Foundations of Liberty

Beginnings–1848

Why It Matters

The interactions among Native Americans, Europeans, and Africans reshaped the history of the Americas. Although several European countries established American colonies, it was the English who grew to dominate the American Atlantic coastline. As England’s position in America grew more secure, however, the British colonists challenged the authority of the distant English government. Discontent grew to rebellion, and the United States of America emerged from the Revolutionary War with a new form of government. Understanding the events of America’s early national period will help you understand our government’s design and our nation’s ideals. The following resources offer more information about this period in American history.

Primary Sources Library

See pages 930–931 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 1.

Use the American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM to find additional primary sources about events in early America.

Pre-Cherokee necklace, c. 1300

Washington’s Inauguration at Independence Hall by Jean Leon Gérôme Ferris, 1793
“The country shall be independent, and we will be satisfied with nothing short of it.”

—Samuel Adams, 1774
Converging Cultures
Prehistory to 1620

Why It Matters
Before 1492 the cultures that arose in the Americas had almost no contact with the rest of the world. Beginning in the 1300s, momentous events began taking place that would bring the cultures of Europe and Africa into direct contact with the Americas. This contact led to the founding of European colonies in both North and South America and had profound effects on the future of the world’s civilizations.

The Impact Today
The convergence of the world’s cultures in the 1400s and 1500s launched an era of change that still affects our lives today.
• Many of our foods, customs, and traditions were originally introduced in the Americas as a result of this cultural contact.
• Contact among the cultures of the three continents profoundly changed the society of each.
• The society of the United States today includes elements of Native American, European, and African cultures.

The American Republic Since 1877 Video
The Chapter 1 video, “America Before the Americans,” examines the early Americas.
The Landing of Columbus in San Salvador by Albert Bierstadt, 1893

1492 • Christopher Columbus lands in America

1519 • Cortés lands on Mexican coast

1532 • Pizarro invades Inca Empire

1608 • City of Quebec founded

c. 1130 • Drought strikes Native American cliff dwellings at Chaco Canyon

1095 • Pope Urban II launches the Crusades

1240 • Mali empire expands in West Africa

1420s • Portugal begins exploring the African coast

1517 • Protestant Reformation begins

1588 • English defeat Spanish Armada

1240

Visit the American Republic Since 1877 Web site at tarvol2.glencoe.com and click on Chapter Overviews—Chapter 1 to preview chapter information.
In 1925 an African American cowboy named George McJunkin was riding along a gully near the town of Folsom, New Mexico, when he noticed something gleaming in the dirt. He began digging and found a bone and a flint arrowhead. J.D. Figgins of the Colorado Museum of Natural History knew the bone belonged to a type of bison that had been extinct for 10,000 years. The arrowhead’s proximity to the bones implied that human beings had been in America at least 10,000 years, which no one had believed at that time.

The following year, Figgins found another arrowhead embedded in similar bones. In 1927 he led a group of scientists to the find. Anthropologist Frank H.H. Roberts, Jr., wrote, “There was no question but that here was the evidence. . . . The point was still embedded . . . between two of the ribs of the animal skeleton.” Further digs turned up more arrowheads, now called Folsom points. Roberts later noted: “The Folsom find was accepted as a reliable indication that man was present in the Southwest at an earlier period than was previously supposed.”

—adapted from *The First American: A Story of North American Archaeology*

### The Asian Migration to America

No one knows exactly when the first people arrived in America. The Folsom discoveries proved that people were here at least 10,000 years ago, but more recent research suggests that humans may have arrived much earlier—between 15,000 and 30,000 years ago.
To learn the origins of ancient peoples, scientists study their skulls, bones, and teeth and analyze their DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid, the basic chemical building material of all life). Such evidence indicates that the earliest Americans probably came from Asia. Radiocarbon dating provides even more information. By measuring the radioactivity of the carbon 14 molecules left in ancient material and knowing how fast carbon 14 loses its radioactivity, scientists can calculate the age of the material.

