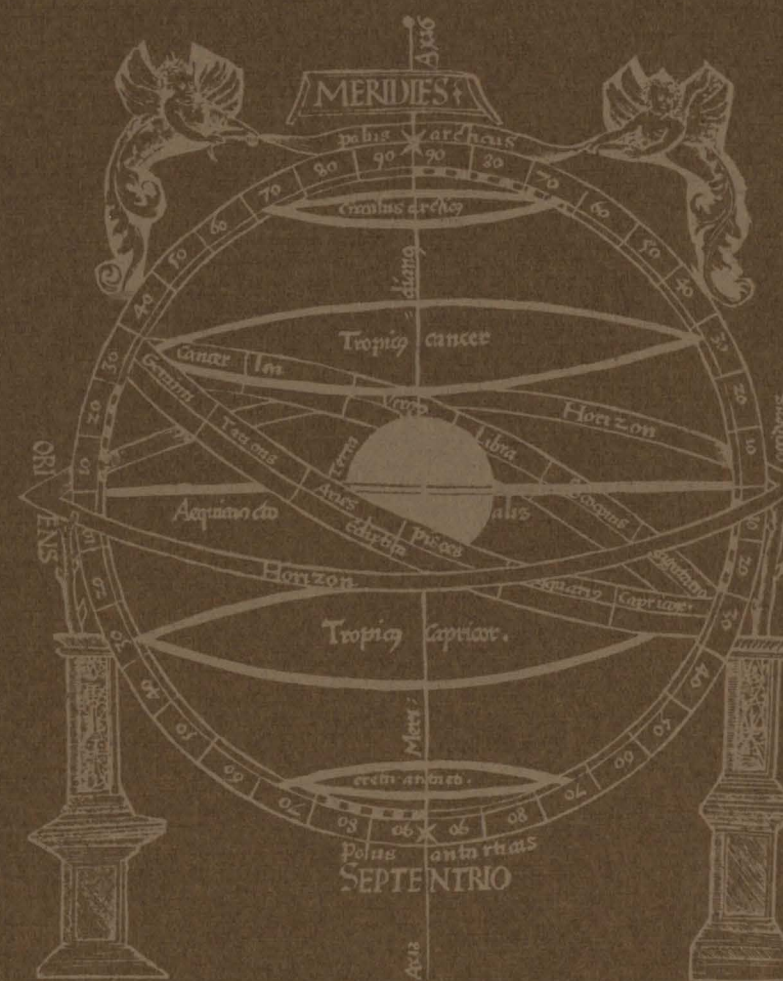




REPORTS FROM THE NEW WORLD



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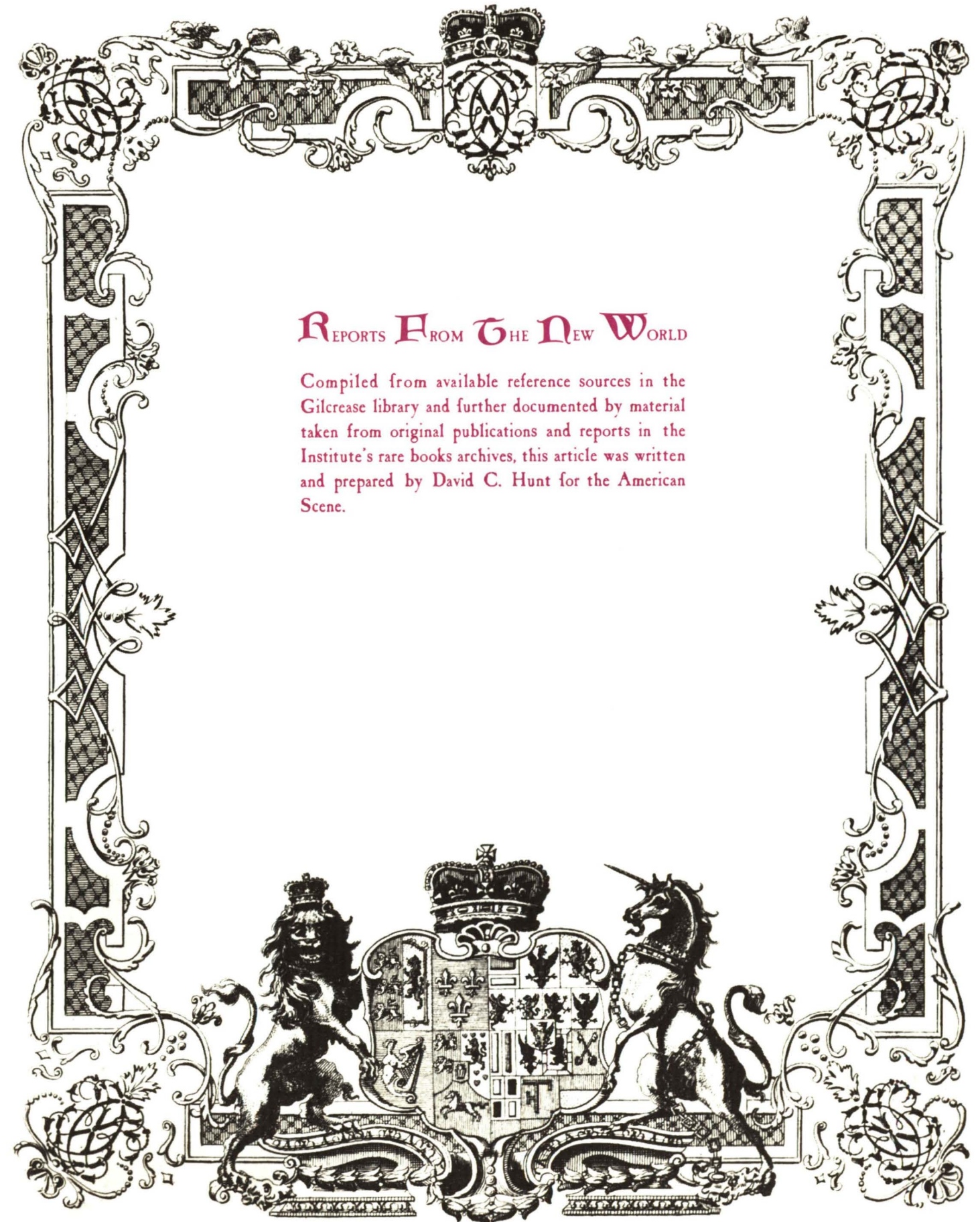
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FOREWORD

We are indebted to Christopher Columbus for having found this continent, for having made the first authenticated discovery of the New World named America; but we are also indebted to the age that produced him, to the period in the history of the West called the Renaissance, that made Columbus who and what he was.

