

Chapter 1 : migration from the land - German translation â€“ Linguee

\* "The Great Migration". \* Soundtrack from *THE LAND BEFORE TIME* (USA - ) \* Composer: James Horner ( - ).

Just about everything they need is here. Painstakingly researched in British and American archives and thoroughly documented, the volumes are also judicious in their conclusionsâ€¦ The Great Migration Begins promises to become an indispensable tool for historians as well as genealogists. The Project aimed to summarize and document everything known about the individual immigrants who came to New England in its first years of settlement. Now, fifteen years later, a substantial body of work has been produced: The Great Migration Begins: Immigrants to New England â€” currently three volumes covering surnames Aâ€”H and the Great Migration Newsletter now in its twelfth year , which addresses broader themes and topics. Thanks to the substantial scholarly contributions of the Great Migration Study Project, the genealogical community has grown increasingly familiar with details of the lives of these early immigrants. The Great Migration Study Project uses â€” the date of the arrival of the Mayflower â€” as its starting point. The year marks the founding of Plymouth Colony by the Separatists â€” the most extreme Puritan sect. While more moderate Puritans sought only to purify and reform the Church of England, the Separatists severed all ties to it. The Separatists left England and in moved to the city of Leiden in Holland to escape persecution. After ten years in Holland, they were eager to establish a colony of their own. With the support of London merchants they secured a land patent in the New World and formed a joint-stock company. In September , the Mayflower set sail from Plymouth with passengers, including both Separatist believers and non-believers. The peak years of the Great Migration lasted just over ten years â€” from to , years when the Puritan crisis in England reached its height. In , King Charles I dissolved Parliament, thus preventing Puritan leaders from working within the system to effect change and leaving them vulnerable to persecution. In , when Parliament was reconvened, attention was redirected from the New World back to the old and migration to New England dropped sharply. Seventeenth-century conditions in England caused hundreds of thousands of emigrants to leave England and seek new homes elsewhere: The immigrants who came to New England differed from immigrants to other regions in a variety of ways, all stemming from their fundamental desire to obtain spiritual rather than economic rewards. Unlike colonists to other areas, those who migrated to New England had known relatively prosperous lives in England. In fact, it was a greater economic risk to leave than to stay. Motivated primarily by religious concerns, most Great Migration colonists traveled to Massachusetts in family groups. In fact, the proportion of Great Migration immigrants who traveled in family groups is the highest in American immigrant history. Consequently, New England retained a normal, multi-generational structure with relatively equal numbers of men and women. At the time they left England, many husbands and wives were in their thirties and had three or more children, with more yet to be born. This situation contrasts with that of the southern colonies, which were populated primarily by single young men. In the Chesapeake Bay area, even at the end of the seventeenth century, the male-to-female sex ratio was skewed. Great Migration colonists shared other distinctive characteristics. New Englanders had a high level of literacy, perhaps nearly twice that of England as a whole. New Englanders were highly skilled; more than half of the settlers had been artisans or craftsmen. Only about seventeen percent came as servants, mostly as members of a household. And in much greater proportion than the English population as a whole, New England settlers came from urban areas. Unlike colonists of other regions, the Great Migration colonists were primarily middle class, and few were rich or poor. English emigrants primarily in search of economic betterment were unlikely to settle in the Massachusetts Bay Colony; the potential rewards were not great. Similarly, those already rich saw little opportunity to increase their wealth in a harsh region with no obvious cash crop. Emigrants seeking to realize the greatest economic opportunity would choose to go elsewhere, in effect excluding from New England those who placed material concerns first. The result of this exclusion was a remarkably homogeneous population, with colonists sharing similar backgrounds, outlooks, and perspectives. An important rite of passage for all Great Migration colonists, and one that further bound them together as a group, was the voyage to Massachusetts. The majority of emigrants lived within a few days travel of a port of departure. An average

ocean crossing lasted from eight to ten weeks but the time of the voyage could vary greatly, from a trip of just thirty-eight days to one of six months. Once in New England, the settlers usually spent a minimum of several weeks – frequently the entire first winter – in the port town at which they arrived or another established town. After gathering information about possible places to settle, they dispersed to towns throughout the colony, sometimes moving several times before finding permanent residences. Most chose to move to a new town, generally one less than two years old. Proprietors received the best and largest land grants, as well as rights to share in future divisions. This share in future land divisions was extremely important to the settlers because it ensured viable economic futures for their children. In order to best secure these rights, towns limited the number of possible proprietors. Once the limit was reached, the town was considered closed. In Dorchester, this process happened quite early – in , just six years after its founding. Twenty-two towns, from Maine to Rhode Island, were closed or entry was drastically restricted within the first ten years of settlement. Fortunately for new arrivals, the frontier continued expanding and many new towns formed during the lifetimes of the original settlers. Settlement expanded from Boston, to both the north and the south, along the coast. The colonists first occupied land cleared by previous Native inhabitants. After these more desirable areas were taken, settlers moved into increasingly difficult terrain. Twenty-three towns in Massachusetts were founded in the s, and these towns, as well as those settled in succeeding decades, provided a stable and secure land distribution system for the immigrants. Another aspect of life in New England proved noteworthy: Many colonists lived to the age of seventy, and a substantial number lived to be eighty. Both male and female settlers in New England lived significantly longer than their English counterparts. This longevity is no doubt due to a variety of factors: Also, infant and childhood mortality rates were lower in New England, and the settlers produced large and healthy families – most having seven or more children. Overall, Massachusetts Bay Colony settlers were able to attain a comfortable living for themselves and assure some measure of economic success for their children. Most owned houses and land, as well as a sufficient amount of livestock, farm equipment, and household goods. Interestingly, with their disposable income New Englanders chose to forgo the purchase of silverware, pottery and other household goods in favor of books – principally the religious books that were so key to Puritanism. If few in New England were wealthy, few lived in poverty either. Most settlers lived in circumstances similar to their neighbors and if one colonist was more prosperous than the rest, this prosperity was likely to manifest itself in a greater amount of land rather than a more ostentatious way of life. The commitment to life in a Puritan commonwealth on which the Great Migration colonists staked everything when they left England had indeed paid off. Note 1 Anderson, Virginia DeJohn. Cambridge University Press,

