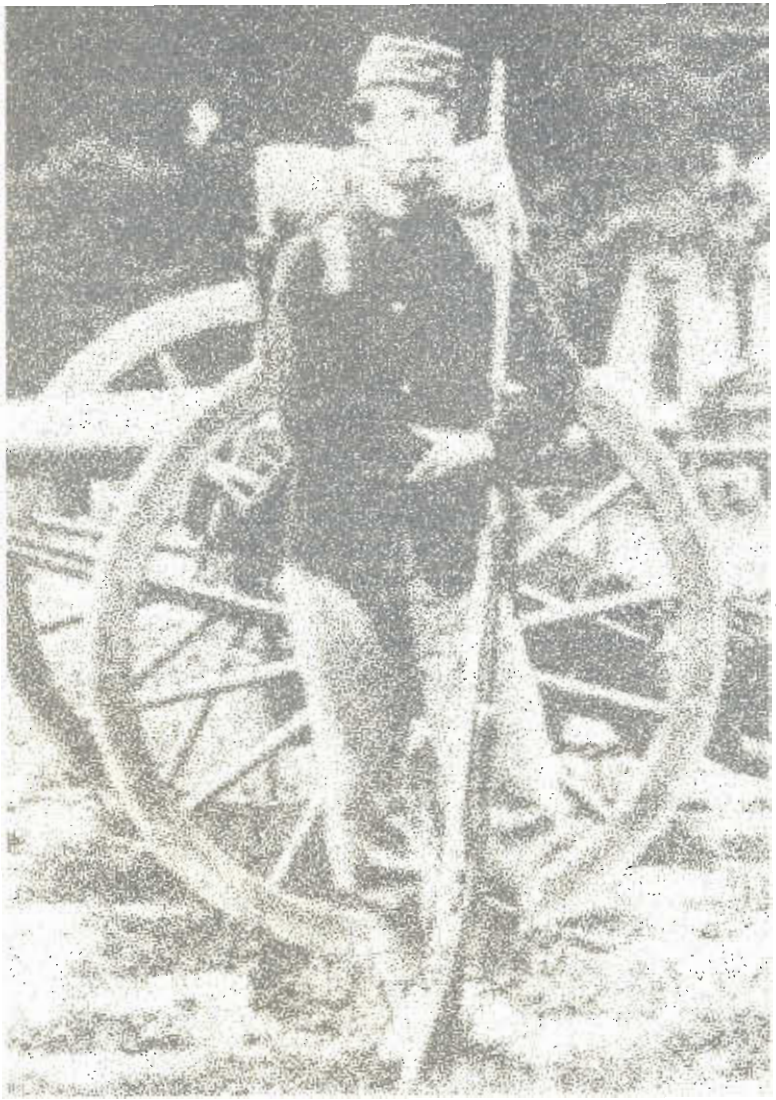
On August 30, while Washington was on the move southward, de Grasse arrived at the Chesapeake with his entire fleet of twenty-four ships of the line and a few days later debarked 3,000 French troops to join Lafayette. Admiral Thomas Graves, the British naval commander in New York, meanwhile had put out to sea in late August with nineteen ships of the line, hoping either to intercept Barras' squadron or to block de Grasse's entry into the Chesapeake. He failed to find Barras, and when he arrived off Hampton Roads on September 5 he found de Grasse already in the bay. The French admiral sallied forth to meet Graves and the two fleets fought an indecisive action off the Virginia capes. Yet for all practical purposes the victory lay with the French for, while the fleets maneuvered at sea for days following the battle, Barras' squadron slipped into the Chesapeake and the French and American troops got past into the James River. Then de Grasse got back into the bay and joined Barras, confronting Graves with so superior a naval force that he decided to return to New York to refit.