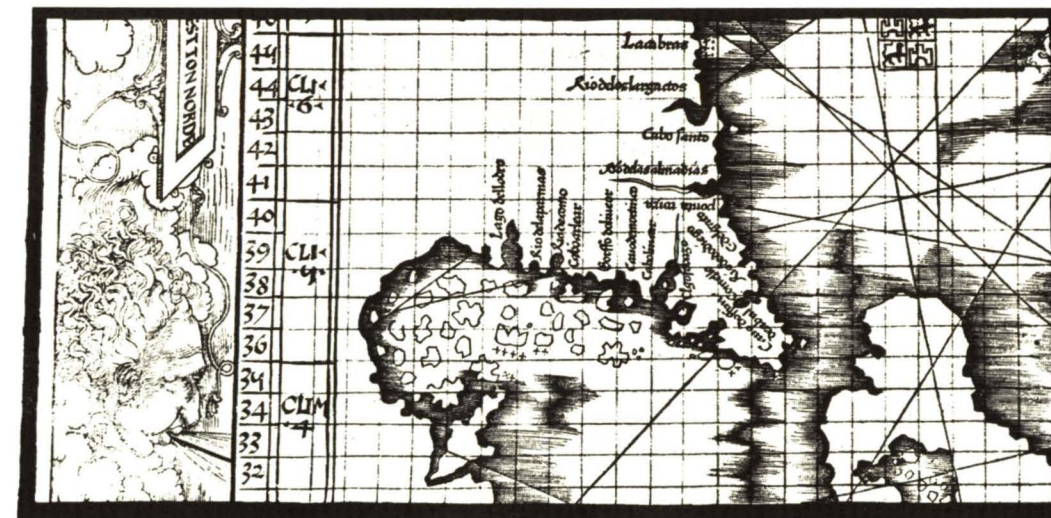
For his age was very much like our own: an age of important scientific discoveries and technical advances, an age of change and protest and progress, of secularism and controversy, of new developments in science and the arts—when science and art were practically one and the same—

Men of the Renaissance, of Columbus' time, were very much like us, like men of today: curious, worried, brave, brutal, visionary—like men of today, inventive and commercial-minded, certain and at the same time uncertain, like men of the 20th century. That is why their thoughts and actions interest us, why the records of their failures and accomplishments are important to us—why history is important to us: for all that has happened before our time, and in our time, is a part of us and makes us what we are; and the records of our past suggest the possible path of the future and encourage us to maintain confidence in our future, in the present sky-rocketing age of miracles and confusion.

Ours is the advantage, surely: the advantage of history; for we stand upon ten centuries of cultural advancement, a thousand years of progress, invention and adventure—a high hill from which we can turn to glimpse the past or look ahead with a wider view of ourselves and the world than any age before us.

And to all those who lived before us, who stumbled and struggled and prayed and fought and searched and finally fell upon the facts we now regard to be so clearly evident, we owe a grateful acknowledgment, a gesture of appreciation for all their mistakes and attempts and failures that laid the foundations upon which we stand corrected and enlightened.

D.C.H.



Geography was a subject of considerable importance to scholars of the 15th century, a much-debated topic among learned men of those days who studied carefully the contours of the then-known world and pondered, as well, on the possible shapes of unknown, suspected lands lying beyond the borders of their maps and charts. Philosophers, scientists and men of the Church all attended closely to the work of the cartographers of the time, the map-makers and chart-makers, the cosmographers and studiers of the stars, whose knowledge for the most part often rested solely on mathematical calculation or the investigations of ancient writings, or more commonly on second-hand information and such reports as they received from navigators and garrulous sailors or travelers, lately from the East, returning in Genoese or Venetian merchant vessels to the ports of the Mediterranean.

Crusaders returning from the Holy Land in the 11th and 12th centuries, and Marco Polo, returning home to Italy from his adventures at the court of the Great Khan in China, were the first to shake medieval Europe from the isolation of ages, arousing a considerable interest in the world outside the feudal confines of the West by bringing home wonderful tales of the legendary "lands of pepper and perfume," and such new and amazing products from the Orient as silk and paper, tea, porcelain, gunpowder and glass—not to mention new and stimulating contacts with fellow-Europeans and with the more sophisticated and scientifically-advanced civilizations of the Middle East. About this time, also, the gradual decline of the old manorial system in Europe and an accompanying rise in the importance of cities began to expand the economy; trade among the newly-developing centers of world population began to flourish, a money-based exchange replaced the older, barter system, and a new and wealthy merchant class of free, town citizens emerged in the succeeding centuries to become the "middle-class" backbone of the new and more diversified order of things.

Western art in the 15th century was everywhere the reflection of this new and increasingly urban civilization. First sculpture and then painting became more scientific in approach as the efforts of Renaissance artists were directed towards the solving of problems having to do with actual, visual experience, with the difficulties of rendering true perspective, the effects of light on form and the appearance of form in action. The graphic arts developed steadily in the north as printing methods were improved upon — although contrary to popular notion the now-famous Gutenberg did not invent the printing press but instead produced the first book printed in Europe from individually-cast, and therefore moveable, metal type faces—a technical advance that was to have far-reaching commercial consequences.

Printing from moveable type had been tried in China many years before Gutenberg's time, and the King of Korea is credited with having established a foundry for casting metal types from bronze in the year 1403; but these experiments in the East had no direct influence on the more successful developments in Europe, although the adoption of the Oriental method of manufacturing paper most certainly made printing economically practical, and without it there would not have been the great number of books in Europe as were circulated in the 16th century.