**Chapter 2 : First Americans Lived on Bering Land Bridge for Thousands of Years - Scientific American**

*Although, of course, the measures we have taken are not sufficient to solve the problem of unemployment and migration from the land in this region, the jobs created for the little village of Malmkrog is still not without significance, especially in light of the fact that we hope to be able to employ some the workers almost throughout the year.*

Share via Print An Inupiat Eskimo family from Alaska in , whose ancestors would have crossed Beringia thousands of years previously. The following essay is reprinted with permission from The Conversation , an online publication covering the latest research. The theory that the Americas were populated by humans crossing from Siberia to Alaska across a land bridge was first proposed as far back as , and has been generally accepted since the s. But genetic evidence shows there is no direct ancestral link between the people of ancient East Asia and modern Native Americans. While there is evidence to suggest northeast Siberia was inhabited during a warm period about 30, years ago before the last ice age peaked, after this the archaeological record goes silent, and only returns 15, years ago, after the last ice age ended. So where did the ancestors of the Native Americans go for 15, years, after they split from the rest of their Asian relatives? Based on evidence from sediment cores drilled into the now submerged landscape, it seems that here and in some adjacent regions of Alaska and Siberia the landscape at the height of the last glaciation 21, years ago was shrub tundra “ as found in Arctic Alaska today. There is evidence that there may have been some stands of spruce trees in these regions too in some protected microhabitats, where temperatures were milder than the regions around. The presence of a particular group of beetle species that live in shrub tundra habitats today in Alaska, and are associated with a specific range of temperatures, also supports the idea that the area was a refuge for both flora and fauna. This kind of vegetation would not have supported the large, grazing animals “ woolly mammoth, woolly rhino, Pleistocene horses, camels, and bison. These animals lived on the vegetation of the steppe-tundra which dominated the interior of Alaska and the Yukon, as well as interior regions of northeast Siberia. This shrub tundra would have supported elk, perhaps some bighorn sheep, and small mammals. But it had the one resource people needed most to keep warm: The wood and bark of dwarf shrubs would have been used to start fires that burned large mammal bones. And there is evidence from archaeological sites that people burned bones as fuel “ the charred remains of leg bones have been found in many ancient hearths. It is the heat from these fires that kept these intrepid hunter-gatherers alive through the bitter cold of Arctic winter nights. Escape to America The last ice age ended and the land bridge began to disappear beneath the sea, some 13, years ago. Global sea levels rose as the vast continental ice sheets melted, liberating billions of gallons of fresh water. As the land bridge flooded, the entire Beringian region grew more warm and moist, and the shrub tundra vegetation spread rapidly, out-competing the steppe-tundra plants that had dominated the interior lowlands of Beringia. While this spelled the end of the woolly mammoths and other large grazing animals, it probably also provided the impetus for human migration. As retreating glaciers opened new routes into the continent, humans travelled first into the Alaskan interior and the Yukon, and ultimately south out of the Arctic region and toward the temperate regions of the Americas. The first definitive archaeological evidence we have for the presence of people beyond Beringia and interior Alaska comes from this time, about 13, years ago. This article was originally published on The Conversation. Read the original article.

**Chapter 3 : About the Great Migration**

*The Great Migration was the relocation of more than 6 million African Americans from the rural South to the cities of the North, Midwest and West from about 1915 to 1970. Driven from their homes.*

It was during the First World War that a silent pilgrimage took its first steps within the border of this country. The fever rose without warning or notice or much in the way of understanding by those outside its reach. It would not end until the 1970s and would set into motion changes in the North and South that no one, not even the people doing the leaving, could have imagined at the start of it or dreamed would take nearly a lifetime to play out. Historians would come to call it the Great Migration. It would become perhaps the most underreported story of the twentieth century. Like so many before them, the men and women who were part of the Great Migration felt compelled to migrate to escape persecution and to search out economic opportunity. In the 20th Century, this meant the atrocities of the Jim Crow South combined with the employment opportunities afforded by labor shortages in the Industrial North. The combination led millions to leave the only world they knew for a new and uncertain life. In many ways, the Great Migration consisted of many smaller migrations between local communities. The African Americans who left South Carolina were particularly likely to migrate to New York and Philadelphia, while migrants from Louisiana mostly headed to the great cities of the West. We can track these patterns using data from the decennial census. This data sheds light on a momentous shift in American history. The artist Jacob Lawrence depicted the Great Migration in a series of paintings in 1941. As part of Reconstruction, the federal government took over the governance of the South and attempted to enforce civil rights for the newly freed people. The 13th, 14th and 15th constitutional amendments, passed between 1865 and 1870, were intended to assure that African Americans maintained their freedom, ability to vote, and equal protection under the law. These gains were short lived. By the late 1800s, the federal government withdrew from the South. Legislatures filled with white supremacists passed new laws that enforced segregation. Each year, people who had been able to vote or ride the train where they chose found that something they could do freely yesterday, they were prohibited from doing today. They were losing ground and sinking low in status with each passing day, and, well into the new century, the color codes would only grow to encompass more activities of daily life as quickly as they could devise them. Beyond discrimination and segregation, there was physical violence. Jamelle Bouie writes in the Nation about riots against the few prosperous African American communities that developed: Economic opportunities were sparse. There was little initial investment in the region. Not granted the land that many of them expected, many African Americans ended up working as sharecroppers for white landowners. These landowners often forced these sharecroppers into crippling debt by contracts signed under the threat of violence. The war effort led to increased demand for industrial products made in the North, but also a labor shortage. With the native-born and immigrant populations usually relied upon off at war, companies looked south. Historians usually divide The Great Migration into two periods: These periods are separated by the lull in migration that happened during the Great Depression in the 1930s. The following chart displays the number of African Americans who migrated from the South to other parts of the country by decade. Dan Kopf, Priceonomics; Data: Cato Institute, 2015. They primarily headed to the cities of the Northeast, as well as Chicago and Detroit. Hundreds of thousands of migrants headed to the New York City area alone, bringing the number of African Americans in the New York City area from around 100,000 in 1910 to over 1 million in just thirty years. The table below displays the cities with the largest African American population in 1910, and how the population changed from 1910 to 1970. This table, and ones that follow, are estimates based on a one percent sample of the population. Census The conditions African Americans confronted in the North were improved but still full of hardship. Racism and prejudice abounded. Government policy kept African Americans out of many neighborhoods through redlining; the restriction of neighborhoods in which people of certain racial and ethnic groups could get approved for a mortgage. Redlining remains an issue today. These migrants worked in foundries, in meatpacking companies, as servants of the wealthy and on projects such as the expansion of the Pennsylvania Railroad. These were the least desirable jobs in most industries, but the ones employers felt best suited their black workers. Many cities and states had unusually strong migratory relationships. Nearly half of