When Washington's army arrived on September 26, the French Fleet was in firm control of the bay, blocking Cornwallis' sea route of escape. A decisive concentration had been achieved. Counting 3,000 Virginia militia, Washington had a force of about 9,000 Americans and 6,000 French troops with which to conduct the siege. It proceeded in the best traditions of Vauban under the direction of French engineers. Cornwallis obligingly abandoned his forward position on September 30, and on October 6, the first parallel was begun 600 yards from the main British position. Artillery placed along the trench began its destructive work on October 9. By October 11 the zigzag connecting trench had been



dug 200 yards forward, and work on the second parallel had begun. Two British redoubts had to be reduced in order to extend the line to the York River. This accomplished, Cornwallis' only recourse was escape across the river to Gloucester Point where the American line was thinly held. A storm on the night of October 16 frustrated his attempt to do so, leaving him with no hope but relief from New York. Clinton had been considering such relief for days, but he acted too late. On the very day, October 17, that Admiral Graves set sail from New York with a reinforced fleet and 7,000 troops for the relief of Yorktown, Cornwallis began negotiations on terms of surrender. On October 19 his entire army marched out to lay down its arms, the British band playing an old tune called "The World Turned Upside Down."

So far as active campaigning was concerned, Yorktown ended the war. Both American Generals Nathaniel Greene and Washington maintained their armies in position near New York and Charleston for nearly two years more, but the only fighting that occurred was some minor skirmishing in the South. Cornwallis' defeat led to the overthrow of the British cabinet and the formation of a new government that decided that the war in America was lost. With some success, Britain devoted its energies to trying to salvage what it could in the West Indies and in India. The independence for which Americans had fought thus virtually became a reality when Cornwallis' command marched out of its breached defenses at Yorktown.



19th Century

A NATION DIVIDED, 1861-1865

Following the orders of Brig. Gen. Pierre G.T. Beauregard, Confederate cannon had been thundering steadily for 34 hours slamming their great shells into the solid concrete walls and onto the Parade Ground. The heavy barrage was relentless. Union artillery courageously returned fire but was no match for the massed Confederate guns. Finally, outgunned, Fort Sumter's commander, Union Maj. Robert Anderson, was forced to surrender his 90-man garrison.

It was 12 April 1861, in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina, the first salvo fired and the very first combat action of the Civil War that was to last for four bloody years.

The Civil War, also called the War Between the States, and the War of the Rebellion, was fought between the Northern and Southern states, the latter having seceded from the United States. The North was known variously as the Union, Federals, the Blue and as Yankees. The South was called the Confederacy, the Grey, and the Rebels. The principal contributing factors that caused the conflict were differences of opinion over States Rights and Slavery as well as regional economic rivalries, and it was triggered by the election of President Abraham Lincoln.

In all the wars fought by the United States, from the Revolutionary War through Desert Storm, casualties in the Civil War were exceeded

only by the American losses in the Second World War. It was, by all estimates, a fierce, bloody conflict. Since in effect, both sides were American, the combined casualties reached an awesome total. In fact the losses of both Union and Confederate armies together in the Battle of Antietam, were the heaviest ever suffered by American military forces *in a single day*—close to 23,000 casualties. Yet it was a very colorful conflict with many dashing heroes and gallant soldiers. Its historic battles are still studied today by historians and military tacticians.

The following brief facts and figures give us a better idea of the enormity and scope of the four years of the Civil War, and its great civil and military leaders—President Abraham Lincoln and General Ulyses S. Grant in the North and President Jefferson Davis and General Robert E. Lee in the South. While the war was fought mainly in the East, battles took place as far west as New Mexico and in many other places throughout the country. More than 3 million served in the armed forces and some 700,000 of them died. Best known of the numerous battles of that war was Gettysburg.

Gettysburg

Gettysburg was, first of all, an act of fate—a 3-day holocaust, largely unplanned and uncontrollable. Like the war itself, it sprang from decisions that men under pressure made in the light of imperfect knowledge. It would someday symbolize the war with all the blunders and heroism, hopes and delusions, combativeness and blinding devotion of the American man in arms of that period. With its enormous destruction, tactical maneuvers, and use of weapons, Gettysburg was one of the most dramatic and most typical of the 2,000-odd land engagements of the Civil War.