Regensburg, Augsburg and Basel, Switzerland, became the centers of the graphic arts as the new technique of metal-plate engraving rapidly developed and took over the task of book illustration from the woodblock artists and manuscript illuminators; and the great Basel printers, themselves, deserve a place of importance in the story of Europe's intellectual progress, for their work opened the doors through which the advancing knowledge of an amazing age made its way across the face of Europe.

The first Latin translations of the work of the Egyptian geographer, Claudius Ptolemy—who in the second century following the birth of Christ had put forth the theory of the earth as the center of a universe around which the planets, the sun and the stars revolve—had considerable influence on the scholars of the time, and the new universities branching forth from the seclusion of the older, monastic centers of learning also contributed to this general advancement by promoting the study of astronomy, chemistry, cartography and navigation. More accurate maps and charts were drafted, and such new inventions to the West as the magnetic compass, the astrolabe and the quadrant made navigation safer, faster and more certain.

This expanding knowledge, in turn made it easier for adventuring sea captains to persuade individual monarchs and men of wealth to sponsor ventures in search of possible, new sea routes to the Orient, as the old land caravan routes to Asia were closed off by the conquests of the Turks in the Near East; and among the busy commercial centers and rising "capitols" of Europe the

desire to find a way back to the sources of trade in Eastern luxuries was the most important factor encouraging subsequent voyages of exploration in the following decades.

Henry of Portugal was the first European monarch to gather together all the knowledge of the geographers of his time and to place his resources at the disposal of his ambitious admirals. As a result, Portuguese ships sailing the western coasts of Africa reached the Cape of Good Hope and, rounding the continent, "discovered" the vast blue Indian Ocean, establishing thereupon the so-called "southern" route to the Far East and planting trading posts and colonies in Asia well in advance of any other then-developing nation in Europe.

But there were some who argued that Asia might be reached yet another way—who speculated that, quite possibly, the world was *round*, as it was beginning to be rumored about the universities. And there were other rumors, also, reports from storm-tossed or lost, returning sailors, stories passed from port to port of new and strange islands to the west—of a large island which some had certainly seen, which someone came to name "Antilia." And other such stories and reports of "islands" were mentioned by Breton and Irish fishermen, one island in particular which they called "Brasil," reckoned to lie somewhere west or northwest of Lisbon, in search of which the Bristol merchants sailing regularly to Iceland with the English wool and tinware sent out two or three ships a season and eventually brought back to England and to the harbors of Portugal the most famous story of them all: the amazing, perhaps legendary, account of the "discoveries" of the seafaring Scandinavian adventurers, Eric the Red, and Lief, Eric's son, who was reported to have surprised a strange new land some distance west of Greenland in about the year 1000 A.D. — a land of islands and rivers and wild grapes, whose streams were full of fish and whose shores were inhabited by a strange people who traveled about in skin canoes and fought the Norsemen and were generally dangerous to deal with. An amazing and impossible tale, perhaps, in an age full of amazing and impossible tales.

Then in the year 1492, as Lorenzo the Magnificent was laid to rest, leaving the glory of his Florentine republic to a young sculptor named Michelangelo, a cartographer in Nuremberg named Martin Behaim made the first map that was round—the first *globe*; while along the Iberian peninsula the last of the hated Moors were driven from Granada by the combined forces of Aragon and Castile and the independence of the Spanish state was firmly established in the persons of Ferdinand and Isabella.

And in that same, now-memorable year, from the new and impoverished kingdom of Spain an Italian admiral, placed in command of a small fleet of three sea-bucking Mediterranean caravels, set out upon the first leg of a journey across the uncharted western waters in search of the Unknown—to discover, inadvertently, a *New World*.

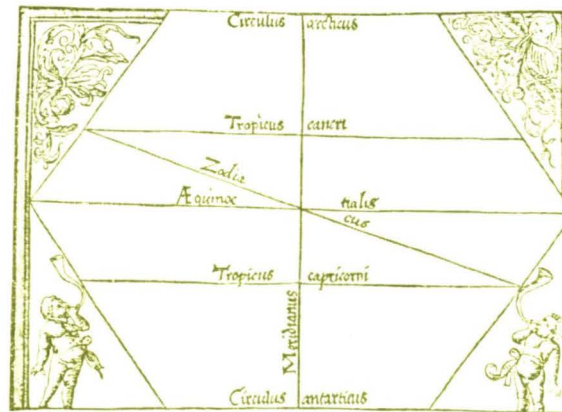
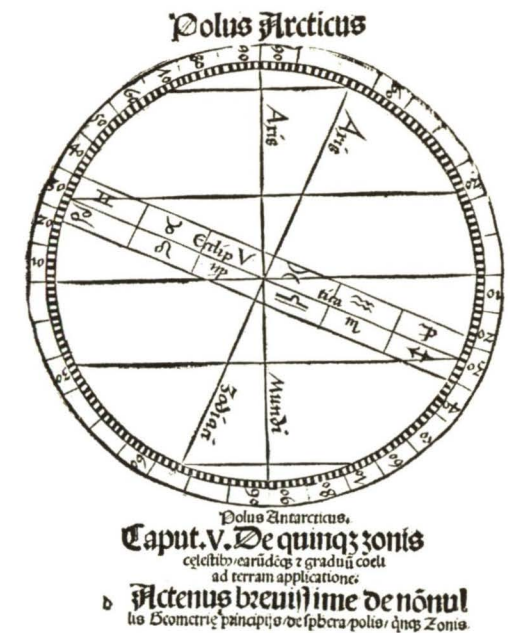
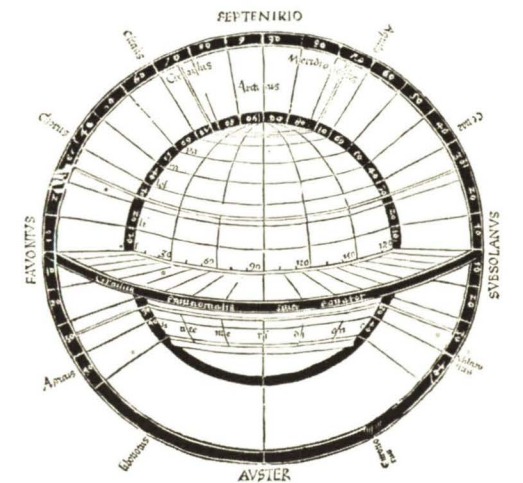