the migrants who left Mississippi went to Chicago. African American Virginians migrated to Philadelphia at an uncommon rate. The table below shows the twenty cities with the largest African American population in , and the most common birthplace of migrants to the state. Census Most of the patterns accord with geography. For cities on the East Coast, most migrants came from states on the East Coast. Midwestern cities like Chicago, St. Louis and Akron received an unusually large number of migrants from Mississippi and Alabama, states in the middle of the South. Los Angeles and San Francisco received migrants from the states furthest West. But proximity does not explain all of the patterns. Georgia and South Carolina are similar distances from Cleveland, Ohio, but a migrant from Georgia was three times more likely to go to Cleveland than one from South Carolina. This can likely be explained by chain migration. Chain migration is the phenomenon of later migrants following earlier migrants. Just as this impacted European immigration to the United States -- Irish following Irish to Boston, and Swedes following Swedes to Minneapolis -- chaining helped determine the internal migration of African Americans in the United States. The Second Wave The movement of African Americans from the South slowed down during the depression era s but came back stronger in the s. In the early s, African Americans in the South continued to face the injustices of Jim Crow and an economy that afforded them little possibility to thrive. The number of agriculture jobs , a main source of work for the population, decreased due to mechanization and government policy discouraging land use. At the same time, the war effort caused an industrial boom in the western and northern cities of the country. There was a massive need for additional labor in shipyards and aircraft plants , and, like in the First World War, a great shortage of workers. Seeing this opportunity, African Americans left the South in huge numbers. In the s alone, 1. In total, over three and a half million people migrated from to The historian James N. Gregory writes of the the incredible influence of the second phase of the Great Migration: This began with the first era of migration, but the most dramatic changes occurred as a result of the second phaseâ€¦ This next table shows the change in population for the twenty cities that had the largest African American populations in , and the state from which that city had the most migrants. Census The African American populations of the Northeast and Midwest continued to grow at a rapid pace, but it was the African American migration West that distinguishes the second phase. The African American population in San Francisco grew six times larger just from to due, in large part, to men coming to work on the naval shipyards. African Americans who moved as part of the Great Migration continued to face discrimination. The migrants of the second wave of the Great Migration still encountered a world of persecution. Although the shipbuilding industry on the West coast provided relatively better economic opportunities than the Jim Crow South, blacks were still forced to adhere to a subservient role in society. They still had to confront the realities of being black. They were racially discriminated against within the workplace and in their communities. Within the shipyards blacks were confined to menial, unskilled positions. Blacks were forced to settle into segregated neighborhoods in the East Bay. Redlining and restrictive covenants kept blacks in the older and most deteriorated sections of the East Bay. Generally, the geographic patterns of the second wave were similar to the first. The impetus to move had lessened. The economies of the North and West had slowed, and through years of struggle African Americans in the South had gained greater equality. And at about that time, the economy of the South improved, with a pace of growth equal or greater than other regions of the country. In fact, almost immediately after the Great Migration ended, a reverse migration back to the South began. Research by Brookings Institution demographer William Frey shows that, since , more African Americans have moved to the South than any other region. African Americans moving to the South during this period have been particularly attracted to large metropolitan areas, with Atlanta and Houston seeing particularly large gains. College educated African Americans are among the most likely to head South from the Northeast and Midwest. Its imprint is everywhere in urban life. The configuration of the cities as we know them, the social geography of the black and white neighborhoods, the spread of the housing project as well as the rise of a well-scrubbed black middle class, along with the alternating waves of white flight and suburbanization all of these grew, directly or indirectly, from the response of everyone touched by the Great Migration. If millions of African Americans had not migrated from the South to northern cities, the modern United States would look completely different. Contemporary American life is, in many ways, a ramification of this far-reaching, but underreported, historical event. For our

next post, we explore the data behind 48 selfie-induced deaths.