Geology offers other clues. About 100,000 years ago, the earth began to cool, gradually entering the period known as the Ice Age. Much of the earth’s water froze into huge ice sheets, or glaciers. The dropping water levels in the oceans eventually exposed a stretch of seafloor that connected Asia to what is now Alaska. Scientists think that about 15,000 years ago, or even earlier, people from Asia began trekking east across this land bridge to America. These early arrivals were probably nomads, people who continually move from place to place. These early peoples did not come all at once. Their migrations probably continued until about 10,000 years ago, when rising seawater once again submerged the land bridge. This created a waterway now called the Bering Strait.

Explaining How do scientists learn the origins of ancient peoples?

Early Civilizations in America

As time passed, Native Americans learned how to plant and raise crops. This agricultural revolution occurred between 9,000 and 10,000 years ago in the region anthropologists call Mesoamerica. This area includes what is now central and southern Mexico and Central America.

The first crops grown in America included pumpkins, peppers, squash, and beans. Most important was maize, or corn, which could be ground into flour for bread or dried for future use. The shift to agriculture forced people to stay in one place to tend their crops. Thus, the cultivation of crops led to the first permanent villages and also to new building methods.

As more and more people began to live in one place, more complex forms of government arose, as did social classes. People developed specialized skills and traded their products for food and other goods.

As these village societies became more complex, America’s first civilizations emerged. A civilization is a highly organized society marked by advanced knowledge of trade, government, the arts, science, and, often, written language.

Mesoamerica Anthropologists think the first people to build a civilization in America were the Olmec, beginning between 1500 and 1200 B.C. in what is today southern Mexico. The Olmec built large villages, temple complexes, and pyramids. They also sculpted imposing monuments, including 8-foot-high stone heads. Olmec culture lasted until approximately 300 B.C.

About that same time, another people constructed the first large city in America, Teotihuacán, close to what is now Mexico City. Teotihuacán became a center of trade and greatly influenced the development of Mesoamerica until about A.D. 650, when enemies destroyed the city.

Meanwhile, around A.D. 200, the Mayan culture emerged in present-day Mexico’s Yucatán Peninsula and spread into Central America. The Maya had a talent for engineering and mathematics. They developed accurate calendars and built cities such as Tikal and Chichén Itzá with great temple pyramids.

The Maya in the Yucatán thrived until the A.D. 900s, when they abandoned their cities for unknown reasons. Some anthropologists believe they fled from northern invaders. Others think overfarming may have exhausted the soil, leading to famine and riots. Mayan cities in the highlands of what is today Guatemala flourished for several more centuries, but by the 1500s, they too were in decline.

Reading Check Early Civilizations in America

Why did many nomadic peoples stop wandering and settle down to create permanent civilizations?
Around that time in what is now central Mexico, the Aztec civilization emerged. About 1325 the Aztec established the city of Tenochtitlán (tay·NAWCH·teet·LAHN), where Mexico City now stands. They created a mighty empire by conquering neighboring cities, demanding tribute from them, and controlling trade in the region. By the 1500s, roughly five million people lived under Aztec rule.

Many anthropologists think that the agricultural technology of Mesoamerica spread north into the American Southwest and beyond.

There it transformed many of the scattered hunter-gatherers of North America into farmers.

### The American Southwest

Beginning about A.D. 300, a group called the Hohokam began farming in what is now south-central Arizona. They devised irrigation canals to bring water from the Gila and Salt Rivers to their corn, cotton, and bean fields hundreds of miles away. In the 1300s, the Hohokam began to abandon their lands, probably because of floods, and by 1500 their culture had vanished.
Farther north, in the Four Corners area where Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico now meet, the Anasazi civilization arose between roughly A.D. 700 and 900. The Anasazi farmed in the harsh desert by building basins and ditches to collect rainwater. Sometime between 850 and 1100, the Anasazi in Chaco Canyon in what is now northwest New Mexico began constructing pueblos—large multi-story buildings of adobe and stone. Beginning around 1130, Chaco Canyon suffered at least 50 years of drought, probably driving out the Anasazi. Attacks by hunter-gatherers or epidemics may also have contributed to the collapse of Anasazi civilization.

Mound Builders About the time that the Olmec civilization began in Mesoamerica, the people in North America’s eastern woodlands were developing their own cultures. These people buried their dead under massive dome-shaped earthen mounds. Between 200 and 100 B.C., a new culture known as the Hopewell arose. The Hopewell built huge geometric earthworks that served as ceremonial centers, observatories, and burial places.