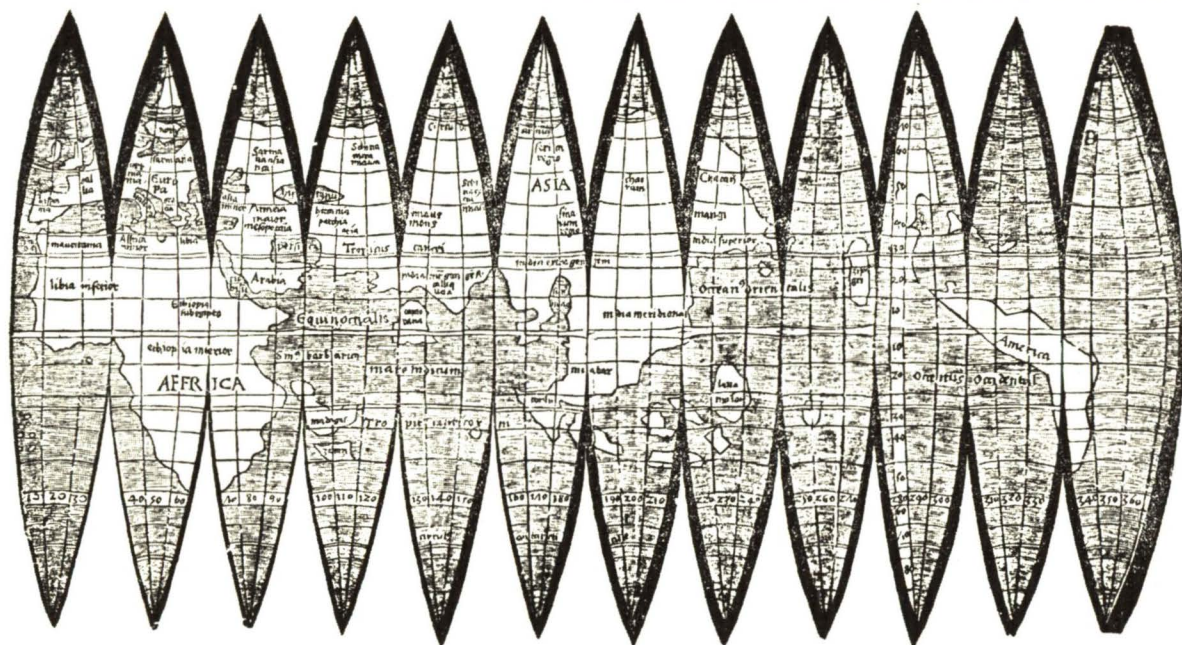
Diagram from 16th century Latin translation of Ptolemy's *Geography*. Gilcrease archives.



Wood engravings from 1507 edition of Waldseemüller's *Cosmographie Introductio*. Gilcrease archives.



Of the known, half-dozen or so Spanish chronicles surviving to the present day in manuscript form which contain reports or other references pertaining to Columbus' history-making landfall in the Bahamas on October 12, 1492, at least one is in the United States, brought to this country in 1930 following its purchase from London rare book dealers, A. S. W. Rosenbach & Sons, by the late Thomas Gilcrease of Tulsa, Oklahoma. In excellent condition, this rare, handwritten account, now in the historical archives of the Gilcrease Institute, is enclosed



First map in which the name America was used.
From 1507 map by Martin Waldseemüller

in an original leather binding with two other, separate Spanish histories, and was set down by a priest named Andres Bernal, or Bernaldes, who was a curate of the village of Los Palacios, near Seville, and as well, honorary chaplain to Diego de Deza, Archbishop of Seville, the friend and sponsor of Columbus to the Spanish Court.

Written sometime between 1516 and 1520 and entitled *Of the Admiral Christoval Colon and His Voyage Across the Ocean Until He Discovered the Indies Where There was Gold*, this rather involved account describes most of the now-familiar details of Columbus' first voyage and provides valuable testimony concerning the events which accompanied his famous discovery.

The story of Columbus' return to Spain with the news of his incredible discovery is a common one, today, but in 1492 it was an event quite as astounding to the people of that day as a successful landing and return from Mars might be imagined to excite the present age. The Discoverer's enthusiastic reception at the Spanish Court, where he relieved himself of his sampling of gold ornaments and pearls and presented the first captive American Indians ever seen in Europe—"in order,"

Bernaldes takes care in his report to explain, "to prove on his return to Spain that he had found land"—set the countryside reverberating with wild reports. But even of more significance, the very fact of his daring discovery proved, once and for all, the current theories of the cosmographers and mathematicians, and altered not only the map of the world forever, but all future statements concerning the shape of the Universe as well.

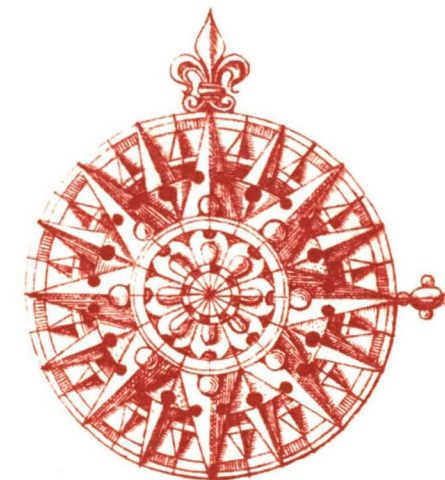
Meanwhile, Pope Alexander VI, himself a Spaniard by birth and sympathy, was quick to realize the possibilities developing in the newly-emerging world across the Atlantic, and almost immediately drafted his famous decree, *Inter Caetera*, whereby he gave to Spain exclusive and undisputed rights in the New World—with the single exception of Portugal—neatly dividing all future discoveries between the two seafaring nations, even as Columbus made preparations for his second voyage.

An account of Columbus second voyage is included in the Bernaldes manuscript and Bernaldes, himself, if not considered to have been the most unbiased of reporters according to present-day standards, was nevertheless a much-read chronicler of his times.