**Chapter 4 : The Bering Land Bridge Theory - Bering Land Bridge National Preserve (U.S. National Park Service)**

*"The Great Migration" from the film The Land Before Time () composed by James Horner, slowed %. R.I.P. James Horner 8/14/ - 6/22/ Music and image copyrighted by Universal Pictures.*

This largest forced migration in human history relocated some 50 ethnic and linguistic groups. Only a small portion of the enslaved - less than half a million - were sent to North America. The majority went to South America and the Caribbean. European vessels took goods to Africa, where they were exchanged for slaves. The ships then sailed to the Americas to trade slaves for agricultural products - extracted by slave labor - which were sold in Europe after the return journey. The Middle Passage The journey between Africa and the Americas, "The Middle Passage," could take four to six weeks, but the average lasted between two and three months. Chained and crowded with no room to move, Africans were forced to make the journey under terrible conditions, naked and lying in filth. The abhorrent conditions of captivity resulted in the deaths of an estimated 1. Nearly a quarter of the Africans brought to North America came from Angola, while an equal percentage, arriving later, originated in Senegambia. Over 40 percent of Africans entered the U. To antagonize the British both militarily and economically, Spain welcomed slaves from the British territory, declared them free and set up the first free, all black settlement, Fort Mose, north of St. Successful escapes were rare. By the country had 3. Forced migration and the separation of families happened within America, just as it did between Africa and the New World. The burgeoning agricultural economy not only created an enormous new region for slavery in the Lower South, it turned the Upper South into slave-exporting states, where families and individuals were at constant risk of being sold away from whatever stable base they had. Families that had been intact for generations along the Atlantic coast were forever separated. Escaped slaves made their way to Canada, Mexico and areas of the United States where they could live free. Not run by any one person or organization, the Underground Railroad was a large network of safe houses and routes that escaped slaves used to travel to the North, often covering 10 to 20 miles each day. Harriet Tubman, who escaped from slavery in , is famous for her work as one of the many "conductors" on the Underground Railroad. She journeyed often into the South to help slaves find their way. When slavery was abolished at the end of the Civil War in , the greatest increases in the black population of northern cities were in Cleveland, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. In , free blacks numbered ,, about 10 percent of the entire black population. Of those, , lived in the North and , in the South. Early Westward Migration Between and , 4, blacks settled in California. Half chose San Francisco and Sacramento, creating the first English-speaking, black urban communities in the far West. The closest western state to the Old South that allowed blacks to homestead in the s was Kansas. Between and , some 30, blacks settled there. In Oklahoma, by African American farmers owned 1. The first African Americans in California had arrived much earlier, from Mexico. In , African Americans comprised a majority of the 44 founders of Los Angeles. They were joined by more blacks from Mexico when slavery ended there in Many scholars consider it as two waves, between and , and from to Between and alone, , African Americans migrated north. In the summer of , the Pennsylvania Railroad helped more than 10, African Americans move in order to employ them. A Population Shift The growing population of African Americans in more northern urban areas created strong and distinct communities that supported everything from black-owned businesses, hospitals, and institutions to major cultural developments. Johnson, and activists Marcus Garvey and A. Philip Randolph gained recognition and fame. The Urban South Blacks moved to southern metropolitan areas, too. In the s, cities like Atlanta, Birmingham, Houston, and Memphis experienced black population growth rates ranging from 41 to 86 percent. Oklahoma lost 23, African Americans, 14 percent of its black population, while the state of California gained , By that number had increased to over , It was already in the late s that the number of African Americans moving to the South eclipsed the number leaving. Since then, black migration to the South has continued to grow. The two biggest reasons for this trend have been familial ties and economic betterment. African Americans who have made this return - the vast majority of them have never lived in the South - have returned to areas where their families had been based. While northern cities have seen a decrease in manufacturing, industry and jobs are growing in the South and

West. Cheap labor, tax breaks, and inexpensive land have generated more industrial jobs in the regions and have brought other economic opportunities with them. A lower cost of living has added reason to make the geographical move. A significant new migration movement is that of immigrants from Africa and the Caribbean. African immigrants are more widely settled. The African-American journey begins again.

**Chapter 5 : Great Migration - HISTORY**

*2 verb When birds, fish, or animals migrate, they move at a particular season from one part of the world or from one part of a country to another, usually in order to breed or to find new feeding grounds.*