Between A.D. 700 and 900, another new culture emerged, this time in the Mississippi River valley. The Mississippian people created Cahokia, one of the largest cities early Americans ever built. Located near present-day St. Louis, Cahokia was home to an estimated 16,000 people at its peak. The city collapsed around A.D. 1300, perhaps because of an epidemic, an attack by other Native Americans, or overpopulation and famine.

Native American Cultural Diversity Mississippian culture spread widely across the Southeast, but after its decline, the Native Americans there were fragmented into many smaller groups. That had long been the case elsewhere in North America.

The Far North Two different groups made the Far North their home. The Inuit inhabited the lands from what is now Alaska to Greenland; the Aleut settled present-day Alaska’s Aleutian Islands. Both groups hunted seals, walruses, whales, polar bears, and caribou. They invented ingenious devices to cope with the harsh environment, including the harpoon, kayak, and dogsled. They also were the only Native Americans to develop lamps, using whale oil and blubber for fuel.

The Pacific Many groups of fishing peoples, including the Kwakiutls and Chinook, lived along the Pacific Coast from what is now southeastern Alaska to Washington state. Although not farmers, they made permanent settlements because the coastal waters and nearby rivers teemed with salmon and other fish.

Farther inland, between the Cascade Range and the Rocky Mountains, the Nez Perce, Yakima, and other groups fished, hunted deer, and gathered roots and berries. To the south, the Ute and Shoshone roamed the dry terrain between the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains. In what is now central California, groups such as the Pomo enjoyed abundant wildlife and a mild climate.

The Southwest The Zuni, Hopi, and other Pueblo peoples of the Southwest were descendants of the Anasazi and Hohokam. They continued their ancestors’ farming tradition.

Like most Native Americans, these groups believed in a spirit world. When men married, they joined the kachina cult, wearing masks and dancing to summon the kachinas, or good spirits.

Around the 1500s two other peoples—the Apache and the Navajo—came to the region from the far northwest. Although many of the Apache remained primarily nomadic hunters, the Navajo learned farming and settled in widely dispersed villages.

The Great Plains The inhabitants of the Great Plains practiced agriculture until about 1500, when they abandoned their villages, possibly because of war or drought. They became nomadic hunters, following migrating buffalo herds on foot. Life for the Great Plains people changed dramatically after they began taming the wild descendants of horses brought to North America by the Spanish. They became expert riders, hunters, and warriors.
miles of woodlands rich in plant and animal life. Most Native Americans in the Eastern Woodlands combined hunting and fishing with farming. They planted corn, beans, and squash and hunted the plentiful deer for meat and hides.

The Iroquois of New York, like many groups in the Northeast, practiced slash-and-burn agriculture. They cut down forests, burned the cleared land, and used the nitrogen-rich ashes to make the soil more fertile. They surrounded their villages with wooden stockades and built large rectangular longhouses that housed up to 10 families. These kinship groups, or extended families, were headed by the elder women of each clan.

Despite their similar cultures, war often erupted among the Iroquois groups. In the late 1500s, five groups in western New York—the Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida, and Mohawk—formed an alliance to maintain peace. The Great Binding Law defined how this Iroquois League worked.

Although the ruling council was all male, the women who headed the kinship groups selected its members and could remove appointees they disagreed with. Thus Iroquois women enjoyed considerable political influence.

Like the Iroquois in the Northeast, the people in the Southeast generally lived in towns enclosed by stockades. Houses built of grass, mud, or thatch stood around a central plaza. Women did most of the farming, while the men hunted deer, bear, and even alligator.

By the 1500s, Native Americans had established a wide array of cultures and languages. They had also developed economies and lifestyles suited to their particular environments.

Explaining How did climate and food sources help shape Native American lifestyles?

Critical Thinking
5. Evaluating Choose an early culture group in Mesoamerica or North America. What kind of civilization did this group develop?
6. Categorizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list North American regions and the ways Native Americans in each region obtained food.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Ways of Getting Food</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analyzing Visuals
7. Examining Photographs Study the photographs of the Great Serpent Mound and the copper falcon on this page. How did the Native Americans in this region adapt to their environment?