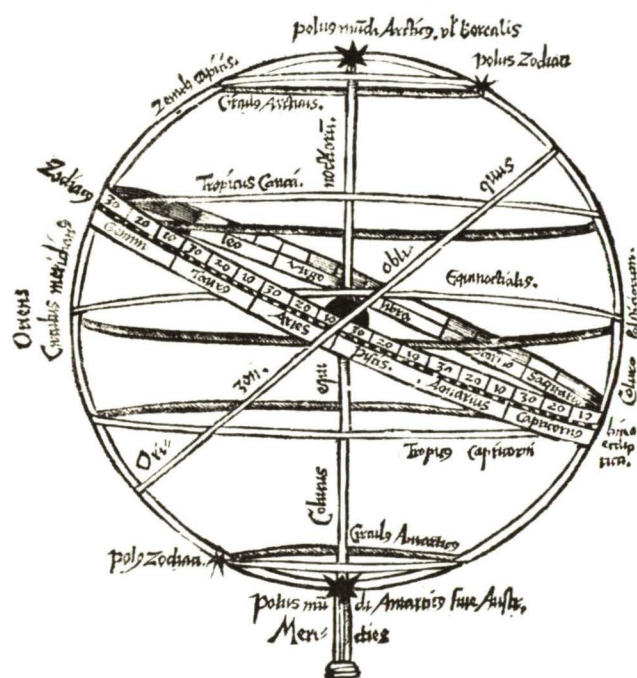
Acquainted with the famous Discoverer of the Indies, whom he describes in his account as "a merchant of books who traveled in Andalusia" and as "a man of high genius, who was not a man of letters, but was very shrewd in the art of cosmography . . . who followed what he had read from Ptolemy and other books regarding the world in which we navigate and walk," the curate further relates a visit which the Italian admiral paid him on his way to the Spanish Court following his second voyage, and says that "he was my guest and left me some of his writings in the presence of Don Juan de Fonseca, from which I copied and abridged with others which the honorable Dr. Anca of Chanca and other noble gentlemen wrote, who were with him on the voyages already related, who wrote what they say, from which I was informed and wrote this about the Indies as being a marvelous and heroic thing."

He also mentions that accompanying Columbus on on this memorable visit was "a converted Indian, brother of Canonoboa and baptised 'Diego' after the younger brother of Columbus," around whose neck "hung a collar of gold, a tangible evidence of the wealth of the Indies."

A full description is given of the experiences of the Spanish explorers with the cannibal inhabitants of the "Isles of the Caribes"—or the Carribbean Islands—in Bernaldes' report of the second voyage of Columbus; but of the third and last voyage only a brief mention is made by the writer, including Columbus' disappointment at not having found the mainland continent he dreamed of finding, along with an interesting report



Globus mundi Figura sphere celestis, qua sequē- tia cuncta intelliguntur.



not wish to offend Spain by trespassing on her domains in the Caribbean, or elsewhere, particularly at a time when negotiations were under way to secure a "Spanish marriage" for his first son to Catherine of Aragon.

Sebastian Cabot is reported to have searched for a "northwest passage" to India in about the year 1509, which, if true, at least indicates that England was interested in the "New found land" discovered by John Cabot twelve years earlier; but in the next ten years many things came to pass in Europe that took most men's minds off the New World and ultimately changed the future course of Western history even to the present day, not the least of which was the advent of the religious revolt in the northern German states led by an Augustinian monk named Martin Luther, who, in the very year that Leonardo da Vinci died, dreaming of his flying machines, and in Rome construction of the capitol church in Christendom, the mighty cathedral of St. Peter, was being directed towards completion by the greatest architects of the Renaissance, engaged in his history-making debates with the papal emissaries over the outrageous abuses attending the already questionable practise of selling indulgences.

The first appearance in print of the word *America*, used to designate the land first discovered by Columbus, appeared in Martin Waldseemüller's geographical study *Cosmographie Introductio*, published the year following the Great Discoverer's death in 1506. An original edition of this work is preserved in the Gilcrease Library along with Waldseemüller's *Globus Mundi*, printed 1509; and it is thought that Waldseemüller at the time may have named the new land through common reference to it as "Amerigo's land"—or the land described by Amerigo Vespucci as a "New World"—hence his use of the name *America* in his publication and on his map of the world printed in the same year.

The first English mention of America is to be found in John Rastell's play, "A New Interlude," first produced in 1517; however, prior to 1550 English writers seldom otherwise referred to the New World, until the accession of Elizabeth to the throne launched a new and glorious era in the history of England and of English exploration in America.

In the Gilcrease Institute's 1555 edition of Richard Eden's *The Decades of the New World*, encouragement of England's interest in the New World is suggested by his descriptions of the wealth that the Spaniards are realizing from their West Indian empire; and a change in the English attitude towards colonization begins to manifest itself about this time, as the increasingly nationalistic temper of the period and the religious controversies precipitated by the Protestant Reformation accompany the final break-up of once-catholic Europe into the separate, national states which we recognize

on the map of the world today, headed by strong and determined monarchies.

The shifting of the commercial center of Europe from the Mediterranean area to the Atlantic also had a profound and lasting effect on the economy, and therefore the political balance of power, in Western Europe in this same period; and England, developing a strong maritime fleet, emerged as the leading naval power in the next century. While in the West Indies piracy increased to alarming proportions as reckless men from every nation in Europe raced the fat Spanish galleons for their cargoes of Inca gold, burning cities along the Spanish-American mainland, itself, looting and plundering and proudly returning home with the glittering treasure stolen from the rival Spaniards—who, of course, first stole it from the Indians.

Following Henry VIII's divorce from his Spanish wife, Catherine, he thereupon broke with both the Royal House of Spain and the Church of Rome, and English-Spanish rivalry on the high seas immediately began to assume something of the character of a religious war. In 1580 the Queen's minister declared for all the world to hear that England would no longer acknowledge the Spanish monopoly in America—announcing to the Spanish minister in London that the Pope "had no right whatsoever to partition the world"—and from that time forward the daring Elizabethan "sea dogs" paid no further attention to Spanish claims in the Western Hemisphere, as Sir Francis Drake pillaged towns and ships along the Spanish Main and all the way down the eastern coasts of South America, rounding the Horn to return to England with a cargo that paid its private investors—including the Virgin Queen, herself—a reputed 4,600% profit.