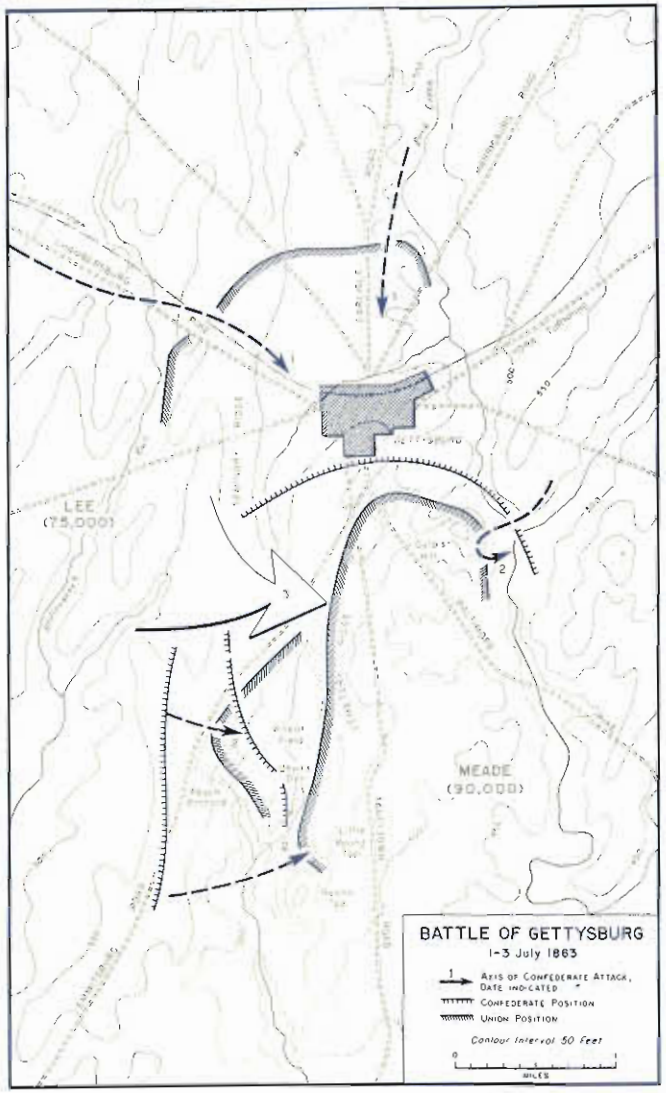
Outposts of both armies clashed during the afternoon of June 30, 1863, near the quiet little Pennsylvania market town of Gettysburg. The terrain in the area included rolling hills and broad shallow valleys. Gettysburg was the junction of twelve roads that led to Harrisburg, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, and the mountain passes to the

west which were controlled by Southern General Robert E. Lee. The rest was inevitable; the local commanders sent reports and recommendations to their superiors, who relayed them upward, so that both armies, still widely dispersed, started moving toward Gettysburg.

On July 1, Union cavalrymen fought a dismounted delaying action against advance troops of Lt. General Ambrose P. Hill's corps northwest of town. By this stage of the war cavalrymen, armed with saber, pistol, and breech-loading carbine, were often deployed as mounted infantrymen, riding to battle but fighting on foot. The range and accuracy of the infantry's rifled muskets made it next to impossible for mounted men to attack foot soldiers in position. With their superior speed and mobility, cavalrymen, as witnessed in the Gettysburg campaign, were especially useful for screening, reconnaissance, and advance guard actions in which they seized and held important hills, river crossings, and road junctions pending the arrival of infantry. During the morning hours of July 1, this was the role played by Union horsemen on the ridges north and west of Gettysburg.