Writing About History
8. Descriptive Writing Take on the role of an early Native American teenager. Write a journal entry describing a typical day in your life. Remember to consider how your life might be different if you are a male or female Native American.
I am Dekanawidah and with the Five Nations’ Confederate Lords I plant the Tree of Great Peace.

The Mohawk Lords are the foundation of the Great Peace and it shall, therefore, be against the Great Binding Law [the constitution] to pass measures in the Confederate Council after the Mohawk Lords have protested against them.

All the business of the Five Nations Confederate Council shall be conducted by the two combined bodies of Confederate Lords. . . . In all cases the procedure must be as follows: when the Mohawk and Seneca Lords have unanimously agreed upon a question, they shall report their decision to the Cayuga and Oneida Lords who shall deliberate upon the question and report a unanimous decision to the Mohawk Lords. The Mohawk Lords will then report the standing of the case to the Firekeepers [the Onondaga], who shall render a decision as they see fit in case of a disagreement by the two bodies.

There shall be one War Chief for each Nation and their duties shall be to carry messages for their Lords and to take up the arms of war in case of emergency. They shall not participate in . . . the Confederate Council.

Whenever a very important matter or a great emergency is presented before the Confederate Council [that] affects the entire body of the Five Nations . . . the Lords of the Confederacy must submit the matter to the decision of their people and the decision of the people shall affect the decision of the Confederate Council.

Read to Discover
How did the Iroquois Confederation organize the Confederate Council?

Reader’s Dictionary
foundation: basis
unanimous: in complete agreement
render: make; provide

Analyzing Literature
1. Recall and Interpret Which of the Five Nations settles a dispute within the Confederate Council?
2. Evaluate and Connect Which Nation seems to have the most individual power?

Interdisciplinary Activity
Government Imagine that you and several classmates are leaders of five small nations that are going to join together as one. In small groups, develop a new constitution under which all members of the new nation will live.
Europe and Africa

Main Idea
As Europeans began exploring the world, they interacted with Africans who had developed diverse cultures of their own.

Key Terms and Names
Middle Ages, feudalism, manorialism, serf, Urban II, Crusades, Renaissance, astrolabe, caravel, Sahara, savannah

Reading Strategy
Sequencing As you read about European and African life, complete a time line like the one below by filling in key events in the development of both continents.

Reading Objectives
• Analyze the impact of the Renaissance on European exploration.
• Describe the culture of early West African kingdoms.

Section Theme
Global Connections European exploration of the globe set in motion events that decisively shaped North American history.

An American Story

In 1324 Mansa Musa, ruler of the Mali empire, made a pilgrimage to the Arabian city of Makkah (Mecca), a place holy to his religion, Islam.

Musa had encouraged scholarship and trade in his realm, establishing his empire’s leading city, Timbuktu, as a great center of learning. A man named Mahmoud Kati, a native of the city, wrote a book praising Timbuktu for “the solidity of its institutions, its political liberties, the purity of its morals, the security of persons, its consideration and compassion toward foreigners, its courtesy toward students and men of learning and the financial assistance which it provided for the latter. . . .”

Musa was not the first African king to visit Makkah, but no one there or along his route had ever seen anything as dazzling as his traveling party. With him came 60,000 men, 12,000 of them personal servants he had enslaved. All were lavishly dressed. His vast caravan included 80 camels carrying 300 pounds of gold each.

Along the route, Musa’s generous spending brought prosperity to the towns he passed and made his name famous. More importantly, the unmistakable wealth of his empire opened the eyes of North Africans, Arabs, and Europeans to the greatness of the Mali civilization.

—adapted from Wonders of the African World

European Society
Europe’s interest in Africa came only after a long period of isolation. For centuries the Roman Empire had dominated much of Europe. By A.D. 500, however, the Roman political and economic systems had collapsed, isolating western Europe from the rest of the world.
Trade declined, cities and roads fell into disrepair, law and order vanished, and money was no longer used. During the Middle Ages, as the period from about 500 to 1400 is called, most people knew nothing of life beyond the tiny villages where they were born.

**Feudalism** With the weakening of central government, feudalism developed in western Europe. Under this political system, a king would give estates to nobles in exchange for their military support. The nobles swore loyalty to the king and provided knights, or mounted warriors, for the royal army. In return, the nobles could raise their own armies, dispense justice, and mint their own coins. Most built fortified castles for defense.