England's repulse of the dreaded attack of the Spanish Armada in the sea battle off the channel coasts in 1588 marked the beginning of the end for Spain as the dominant world power, and in the following decades English writers for the first time published histories, poems, dramas and promotional tracts about America, urging its colonization.

In the century following Columbus' discovery of America, people in Europe knew, of course, that a New World existed beyond the rim of the Western Ocean; but what it looked like, how its people lived, remained for explorers and settlers, and eventually artists and writers, to describe.

Early explorers were invariably impressed by the vastness of the American wilderness. Verrazano, another Genoese sailor, who, sailing for Francis I, laid France's first claim to North America, returned with glowing descriptions of fields and plains and "mightie great woods" along the coasts; and later settlers found the forest of New England, in particular, "alive with the largest wild beasts, monstrous strong and swift." Reports of deer



Sir Francis Drake



SEPTENTRIO



MERIDIES

Weltkarte des Peter Apian von 1520.

"in greatest plenty" and streams that jumped with fish of all kinds characterize many similar accounts, and the whole region from present-day Maine to Georgia is reported to have abounded with wild fowl, particularly turkeys traveling in flocks estimated at five hundred or more, and quail, ducks and wild pigeons whose flying multitudes "covered the sky for half an hour" in passing, even as the sweeping, thundering herds of bison were later described as darkening the wide prairies beyond the Mississippi.

From all accounts, America was a fabulous land—more amazing, as it turned out, than even the fabled and much-sought Orient—and richer by far in timber, fish and farmlands and such new and soon-to-be-prized products as tobacco, potatoes and Indian corn, than all the dreams of all the wealth of the Indies.

The natural geography of the earth was itself a significant factor influencing the history of exploration and settlement of the New World, for one of the first obstacles which faced adventuring admirals and sailors from Europe was, of course, the vast expanse of the Atlantic Ocean. However, across its 3000 miles of water are a number of natural stepping stones: the Faroe Islands, Iceland and Greenland, which the first sea-raiding Norsemen and later Basque fishing boats and English merchant vessels made use of to hop across. But this northern route early proved difficult for such craft as sailed the wide waters in those days, for the prevailing winds and currents in the North Atlantic flow eastward, not westward; and therefore, many ships in the 16th century elected to follow in Columbus' wake, taking advantage of the so-called "trade winds" along the southern route from the Canaries to the Cape Verde Islands, and from thence across the remaining thousand miles of open water to the scattered islands of the Caribbean.

The ocean proved both a friendly as well as an unfriendly natural element, for if it was a difficult highway on which to travel, it also provided a protective barrier between the early colonists and the wars and politics of Europe, encouraging in the settlers a spirit of self-reliance, as well, since in those days they could not depend upon the regular transportation of food and other necessities from home.

The natural bounty in fish along the whole continental shelf of North America brought the French and English ships to these shores early in the 16th century, becoming eventually a point of international contention and rivalry for hundreds of years; while a relatively mild, variable—and therefore healthful—climate supported a flourishing plant and animal life which in those days, from all reports, was of phenomenal proportions. Numerous harbors, wide and sometimes deep, cut into the land, and broad, flowing rivers provided easy access to the interior of the continent, encouraging the first settlements along the Atlantic seaboard.

The first serious attempts at English colonization were made shortly after 1550, first in Ireland and then,

finally, in America, where Sir Humphrey Gilbert strongly advocated "the planting of the English Nation," supported in his opinions by Historian Richard Hakluyt, who insisted that if England's colonial ventures in the wilderness of North America should prove successful, England would surely gain the upper hand in the New World and "cutt the combe of the Frenche, the Spanishe, of the Portingale and all enemies and doubtful frendes, to the abating of their wealthe and force."

Gilbert failed in his first and only attempt to colonize American shores, losing his life in a wreck off the Azores on his return voyage to England in 1583; and so it was left to his cousin, Walter Raleigh, to actually establish the first "planting"—or plantation—of Englishmen in the Western Hemisphere.

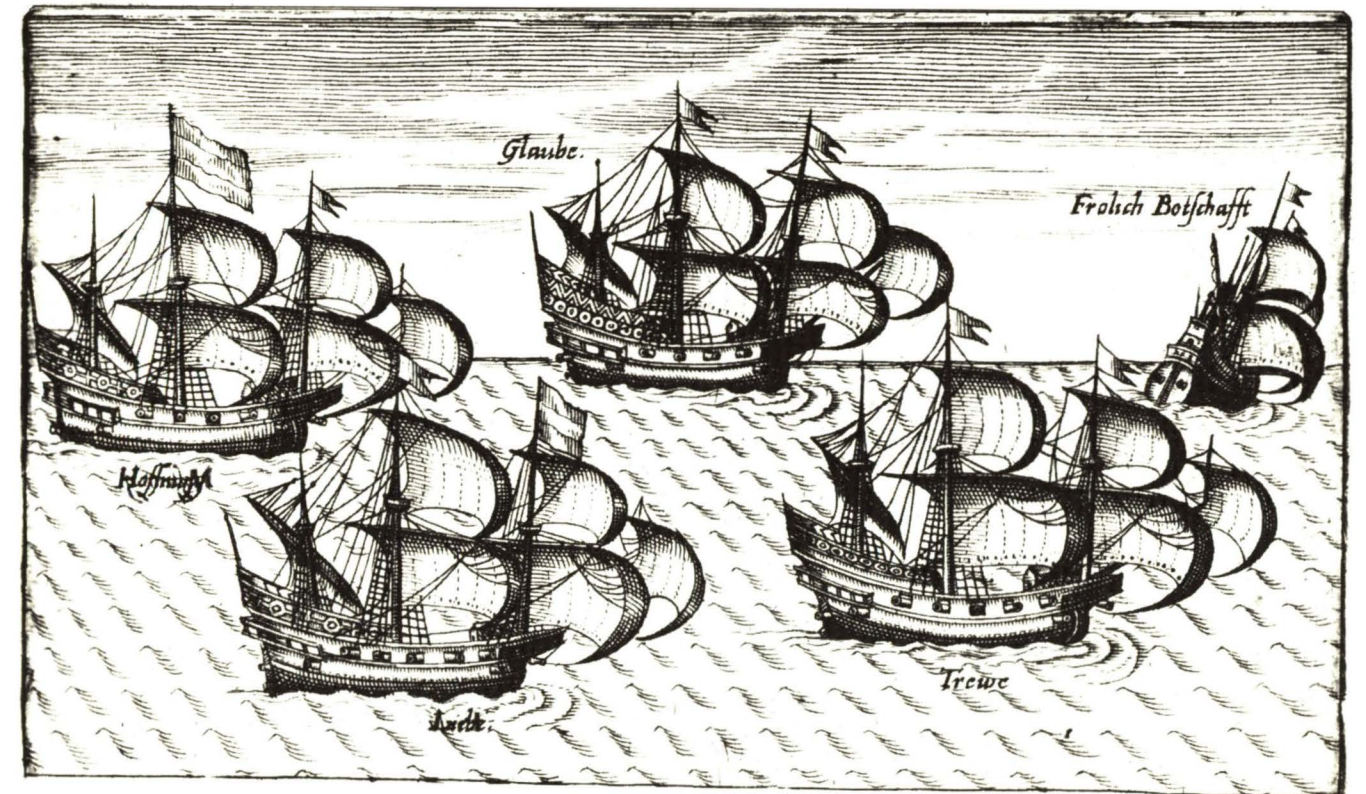
In 1584, following Gilbert's death, Raleigh received a patent from Queen Elizabeth to discover and establish settlements in any place in America "not actually possessed of any Christian Prince" and there to set up a government in which the settlers were to be guaranteed "all their natural priveleges as free citizens and persons native to England"—a remarkable guarantee, for those times, and one of the distinguishing features of English colonial policy which gave it a future advantage over the more despotic colonial attitudes of either France or Spain in the New World.