History of immigration to Canada and History of Canadian nationality law A collection of four maps showing the distribution of the Canadian population for Newfoundland , Newfoundland , and by historical region. Come to Stay, printed in in the Canadian Illustrated News , which refers to immigration to the " Dominion ". After the initial period of British and French colonization , four major waves or peaks of immigration and settlement of non-aboriginal peoples took place over a period of almost two centuries. The fifth wave is currently occurring. First wave[ edit ] The first wave of significant, non-aboriginal immigration to Canada occurred over almost two centuries with slow but progressive French settlement of Quebec and Acadia with smaller numbers of American and European entrepreneurs in addition to British military personnel. Some of these later made their way to Ontario. A second wave of 30, Americans settled in Ontario and the Eastern Townships between the late s and with promises of land. Some several thousands of Gaelic-speaking Scottish Highlanders from forced land clearances in Scotland migrated to Cape Breton , Nova Scotia and parts of Eastern Ontario during this period. It marked a new age for Canada and its people. Second wave[ edit ] The second wave, mainly consisting of British and Irish immigrants or the Great Migration , encouraged immigrants to settle in Canada after the War of , and included British army regulars who had served in that war. The colonial governors of Canada, who were worried about another American invasion attempt and to counter the French-speaking influence of Quebec, rushed to promote settlement in back country areas along newly constructed plank roads within organized land tracts, mostly in Upper Canada present-day Ontario , much of the settlements were organized by large companies to promote clearing, and thus farming of land lots. The French-speaking population was roughly , in and had increased to approx. Demographically it had swung to a majority English-speaking country. The Dominion Lands Act of copied the American system by offering ownership of acres of land free except for a small registration fee to any man over 18 or any woman heading a household. They did not need to be citizens, but had to live on the plot and improve it. Also during this period, Canada became a port of entry for many Europeans seeking to gain entry into the U. Canadian transportation companies advertised Canadian ports as a hassle-free way to enter the U. If found, the transporting companies were responsible for shipping the persons back. He removed obstacles that included control of the lands by companies or organizations that did little to encourage settlement. The railways kept closed even larger tracts because they were reluctant to take legal title to the even-numbered lands they were due, thus blocking sale of odd-numbered tracts. Sifton broke the legal log jam, and set up aggressive advertising campaigns in the U. He also brokered deals with ethnic groups that wanted large tracts for homogeneous settlement. His goal was to maximize immigration from Britain, eastern Canada and the U. The fourth wave came from Europe after the Second World War, peaking at , in Many were from Italy and Portugal. Pier 21 in Halifax, Nova Scotia was an influential port for European immigration; Pier 21 received , Italians between until it ceased operations in , making Italians the third largest ethnic group to immigrate to Canada during that time period. For example, Ukrainian Canadians accounted for the largest Ukrainian population outside Ukraine and Russia. The Church of England took up the role of introducing British values to farmers newly arrived on the prairies. In practice, they clung to their traditional religious affiliations. Canadianization was a high priority for new arrivals lacking a British cultural background. In terms of economic opportunity, Canada was most attractive to farmers headed to the Prairies, who typically came from eastern and central Europe. Immigrants from Britain preferred urban life. This was largely influenced in when the Immigration Act was revised and this continued to be official government policy. During the Mulroney government, immigration levels were increased. By the late s, the fifth wave of immigration has maintained with slight fluctuations since , annually. Currently, most immigrants come from South Asia, China and Caribbean and this trend is expected to continue.

**Chapter 6 : The Land Before Time X: The Great Longneck Migration (Video ) - IMDb**

*Specifically, it seeks to protect and assist vulnerable migrants and to advance effective and humane international migration policies by origin, transit, and destination countries in order to promote safe, orderly, and regular migration.*

Evidence for competing theories continues to change the ways we understand our prehistoric roots. While evidence of animal migration is more solidified, the human story may be more complicated. As of now, genetic findings suggest that a single population of modern humans migrated from southern Siberia toward the land mass known as the Bering Land Bridge as early as 30,000 years ago, and crossed over to the Americas by 16,000 years ago. Archaeological evidence shows that by 15,000 years ago, humans had made it south of the Canadian ice sheets. While this may represent the earliest migration, it was not the only one. Once the first humans made it over, it appears that multiple migrations took place over the next several millennia, not only across the ice-free corridor, but also along the coast by boat. Evidence is still sparse and often conflicting however, some theories of the "first Americans" are still largely inconclusive. How we know what we know From to the 1980s, it was thought the first human migration to the Americas actually took place around 13,000 years ago, based on spear points discovered near Clovis, New Mexico. You may have heard of this referred to as the "Clovis-First Model. With these new ideas, the question regarding the story of the first Americans needed to be asked again: It began in 1998 with the discovery of an archaeological site in Monte Verde, Chile, dating back to 14,500 years ago - a full millennium older than what was previously thought to be the first people in the new world, and indicating they settled much further south than expected. Although there was strong debate regarding the dating of the Monte Verde findings, it brought up an interesting question: Though the evidence for this theory is minimal, proponents argue that the artifacts were developed by an earlier and still more ancient European group, known as the Solutrean culture. This style bears an uncanny resemblance to that of the Clovis tools found in the United States, which could suggest that humans may have entered America from the east over a route that has been dubbed the Atlantic Maritime route. A somewhat more widely accepted maritime theory looks to modern cultural anthropology and linguistics, claiming a striking resemblance between the cultures of Australia, Southeast Asia, and South America. Support for this idea is found partially in the discovery of a 9,000 year old skeleton in Washington State. Dubbed the "Kennewick Man," the skeleton bears a strong physical resemblance to the Japanese Ainu people, suggesting that a pan-Pacific journey via boat might have brought the first Americans to our shores. Most Recent Findings As research and dating methods improve, more credible conclusions can be derived from the evidence we now have. Sites all around the country, including the Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, Page-Ladsen flake tools in Florida, and coprolites from Paisley Cave in Oregon now provide more promising indications that the earliest Americans dispersed throughout the continent at least 14,000 years ago. Currently, the oldest claim for human settlement in the Americas lies at the Topper Site in South Carolina, dating back to about 15,000 years ago, but research continues to try to uncover how people got there and from where they came. The most important thing to realize is that even the most current and modern theories we have are entirely speculative and continually evolving. Discontinuity in sparse evidence, combined with weaknesses in dating methods, discrepancies in artifacts and genetics, and our own subjective interpretations provide endless hurdles to overcome. Because of these challenges however, the study of the first Americans offers unparalleled opportunities to pioneer new discoveries in a still largely-uncharted realm of our past. The theory of the first Americans crossing over the Bering Land Bridge remains viable, thus we continue to celebrate our distant past in the ways we protect and utilize our enduring resources.