Peasants who could not secure their own land or protection worked for the feudal lords and lived on their estates, or manors. These ranged in size from several hundred to several hundred thousand acres and were largely self-sufficient, with livestock pastures, fields for crops, and a peasant village. While feudalism describes the political relationships between nobles, manorialism describes the economic ties between nobles and peasants.

In return for protection, peasants farmed the lord’s land and made payments of various goods. They worked long and hard and rarely left the manor. Most were serfs, people who were bound to the manor and the lord’s will. They were not considered enslaved, however, since they could not be sold. Serfs typically lived in tiny, one-room houses with dirt floors, a hole in the roof for a chimney, and one or two pieces of crude furniture. They ate bread, porridge, and a few types of vegetables, and they slept huddled together for warmth.

**Expanding Horizons** The economy of western Europe, devastated since the fall of Rome, began to improve around A.D. 1000. The invention of the horse collar and better plows enabled farmers to grow more. The ability of many villages to produce a surplus of food helped revive trade in Europe. At the same time, some rulers succeeded in building strong central governments, thereby discouraging warfare and bandit raids. Roads soon filled with traders, and the number of western European towns grew tremendously between 1000 and 1200.

The Roman Catholic Church also promoted stability and order. With its laws addressing doctrine, marriage, and morals and its severe penalties for disobedience to Church teachings, it became a force uniting western Europeans.

Meanwhile, the religion known as Islam swept across the Middle East and Africa during the 600s and 700s. The followers of Islam, known as Muslims, steadily won converts both by making armed conquests and by instilling a sense of brotherhood.

As Muslim power grew, European Christians became fearful of losing access to the Holy Land, the birthplace of Christianity, in what is now Israel. In 1095 Pope Urban II, the head of the Roman Catholic Church, urged Christians to take up arms to regain their sacred sites. He spoke before a huge crowd, saying that Jerusalem “is now held captive by enemies....It looks and hopes for freedom; it begs unceasingly that you will come to its aid.”

The pope’s speech launched at least nine expeditions, called Crusades, over the next two centuries. The Crusades changed western European society in several ways. First, they helped break down feudalism and increased the authority of kings. As kings levied...
taxes and raised armies, nobles joining the Crusades sold their lands and freed their serfs. Second, the Crusades brought Europeans into contact with the Muslim and Byzantine civilizations of the Middle East. Europeans began demanding spices, sugar, silk, and other goods from the East. Chinese and Indian traders sold these items to Arab merchants, who then moved them overland to the Mediterranean coast. Arab merchants then sold the goods to Italian merchants for huge profits.

The expanding trade with the Middle East and Asia changed Europe’s economic system as well. As trade increased, merchants found bartering impractical, and many Arab traders insisted on monetary payments. This led to the rise of an economy based on money and to greater demand for gold to make coins.

The development of the Mongol Empire in the 1200s also facilitated the flow of goods from the East. Mongol horsemen emerged from central Asia in the early 1200s and built one of the largest empires in world history. The Mongol conquest integrated much of Asia’s economy by breaking down trade barriers, opening borders, and securing the roads against bandits.

By the 1300s, Europe was importing vast quantities of luxury goods from Asia. However, when the Mongol Empire collapsed in the 1300s, Asia again split into dozens of independent kingdoms. The flow of Asian goods declined, and the price of spices soared. Many Europeans began to look for a route to Asia that would bypass the Muslim traders. Perhaps, they thought, they could reach China by sea.

**New States, New Technology**

By the 1300s, western Europeans had the motive but not the means to seek a direct water route to Asia. Feudalism and frequent warfare had kept rulers and merchants from amassing the wealth necessary to finance exploration and overseas trade. Europeans also lacked the technology to attempt a long-distance voyage by sea.

**GOVERNMENT**

**The Emergence of Strong States** Things began changing in the 1300s. The feudal system was in decline, weakened by the Crusades and trade with Asia. The rise of towns and merchants had provided kings and queens with a new source of wealth they could tax. They used their armies to open up and protect trade routes and to enforce trade laws and a common currency within their kingdoms.