And in the summer of that same year, the advance party sent by Raleigh to explore the coasts of America returned to England with such favorable reports of the land along the present-day Carolina coast, and in particular of an island "which the Indians call Roanoke," that Raleigh, the Queen, Hakluyt and all were much excited; and in the general enthusiasm that attended the preparations for the forthcoming expedition, Raleigh himself was knighted by Elizabeth, and the new land described by the exploring captains was promptly christened "Virginia" in honor of the Virgin Queen of England.

In the spring of the following year, 1585, Sir Walter Raleigh and company set sail for America from Plymouth, under the command of Richard Grenville, with Ralph Lane appointed to be Lieutenant Governor of the new colony and Philip Amadas as "Admiral of the county." Also included in the group was a "skillful painter" named John White, and Thomas Hariot, "lernerd mathematician," whose later account of this settlement, included in his *A Briefe and True Report of the New Found Land of Virginia*, first published in 1588, contains the first descriptions in English of a region that is now part of the United States—in which he makes the acid comment that "when the settlers failed to find gold or silver, they had little or no care for any other thing except to pamper



Engraving of Sir Walter Raleigh, out of the Gilcrease archive's 1764 edition of John Harris' *Voyages and Travels*.



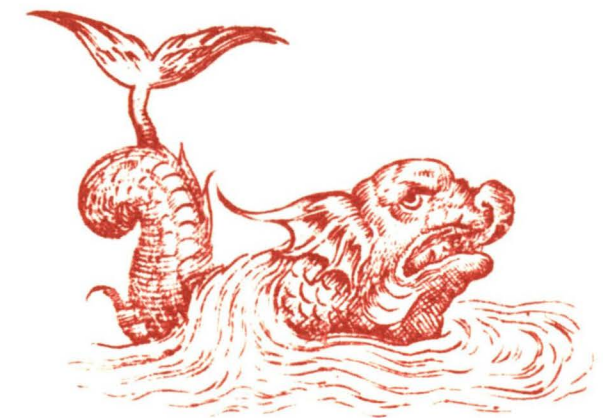
Engraving from *Historia Americae Novi Orbis*, 1634. Gilcrease archives.

their bellies . . . that lacking fair houses, dainty food and soft beds, the country to them was miserable."

And indeed it must have been, for though they managed to survive the winter without actually starving, when Drake's fleet appeared off the coast the following spring, all went home to England with him.

Failing so soon in his first attempt, Sir Walter Raleigh planned a second expedition to America almost immediately, instigating a different arrangement for the financing of this second venture by obtaining the support of nineteen merchants and thirteen "gentlemen" who were to act as "adventurers" on a joint-stock basis. The more military aspect of the former expedition was altered to suit the purposes of the new "stock-holders," and a land allotment was granted to the would-be colonists who were encouraged to take along their families and establish a permanent community in the New World.

Headed by artist-adventurer John White, the group of about a hundred persons set sail again for Roanoke Island to pick up the extra men left there the year before, and from Roanoke they were supposed to proceed on to Chesapeake Bay to establish their settlement; however they ignored these instructions, and upon reaching Roanoke Island, remained to settle there.



Not much happened to the settlers of Roanoke their first year in the wilds of Virginia, with the exception of the birth of Virginia Dare, who has the distinction in the annals of American history of being the first English child born in the Western Hemisphere. But the little colony was destined to go down in the American memory, nonetheless; for sometime after Governor White was persuaded to return to England for additional supplies, something happened to the colony that has remained a mystery to this day.

White's return to England was ill-timed, for he arrived just as the threatened invasion of the Spanish Armada had all England in an uproar. And even after the mighty fleet of Spanish ships was defeated in 1588, he was further and unaccountably delayed, and did not make sail again for Roanoke before the summer of 1590, and upon reaching Roanoke in August, he found nothing there to greet him but a deserted fort, standing empty in the woods.

The fate of the Roanoke colony, which simply vanished without a trace, has been a subject of considerable historical speculation ever since, and there has never been so much as a clue to account for its disappearance—with the exception of the single word CROATOAN, found carved on the trunk of a nearby tree, and the letters CRO cut into the bark of another—to give the returning party no more idea than before what may have happened to the settlement. Later historians have maintained that perhaps the colonists, left to fend for themselves in the unfamiliar wilderness, may have abandoned Fort Raleigh and attempted to push on to their originally-designated spot, only to be lost forever. Other men at the time grimly decided that, probably, the Indians "gott them." But whatever happened, when White returned in 1590, the island of Roanoke was empty of Englishmen.