By noon both the I and the XI Corps of the Army of the Potomac had joined in the battle, and Lt. Gen. Richard S. Ewell's Corps of Confederates had moved to support Hill. The latter, advancing from the north, broke the lines of the XI Corps and drove the Federals back through Gettysburg. The Union infantry rallied behind artillery positioned on Cemetery and Culp's Hills south of the town; Lee, who reached the field about 2:00 P.M. ordered Ewell to take Cemetery Hill, "if possible." But Ewell failed to press his advantage and the Confederates settled into positions extending in a great curve from northeast of Culp's Hill, westward through Gettysburg, thence south on Seminary Ridge. During the night the Federals, enjoying interior lines, moved troops into the key points of Culp's Hill, Cemetery Hill, Cemetery Ridge, and Little Round Top.

Newly appointed Commander of the Union Army of the Potomac, Maj. Gen. George G. Meade had completed his dispositions by the morning of July 2, and his line was strong except in two places. In the confusion, Little Round Top was occupied only by a signal station when the supporting cavalry was dispatched to guard the army trains and not



replaced; and the commander of the III Corps, Maj. Gen. Daniel E. Sickles, on his own responsibility moved his line forward from the south end of Cemetery Ridge to higher ground near the Peach Orchard, so that his corps lay in an exposed salient. By early afternoon, seven corps were arrayed along the Union battle line.

On the Confederate side, Lee had not been able to attack early; reconnaissance took time, and Longstreet's leading division did not arrive until afternoon. Generals in the Civil War tried to combine frontal assaults with envelopments and flanking movements, but the difficulty of timing and coordinating the movements of such large bodies of men in broken terrain made intricate maneuvers difficult. The action on the second day at Gettysburg graphically illustrates the problem. Lee wanted Longstreet to outflank the Federal left, part of Hill's corps was to strike the center, while Ewell's corps was to envelop the right flank of Meade's army. The attack did not start until 3:00 P.M., while Longstreet's men, having deployed on unfamiliar ground, under the corps commander that preferred to take a defensive stance, advanced toward Little Round Top. The brigade was the basic maneuver element, and it formed for the attack with regiments in a two-rank line. Divisions usually attacked in columns in brigades, the second 150 to 300 yards behind the first, the third a similar distance behind the second. Skirmishers protected the flanks if no units were posted on either side. But such textbook models usually degenerated under actual fighting conditions, and so it was with Longstreet's attack. Divisions and brigades went in piecemeal, but with savage enthusiasm. Attacks started in close order as most men were using single-shot muzzle-loaders and had to stand shoulder to shoulder in order to get enough firepower and shock effect. But intervals between units soon increased under fire, troops often scattered for cover and concealment behind stone walls and trees, and thereafter units advanced by short rushes supported by fire from neighboring units. Thus, by late afternoon the smoke of battle was thick over the fields south of Gettysburg and the cries of the wounded mingled with the crash of musketry. The whole sector had become a chaos of tangled battle lines.

At this point Meade's chief engineer, Brig. Gen. Gouverneur Warren, discovering that no infantry held Little Round Top, persuaded

the commander of the V Corps, Maj. Gen. George Sykes, to send two brigades and some artillery to the hill. They arrived just in time to hold the summit against a furious Confederate assault. When this attack bogged down, Longstreet threw a second division against Sickles' troops in the Peach Orchard and Wheatfield; this cracked the Federal line and drove as far as Cemetery Ridge before Meade's reserves halted it. Lee then ordered his troops to attack progressively from right to left and one of Hill's divisions assaulted Cemetery Ridge in a piecemeal fashion, but was driven off. On the north Ewell attacked about 6:00 P.M. and captured some abandoned trenches, but Federals posted behind stone walls proved too strong. As the day ended the Federals held all their main positions. The Confederates had fought hard and with great bravery, but the progressive attack, which ignored the principle of mass, never engaged the Union front decisively at any point. The assaults were delivered against stoutly defended, prepared positions; Malvern Hill and Fredericksburg had shown this tactic to be folly, although perhaps Lee's successes against prepared positions at Chancellorsville led him to overoptimism.