Revenue from trade and loans from merchants, who also stood to benefit from increased commerce, made western European rulers less dependent on the nobility for support. Monarchs began centralizing power, and by the mid-1400s, four strong states—Portugal, Spain, England, and France—had emerged. All four started financing exploration in the hope of expanding their trade and national power.

**Scientific Advances** At about the same time that European kingdoms were unifying, an intellectual revolution known as the Renaissance began. Lasting from about 1350 to 1600, the Renaissance marked an artistic flowering and a rebirth of interest in the cultures of ancient Greece and Rome. European scholars rediscovered the works of Greek and Roman philosophers, geographers, and mathematicians. In their quest for learning, they also read the teachings of Arab scholars.
By the 1400s, western Europeans had acquired knowledge of a key navigational instrument, the astrolabe, from Arab texts. An astrolabe uses the position of the sun to determine direction, latitude, and local time. Europeans also acquired the compass, a Chinese invention that reliably shows the direction of magnetic north.

Navigational tools were vital to exploring the world, but the most important requirements were ships capable of long-distance travel. Late in the 1400s, Europeans began building ships with redesigned sails, multiple masts, and repositioned rudders. These improvements made ships much faster.

**Prince Henry the Navigator** Portuguese explorers, outfitted with ships called caravels that incorporated the latest technology, were the first Europeans to search for a sea route to Asia. In 1419 Prince Henry of Portugal, known as Henry the Navigator, set up a coastal center for astronomical and geographical studies. Mapmakers, astronomers, and shipbuilders from throughout the Mediterranean went there to study and plan voyages of exploration.

In 1420 Portuguese captains began mapping Africa’s west coast. They discovered the Azores, the Madeira Islands, and Cape Verde. In 1488 a Portuguese ship commanded by Bartolomeu Dias reached the southern tip of Africa, later named the Cape of Good Hope. A little over nine years later, four ships commanded by Vasco da Gama sailed from Portugal, rounded Africa, and then landed on the southwest coast of India. A water route to eastern Asia had been found.

During the decades that Portuguese ships were exploring the African coast, they began trading with West African merchants. European goods were exchanged for gold, ivory, pepper, and palm oil. The Portuguese also began purchasing enslaved Africans to work on Portuguese sugar plantations.

**Reading Check** Examining What political and technological developments made it possible for Europeans to begin exploring the world?

**West African Civilization**

Long before the arrival of the Portuguese, trade had been a central feature of West African civilization. The three great empires that arose in this region between the 400s and 1400s—Ghana, Mali, and Songhai—gained much of their prosperity by trading in two precious commodities: gold and salt.

**The Lay of the Land** West Africa is an immense bulge of territory bordered on the north by the Mediterranean Sea and on the west and south by the Atlantic Ocean. Its northern and southern perimeters are well watered and fertile, but between them lies a vast desert, the Sahara.

The Niger River, which cuts through West Africa, long served as its major pathway for east-west trade. Important trade routes across the Sahara did not develop until camels arrived from Arabia between the A.D. 200s and 400s. Camels could carry more weight and walk for longer periods than oxen or horses. Most important, camels could go without water for over a week and could withstand the desert’s scorching days and cold nights.

Merchants began using camels to transport gold, ivory, ostrich feathers, and furs from regions south of the Sahara to North Africa. As demand for these goods increased, large trading settlements developed around the northern and southern boundaries of the Sahara.

Ideas as well as goods traveled along the African trade routes. The Muslim nomads who controlled the caravans in the Sahara carried Islam into the heart of West Africa. There, many people in the cities and market towns embraced the religion.

**The Lure of Gold** West Africa prospered primarily because of the gold trade. The Muslim conquest of North Africa led to a much greater demand for gold

---

**The Compass**

While the Europeans made numerous advances in navigation, it was the Chinese who invented one of the more important seafaring tools: the compass. Evidence of this includes a Chinese document from 1086 that talks of sea captains relying on a “south-pointing needle” to help them find their way in foggy weather. The date on the document is more than 100 years earlier than the first recorded use of the compass in Europe. What other inventions aided European exploration?
in the 800s and 900s because the new Muslim states of the region used gold coins. Later, in the 1200s, European rulers shifted from using silver and copper coins to using gold coins, and they too sought gold from Africa.