*History of the Bering Land Bridge Theory Map of eastern Russian and Alaska with a light brown border depicting Beringia. The continent of North America has been inhabited by humans for at least 16, years.*

The environment during the latest Pleistocene[ edit ] For an introduction to the radiocarbon dating techniques used by archaeologists and geologists, see radiocarbon dating. Emergence and submergence of Beringia[ edit ] Figure 1. As water accumulated in glaciers, the volume of water in the oceans correspondingly decreased, resulting in lowering of global sea level. The variation of sea level over time has been reconstructed using oxygen isotope analysis of deep sea cores, the dating of marine terraces, and high resolution oxygen isotope sampling from ocean basins and modern ice caps. Estimates of the final re-submergence of the Beringian land bridge based purely on present bathymetry of the Bering Strait and eustatic sea level curve place the event around 11, years BP Figure 1. Ongoing research reconstructing Beringian paleogeography during deglaciation could change that estimate and possible earlier submergence could further constrain models of human migration into North America. By 21, years BP, and possibly thousands of years earlier, the Cordilleran and Laurentide ice sheets coalesced east of the Rocky Mountains, closing off a potential migration route into the center of North America. Coastal alpine glaciers and lobes of Cordilleran ice coalesced into piedmont glaciers that covered large stretches of the coastline as far south as Vancouver Island and formed an ice lobe across the Straits of Juan de Fuca by 15, 14C years BP 18, cal years BP. Diverse, though not necessarily plentiful, megafaunas were present in those environments. Herb tundra dominated during the LGM, due to cold and dry conditions. The lowered sea level, and an isostatic bulge equilibrated with the depression beneath the Cordilleran Ice Sheet, exposed the continental shelf to form a coastal plain. The retreat was accelerated as sea levels rose and floated glacial termini. Estimates of a fully ice-free coast range between 16k [21] and 15k [13] cal years BP. Littoral marine organisms colonized shorelines as ocean water replaced glacial meltwater. Eustatic sea level rise caused flooding, which accelerated as the rate grew more rapid. Opening of an ice-free corridor did not occur until after 13k to 12k cal years BP. There remain uncertainties regarding the precise dating of individual sites and regarding conclusions drawn from population genetics studies of contemporary Native Americans. It is also an open question whether this post-LGM migration represented the first peopling of the Americas, or whether there had been an earlier, pre-LGM migration which had reached South America as early as 40, years ago. Chronology[ edit ] In the early 21st century, the models of the chronology of migration are divided into two general approaches. The oldest of these is a site in Texas, 40 miles northwest of Austin, which dates to 15, years ago. Schematic illustration of maternal mtDNA gene-flow in and out of Beringia long chronology, single source model. Map of Beringia showing the exposed seafloor and glaciation at 40 kya and 16 kya. The green arrow indicates the "interior migration" model along an ice-free corridor separating the major continental ice sheets, the red arrow indicates the " coastal migration " model, both leading to a "rapid colonization" of the Americas after c. A study dated evidence for the controlled use of fire to before 40 kya. This interpretation was challenged in a review which concluded the features in question could also have arisen by genetic drift. Stones described as probable tools, hammerstones and anvils , have been found in southern California, at the Cerutti Mastodon site , that are associated with a mastodon skeleton which appeared to have been processed by humans. However, archaeosites that date closer to the Last Glacial Maximum on either the Siberian or the Alaskan side of Beringia are lacking. Genomic age estimates[ edit ] Further information: Genetic history of indigenous peoples of the Americas Studies of Amerindian genetics have used high resolution analytical techniques applied to DNA samples from modern Native Americans and Asian populations regarded as their source populations to reconstruct the development of human Y-chromosome DNA haplogroups yDNA haplogroups and human mitochondrial DNA haplogroups mtDNA haplogroups characteristic of Native American populations. One model Tammetal based on Native American mtDNA Haplotypes Figure 2 proposes that migration into Beringia occurred between 30k and 25k cal years BP, with migration into the Americas occurring around 10k to 15k years after isolation of the small founding population. The development of high-resolution genomic analysis has provided opportunities to further define