Meade, after requesting the opinions of his corps commanders, decided to defend, rather than attack, on July 3. He also estimated that Lee, having attacked his right and left, would try for his center. He was right. Lee had planned to launch a full-scale, coordinated attack all along the line but then changed his mind in favor of a massive frontal assault by 10 brigades from 4 divisions of Longstreet's and Hill's corps against the Union center, which was held by Maj. Gen. Winfield Scott Hancock's II Corps. The assault was to be preceded by a massive artillery barrage.

The infantry's main support during the war was provided by field artillery. Rifled guns of relatively long range were available, but the soldiers preferred the 6-pounder and 12-pounder smoothbores. Rifled cannon were harder to clean; their projectiles were not as effective; their greater range could not always be effectively used because development of a good indirect fire control system would have to await the invention of the field telephone and the radio; and, finally, the rifled guns had flat trajectories, whereas the higher trajectories of the smoothbores enabled gunners to put fire on reverse slopes. Both types of cannon were among

the artillery of the two armies at Gettysburg.

At 1:00 P.M. on July 3, Confederate gunners opened fire from approximately 140 pieces along Seminary Ridge in the greatest artillery bombardment witnessed on the American continent up to that time. For two hours the barrage continued, but did little more than tear up ground, destroy a few caissons, and expend ammunition. The Union artillery in the sector, numbering only 80 guns, had not been knocked out. It did stop firing in order to conserve ammunition and the silence seemed to be a signal that the Confederates should begin their attack.

Under command of Maj. Gen. George E. Pickett, 15,000 men emerged from the woods on Seminary Ridge, dressed their three lines as if on parade, and began the mile-long, 20-minute march toward Cemetery Ridge. The assault force—47 regiments altogether—moved at a walk until it neared the Union lines, then broke into a run. Union artillery, especially 40 Napoleons on the south end of the ridge and some rifled guns on Little Round Top, opened fire, enfiladed the gray ranks, and forced Pickett's right over to the north. Despite heavy casualties the Confederates kept their formation until they came within rifle and canister range of the II Corps, and by then the lines and units were intermingled. The four brigades composing the left of Pickett's first line were heavily hit but actually reached and crossed the stone wall defended by Brig. Gen. John Gibbon's 2d Division of the II Corps, only to be quickly cut down or captured. Pickett's survivors withdrew to Seminary Ridge, and the fighting was over except for a suicidal mounted charge by Union cavalry which Longstreet's right flank units easily halted. Both sides had fought hard and with great valor, for among 90,000 effective Union troops and 75,000 Confederates there were more than 51,000 casualties. The Army of the Potomac lost 3,155 killed, 14,529 wounded, and 5,365 prisoners and missing. Of the Army of Northern Virginia, 3,903 were killed, 18,735 wounded, and 5,425 missing and prisoners. If Chancellorsville was Lee's finest battle, Gettysburg was clearly his worst; yet the reverse did not unnerve him or reduce his effectiveness as a commander. The invasion had patently failed, and he retired at once toward the Potomac. As that river was flooded, it was several days before he was able to cross. Mr. Lincoln, naturally pleased over Meade's

defensive victory and elated over Grant's capture of Vicksburg, thought the war could end in 1863 if Meade launched a resolute pursuit and destroyed Lee's army on the north bank of the Potomac. But Meade's own army was too mangled, and the Union commander moved cautiously, permitting Lee to return safely to Virginia on July 13.

No summary of the 19th Century would be complete without mention of an important series of events—the great waves of immigrants who flocked to our shores from the Old World. Many of them passed through Ellis Island in New York Harbor in the shadow of the Statue of Liberty. Others came from the Orient to California—all of them contributing to "the Great Melting Pot."

20th Century

THE CONQUEST OF SPACE

The forbidding surface was coming up fast!!! They were plunging rapidly.

Below it was a very strange terrain, pock-marked, bleak, and there wasn't a tree, plant, grass, animal or human being in sight—not a living thing anywhere.