Suspensions concerning the part the Indians might have had in the disappearance of the Roanoke colony is suggestive of the attitude held by most Europeans at that time with regards to the "rude inhabitants" of America, and indicates well enough the relationship that was early established between the settlers and the Indians—an uncertain relationship, at best, and one that rapidly developed into a certain and obvious conflict of interests that was to prove irreconcilable in the following century. The aggressive, if not downright contemptuous, attitude of the "whites" and the corresponding angry resentment on the part of the natives of the land made open if undeclared hostilities inevitable. And while many colonial writers in later years praised "the noble savage" for his physical prowess, courage and endurance, most contemporaries otherwise described him as "filthy, cunning, trecherous and deceitful;" and most settlers in Colonial



Indian Village as depicted by John White; an engraving by Theodore de Bry printed sometime between 1598 and 1602. Gilcrease archives.





Engraved portrait of Queen Elizabeth I, from Gilcrease Institute's 1624 edition of Captain John Smith's *A Generall Historie of Virginia*.

America, in mortal competition with the Indians for the land, regarded them as no better than "beaste of the forest," to be gotten rid of along with the bears, wild cats, and other dangers of the wilderness. And it is a question worth considering, in looking at the records of the settlement of America, why that in all the long years from the time of the Spanish conquest of the Indies to the taming of our own wild American West, so few voices of protest were heard, raised in defense of the rights, the lives or the property of the native inhabitants of this hemisphere.

Few there were, however; and in the end, contacts between Indians and settlers blunted the more humane sensibilities of both groups, and the terrible savagery of the one was more than matched by the callous greed and determined brutality of the other.

Two of the first artists ever to depict the Indians of the New World were a Frenchman named Jacques le Moyne de Morgues and the previously-mentioned, one-time governor of Roanoke, John White. Painting or sketching in different places and at different times these men went boldly among the natives of the coastal areas, and their work first appeared published together as engravings, reproduced in a two-volume set of books entitled *Grands et Petits Voyages*, published in 1590 and 1591 by the Dutch printer-engraver, Theodore De Bry, and again in a later De Bry edition printed in London between 1598 and 1602 entitled *Savages of the New World*. An original edition of the latter printing is the source of several of the illustrations which accompany this article, and is to be found in the Rare Books section of the Gilcrease Institute's historical archives along with a later reprint-edition dealing with le Moyne's experiences as a surveyor-cartographer in Florida, where he was sent by the French government to investigate and explore in a region already claimed by Spain—but really occupied by no one but the tenacious, Muskogee-speaking Calusa and Mayaimi Indians.

White, in his sketches and reports describes the Indians of the Carolinas and Virginia as "inhabiting towns" and "raising corn and tobacco" and otherwise mentions their hunting of deer and other game, and that "when they go to battle, they paynt their bodyes in a most terrible manner." Le Moyne paints his Florida chiefs as remarkable specimens, showing them adorned with shells and feather headdresses, their bodies decorated with tattoos, and otherwise depicts them as a vigorous race of Greek-like savages who smear themselves with fish oil, and, having no flints or metals, tip their weapons with shells and fish bones.

The manner of reporting of both artists is peculiarly 16th century as is their style of draftsmanship, and their

Indians seem to us today to be more European in features and appearance than truly "American." Some critics have also suggested that Le Moyne in particular has probably exaggerated the size of the alligators and crocodiles and other "monsters of the swamp" which he shows the Indians capturing and killing, but despite the possible fancy or prejudice which may distort the reports of either of these men, their drawings remain important as the first to document native life in the New World.



Elizabeth died in 1603 and Mary Stuart's son, James IV of Scotland, came to the throne as James I of England, uniting the two kingdoms on the island into the New and United Kingdom of Great Britain. And in the following decades of James's reign the name of John Smith figures prominently in the account of the settlement of James' Town, as the story of the founding of the Royal Colony of Virginia enters the pages of American history, and tobacco becomes a most popular and profitable—as well as a most royally-despised—trade commodity; and the language of an epic period is forever preserved in the increasingly large number of publications of that time, including the most widely-read English translation of the Scriptures ever printed: the *King James' Version* of the Bible.

Following the death of Richard Hakluyt in 1591, the younger Hakluyt continued to keep an interest in America alive by publishing his *Principall Navigations and Voyages of the English Nation*, which by the year 1600 constituted an edited and enlarged, three-volume history of English exploration and discovery, a third of which was devoted exclusively to English adventures in the Western Hemisphere. When the younger Richard Hakluyt also died, Samuel Purchas carried on his work publishing his *Hakluytus Porthumus or Purchas His Pilgrimes* in 1625, which documents the history of English colonialism at a time when the influence of Englishmen was beginning to penetrate to the farthest parts of the navigable world.



Illustration from 1663 edition of Fage's *Cosmography*. Gilcrease archives.

One later historian, looking at the record of the failures attending the earliest attempts at colonization in America, marvels at "the force of the printed word" in an England where everyone was beginning to learn to read—and read most eagerly the reports and pamphlets urging and promoting settlement in the New World. And considering that the mortality rate among the first settlers in America was extremely high—75% of Jamestown's original colonists died during their first winter in the Virginia wilds—the persuasive power of the numerous tracts and pamphlets that were widely circulated in England in the 17th century must have been great, indeed, to induce not only new colonists to come to these shores but even the straggling survivors of such disasters to remain to try again.

But it must also be taken into account that the real strength of such appeals lay with America, herself, in her offer to the men and nations of Europe of a whole New World of Opportunity—a virgin wilderness and wealth of land waiting for whoever might be able or enterprising enough to claim and hold her.

And it is to all those to whom this vast, new continent called, holding forth her unlimited possibilities and promise, to all those who finally dared the transatlantic crossing and the hazards of the wilderness, who gambled their lives, their fortunes and their futures in America—and won—that we owe our present pride and glory as a nation, that began as a New Experiment in a New World never dreamed of by Columbus, who looked out upon the choppy face of the Western Ocean and dreamed only of the Indies.

D.C.H.

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