Native American subclades and narrow the range of Asian subclades that may be parent or sister subclades. For example, the broad geographic range of Haplogroup X has been interpreted as allowing the possibility of a western Eurasian, or even a European source population for Native Americans, as in the Solutrean hypothesis, or suggesting a pre-Last Glacial Maximum migration into the Americas. Subhaplogroups D1 and D4h3 have been regarded as Native American specific based on their absence among a large sampling of populations regarded as potential descendants of source populations, over a wide area of Asia. Its parent lineage, Subhaplotype D4h, is believed to have emerged in east Asia, rather than Siberia, around 20k cal years BP. The descendants of source populations with the closest relationship to the genetic profile from the time when differentiation occurred are not obvious. Source population models can be expected to become more robust as more results are compiled, the heritage of modern proxy candidates becomes better understood, and fossil DNA in the regions of interest is found and considered. A report published in the American Journal of Physical Anthropology in January reviewed craniofacial variation focussing on differences between early and late Native Americans and explanations for these based on either skull morphology or molecular genetics. Arguments based on molecular genetics have in the main, according to the authors, accepted a single migration from Asia with a probable pause in Beringia, plus later bi-directional gene flow. Studies focussing on craniofacial morphology have argued that Paleoamerican remains have "been described as much closer to African and Australo-Melanesians populations than to the modern series of Native Americans", suggesting two entries into the Americas, an early one occurring before a distinctive East Asian morphology developed referred to in the paper as the "Two Components Model". A third model, the "Recurrent Gene Flow" [RGF] model, attempts to reconcile the two, arguing that circumarctic gene flow after the initial migration could account for morphological changes. It specifically re-evaluates the original report on the Hoya Negro skeleton which supported the RGF model, the authors disagreed with the original conclusion which suggested that the skull shape did not match those of modern Native Americans, arguing that the "skull falls into a subregion of the morphospace occupied by both Paleoamericans and some modern Native Americans. They have a distribution ranging from coastal east Asia to the Pacific coast of South America. Also indicated are the locations of the Clovis and Folsom Paleo-Indian sites. Historically, theories about migration into the Americas have centered on migration from Beringia through the interior of North America. The discovery of artifacts in association with Pleistocene faunal remains near Clovis, New Mexico in the early 1930s required extension of the timeframe for the settlement of North America to the period during which glaciers were still extensive. That led to the hypothesis of a migration route between the Laurentide and Cordilleran ice sheets to explain the early settlement. The Clovis site was host to a lithic technology characterized by spear points with an indentation, or flute, where the point was attached to the shaft. A lithic complex characterized by the Clovis Point technology was subsequently identified over much of North America and in South America. The association of Clovis complex technology with late Pleistocene faunal remains led to the theory that it marked the arrival of big game hunters that migrated out of Beringia then dispersed throughout the Americas, otherwise known as the Clovis First theory. Recent radiocarbon dating of Clovis sites has yielded ages of Numerical dating of Clovis sites has allowed comparison of Clovis dates with dates of other archaeological sites throughout the Americas, and of the opening of the ice-free corridor. Both lead to significant challenges to the Clovis First theory. The Monte Verde site of Southern Chile has been dated at Pre-LGM closing of the corridor may approach 30k cal years BP and estimates of ice retreat from the corridor are in the range of 12 to 13k cal years BP. The interior route is consistent with the spread of the Na Dene language group and Subhaplogroup X2a into the Americas after the earliest paleoamerican migration. Coastal migration Americas Pacific models propose that people first reached the Americas via water travel, following coastlines from northeast Asia into the Americas. Coastlines are unusually productive environments because they provide humans with access to a diverse array of plants and animals from both terrestrial and marine ecosystems. Two cultural components were discovered at Monte Verde near the Pacific coast of Chile. The older and more controversial component may date back as far as 33,000 years, but few scholars currently accept this very early component. A recent variation of the coastal migration hypothesis is the marine migration hypothesis, which proposes that migrants with boats settled in coastal refugia during deglaciation of the coast. A coastal east

Asian source population is integral to the marine migration hypothesis. The data indicate that Anzick-1 is from a population directly ancestral to present South American and Central American Native American populations. Anzick-1 is less closely related to present North American Native American populations. D4h3a has been identified as a clade associated with coastal migration. Certain types of evidence dependent on organic material, such as radiocarbon dating, may be destroyed by submergence. Wave action can destroy site structures and scatter artifacts along a prograding shoreline. Additionally, Pacific coastal conditions tend to be unstable due to steep unstable terrain, earthquakes, tsunamis, and volcanoes. Strategies for finding earliest migration sites include identifying potential sites on submerged paleoshorelines, seeking sites in areas uplifted either by tectonics or isostatic rebound, and looking for riverine sites in areas that may have attracted coastal migrants. In a article in the Journal of Island and Coastal Archaeology, Erlandson and his colleagues proposed a corollary to the coastal migration theory—the "kelp highway hypothesis"—arguing that productive kelp forests supporting similar suites of plants and animals would have existed near the end of the Pleistocene around much of the Pacific Rim from Japan to Beringia, the Pacific Northwest, and California, as well as the Andean Coast of South America. Once the coastlines of Alaska and British Columbia had deglaciated about 16, years ago, these kelp forest along with estuarine, mangrove, and coral reef habitats would have provided an ecologically similar migration corridor, entirely at sea level, and essentially unobstructed. A DNA analysis of plants and animals suggest a coastal route was feasible. Paleoindians of the coast[ edit ] See also: Genetic studies of Austronesian peoples and Migration and dispersion of Austronesian peoples to the Americas supported by coconut and sweet potato population genetics The boat-builders from Southeast Asia Austronesian peoples may have been one of the earliest groups to reach the shores of North America. The Haida nation on the Queen Charlotte Islands off the coast of British Columbia may have originated from these early Asian mariners between 25, and 12, years ago. Early watercraft migration would also explain the habitation of coastal sites in South America such as Pikimachay Cave in Peru by 20, years ago disputed and Monte Verde in Chile by 13, years ago [6 30; 8 ]. Migrants, he said, could have then skirted the tidewater glaciers in Canada right on down the coast. Finding sites associated with early coastal migrations is extremely difficult—and systematic excavation of any sites found in deeper waters is challenging and expensive. On the other hand, there is evidence of marine technologies found in the hills of the Channel Islands of California , circa 10, BCE. Another problem that arises is the lack of hard evidence found for a "long chronology" theory. Y-DNA among South American and Alaskan natives[ edit ] The micro-satellite diversity and distribution of a Y lineage specific to South America suggest that certain Amerindian populations became isolated after the initial colonization of their regions.

*The first settlement of the Americas began when Paleolithic hunter-gatherers first entered North America from the North Asian Mammoth steppe via the Beringia land bridge, which had formed between northeastern Siberia and western Alaska due to the lowering of sea level during the Last Glacial Maximum.*