Now the descent slowed down considerably as the weird-looking flying machine maneuvered for position. Slowing, the 3-legged vehicle touched down and settled on the dust covered surface, in a place called the Sea of Tranquility.

A quarter of a million miles away, in Mission Control in Houston, Texas—on the Planet Earth—the radio blared forth:

"Houston, Tranquility Base here. The Eagle has landed!!"

It was 4:17 P.M., Eastern Daylight Time on 20 July 1969—a historic moment. Men from Earth had landed on the Moon.

The National Aeronautic and Space Administration's (NASA) odd looking Lunar Module (LM) had made the last leg of the space journey carrying American Astronauts Neil A. Armstrong and Colonel Edwin E. "Buzz" Aldrin Jr. Up above, the "mother ship" *Columbia* carrying veteran Astronaut Lt. Colonel Michael Collins (the Command Module Pilot), continued its orbit around the moon.

After resting for about 6 hours, Armstrong and Aldrin donned their EMUs (Extravehicular Mobility Units), PLSSs (Portable Life Support Systems) and other protective, survival clothing and equipment to leave the LM and step out onto the Moon's surface.

Now at the bottom rung of the ladder with about a 3-foot drop to the ground, Armstrong said:

"I'm at the foot of the ladder. The LM foot pads are only depressed in the surface about one or two inches, although the surface appears to be very, very, fine grained, as you get close to it.

"It's almost like a powder. It's very fine.

"I'm going to step off the LM now."

As he dropped to the surface, Armstrong made the historic, now often quoted statement:

"That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind."

This century, which is shortly coming to a close, is probably the most dynamic of the six we have covered here.

Each quarter of this dramatic 100 years has been highlighted by a major war. The first quarter saw the First World War, the first global conflict, which raged from 1914 through 1918 and saw the introduction of the airplane and tank as new weapons of war. World War II in the second quarter, 1939 to 1945, saw America harness the atom and use the atom bomb—the most powerful, most destructive weapon ever created—which paradoxically saved millions of lives and brought that war to an end. That same quarter also saw the introduction of nuclear energy and the ascension of the United States to a World Super Power.

The third quarter opened with the Korean War (1950-1953) and finished up with the Vietnam War, when U.S. forces pulled out in 1973. The last quarter, in which we find ourselves today, saw the lightening-quick war, Desert Storm, in which American technology and superior arms, together with our allies, defeated Iraqi aggression in Kuwait.

And the start of the final decade of that same period also saw the amazing demise of communism—a political/economic system that was adapted by Russia in 1917 and later by other countries within the Soviet sphere of influence, and by China. It saw the complete overthrow of Soviet Communism, preceded by the tearing down of the Berlin Wall, the

breakup of the Warsaw Pact, followed by the complete dissolution of the formidable Soviet Union, which had been the other World Super Power and our greatest potential adversary for more than 45 years.

This great century has been called, among others, "The Atomic Age," "The Electronic Age," "The Computer Age," and "The Space Age." We have chosen to highlight the latter.

As in many other areas of endeavor, the "Race for Space" became another competitive arena for the U.S. and the Soviet Union. While the Soviets led at the start, with their *Sputnik I* satellite and the first manned space flight of Yuri Gagarin, American efforts finally outclassed the Russians with Neil Armstrong's Lunar Landing and with our Space Shuttles.

Although the 20th Century was marked by war—the First World War, World War II, Korea, Vietnam and Desert Storm—most important were America's achievements in space. Starting with the original 7 Mercury Astronauts—the American space pioneers—Alan Shepard was our first into space on April 12, 1961, followed early the next year by John Glenn's first U.S. orbit of the earth. And, on June 3, 1965, the first American space walk took place. But the most spectacular, unprecedented feat of all was the American landing on the moon. On July 20, 1969 Neil Armstrong made that historic "one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind."

Currently, American Space Shuttles regularly orbit Earth, and our unmanned satellites, space vehicles and probes have explored our solar system and beyond.