Visit Website Did you know? Around 1915, when the Great Migration began, a factory wage in the urban North was typically three times more than what blacks could expect to make working the land in the rural South. With war production kicking into high gear, recruiters enticed African Americans to come north, to the dismay of white Southerners. Black newspapers—particularly the widely read *Chicago Defender*—published advertisements touting the opportunities available in the cities of the North and West, along with first-person accounts of success. Life for Migrants in the City By the end of 1915, some 1 million blacks had left the South, usually traveling by train, boat or bus; a smaller number had automobiles or even horse-drawn carts. In the decade between 1915 and 1925, the black population of major Northern cities grew by large percentages, including New York 66 percent, Chicago 40 percent, Philadelphia 30 percent and Detroit 20 percent. Many new arrivals found jobs in factories, slaughterhouses and foundries, where working conditions were arduous and sometimes dangerous. Female migrants had a harder time finding work, spurring heated competition for domestic labor positions. Aside from competition for employment, there was also competition for living space in increasingly crowded cities. While segregation was not legalized in the North as it was in the South, racism and prejudice were nonetheless widespread. Supreme Court declared racially based housing ordinances unconstitutional in 1917, some residential neighborhoods enacted covenants requiring white property owners to agree not to sell to blacks; these would remain legal until the Court struck them down in 1948. Rising rents in segregated areas, plus a resurgence of KKK activity after 1915, worsened black and white relations across the country. The summer of 1919 began the greatest period of interracial strife in U.S. history. The most serious was the Chicago Race Riot of 1919; it lasted 13 days and left 38 people dead, injured and 1,000 black families without homes. Impact of the Great Migration As a result of housing tensions, many blacks ended up creating their own cities within big cities, fostering the growth of a new urban, African-American culture. The most prominent example was Harlem in New York City, a formerly all-white neighborhood that by the 1920s housed some 300,000 African Americans. The black experience during the Great Migration became an important theme in the artistic movement known first as the New Negro Movement and later as the Harlem Renaissance, which would have an enormous impact on the culture of the era. The Great Migration also began a new era of increasing political activism among African Americans, who after being disenfranchised in the South found a new place for themselves in public life in the cities of the North and West. Black migration slowed considerably in the 1930s, when the country sank into the Great Depression, but picked up again with the coming of World War II. By 1970, when the Great Migration ended, its demographic impact was unmistakable:

**Chapter 9 : Other Migration Theories - Bering Land Bridge National Preserve (U.S. National Park Service)**

*A Plot of Land: Hope Restoration in Agadez Mohamed, Issouf, Moussa, and Aghali are members of communities that are affected by migration flows in Niger. A community stabilization project recently.*

The continent of North America has been inhabited by humans for at least 16,000 years. As early as the 1500s, early settlers and European thinkers were interested in discovering how humans had come to populate North and South America. One theory suggested the migration of Norsemen across Greenland into North America. Another theory proposed the island of Atlantis as the origins of human life in the New World. Yet another idea proposed that the inhabitants had generated out of mud. However, by the early 1800s scientists and theorists began discussing the possibility of a land bridge that had spanned between Asia and North America thousands of years ago. The theory of a land bridge has fueled the imagination of explorers and scientists for centuries. The question of how people migrated to the New World was a topic widely debated among the thinkers and theorists of his time. Acosta rejected many of the theories proposed by his contemporaries. Instead, he believed that hunters from Asia had crossed into North America via a land bridge or narrow strait located far to the north. He thought the land bridge was still in existence during his lifetime. The Bering and Cook Expeditions During the eighteenth century, Peter the Great, the Russian Czar from 1725 to 1727, chartered an exploration of the eastern borders of the Russian Empire. Before the expedition, maps of Siberia sometimes contained a large landmass across the water from the Chukchi Peninsula; however no definite account of travel through the strait had been recorded by the early seventeenth hundreds. The two voyages of Bering, the first in 1741 and the second in 1742, confirmed what many people living on the Chukchi Peninsula already knew. That there was land and even people across the water; people who had been trading and traveling across the Bering Strait for thousands of years. The second explorer to confirm the existence of present day Alaska was the Englishman, Captain James Cook. On his expedition he produced detailed maps of the Alaskan coast. The results of his exploration helped enlighten the outside world about the Bering Strait region. The Land Bridge Theory The confirmation of a strait between Asia and North America fueled an interest in the possibility of a wide plain that might have connected the two continents. Beginning in the early 1800s, American scientists and naturalists started investigating archeological sites on the east coast of the United States, slowly working their way towards the west coast. However, from where and how had yet to be discovered. From about 1800 to 1850, research, discussion, and inquiry about the peopling of North America stalled because of inconclusive data. Hopkins studied geology at the University of New Hampshire before accepting a position with the U. Geological Society in 1850. His first trip to Alaska planted a seed of fascination for the wild and beautiful landscape of the area. During his lifetime, Hopkins spent many of his summers on the Seward Peninsula often researching geology in the area that later became the preserve. He made several key contributions to the study of Beringia ; he helped publish two books that contained papers written by researchers from a wide range of backgrounds and collaborated with many scientists and researchers to make groundbreaking discoveries about the Bering Land Bridge. For years, scientists speculated about the different types of vegetation that might have been found on the land bridge. Some scientists believed the land bridge contained uniformed vegetation similar to the current arctic plain vegetation. Hopkins and several other scientists were convinced the land bridge had supported a more diverse vegetation, with plants growing in response to elevation variations and the amount of surface water. Hopkins worked with Mary Edwards, Claudia Hofle, and Victoria Goetcheus Wolf, to confirm the age of plants frozen in a layer of ash from an eruption at Devil Mountain 18,000 years ago. The age of the plant matter found in the ash coincided with the last proposed opening of the land bridge. The ash covered a wide area of what would have been the middle of the land bridge north to south 18,000 years ago. The findings from their collaboration helped to confirm that the type of vegetation on the land bridge had been more diverse than originally thought. Hopkins had a special ability to forge connections between scientists and researchers from many backgrounds. He linked research conducted by people across many different disciplines to strengthen the concept of the Bering Land Bridge Theory. Hopkins reached out to scientists and researchers studying the Chukotka Peninsula and brought their work to the attention of researchers and scientists studying

the Seward Peninsula. He recognized the need for interdisciplinary study to understand the whole picture of Beringia.