The African people who lived on the southern edge of the Sahara were perfectly positioned to benefit from the growing trade in gold. With access to both gold from the south and salt and other goods from the north, they were able to amass wealth and power and build large empires.

Ghana The earliest African empire to emerge was Ghana in the A.D. 400s. The Soninke people settled between the gold mines of Bambuk (just east of present-day Senegal) and the salt mines of Taghaza in the Sahara, where they controlled the region’s trade. After the Muslims conquered North Africa and the Sahara, Ghana’s merchants grew rich by trafficking in gold and salt. Ghana’s ruler taxed the trade and gained great wealth as well. Most people, however, were farmers and herders.

Ghana became a Muslim kingdom in the 1100s, but frequent wars with the Muslims of the Sahara took their toll. Equally damaging was a change in the environment that left Ghana’s land exhausted and its farmers unable to feed its people. At the same time, new gold mines opened in Bure to the east. Trade routes to these mines bypassed Ghana, depriving its rulers of the wealth they needed to maintain their empire. By the early 1200s, the empire of Ghana had collapsed.

Mali East of Ghana, the Malinke people controlled the upper Niger valley and thus the gold trade from Bure. With their newfound wealth and power, the Malinke conquered Ghana and built the empire of Mali. By the mid-1300s, Mali stretched east past the city of Timbuktu and west to the Atlantic Ocean.

The emperor of Mali, called the mansa, was based in the capital. In outlying towns, traditional rulers managed local affairs, collected tribute from the farmers, and sent a portion to the capital. To enforce this system, the mansa relied on a large army. Although Mali’s rulers and traders adopted Islam, many people—especially the farmers—clung to their traditional belief in “spirits of the land.”

The empire of Mali reached its peak in the 1300s under the leadership of Mansa Musa and his brother Mansa Sulayman. By that time, the opening of new gold mines had shifted the trade routes farther east and helped make Timbuktu a great center of trade and Muslim scholarship.

Songhai The Sorko people who lived along the middle Niger, east of Mali, built the Songhai empire. The Sorko fished for a living and controlled trade along the river. This gave them wealth and power, and by the 800s they had created the kingdom of Songhai.

When Mali began to decline, the ruler of Songhai, Sonni Ali, seized Timbuktu in 1468. He then pushed north to the Taghazi salt mines and expanded southward about 200 miles down the Niger. According to legend, Sonni Ali’s army never lost a battle.

Songhai’s next great leader, Askia Muhammad, was a devout Muslim. He revived Timbuktu as a great
center of learning, encouraged more trade across the Sahara, and centralized power in the capital, Gao. Songhai remained a powerful and wealthy empire until 1591, when Moroccan troops shattered its army.

**Benin** The sprawling empires of Ghana, Mali, and Songhai arose on West Africa’s expansive savannah, a kind of rolling grassland. In the dense, almost impenetrable forests of West Africa’s southern coast, an area called Guinea, smaller kingdoms such as Benin developed.

The Edo people of Benin were a mix of hunters, farmers, and traders living in small village communities. They developed Benin as a city-state in the 1000s or 1100s. By the mid-1400s, Benin had become an empire stretching from the Niger delta west to about where the city of Lagos, Nigeria, is located today. When the Portuguese reached Benin, the Edo sold them ivory, pepper, gum, and cotton. They also traded Africans they had captured and enslaved as they expanded their territory.

**Reading Check** **Examining** Why were the West African kingdoms in Guinea smaller than those in the savannah area?

### Slavery and Sugar

Slavery had existed in Africa and other parts of the world for centuries. At first, most African slaves were war captives who were eventually ransomed back to their people or absorbed into their captors’ culture. West African slavery began to change with the arrival of Arab traders, who exchanged horses, cotton, and other goods for slaves. The gold trade also increased the demand for slaves. In the early 1400s, the Akan people began mining gold and trading it to the Mali empire. To boost their production, the Akan people acquired enslaved Africans from Mali traders for use in clearing the land and mining the gold.

Sugar growers from Spain and Portugal sought African slaves as well. Until about 1100, the people of western Europe had generally used honey and fruit juices to sweeten their foods. During the Crusades, they learned about sugarcane from the Muslims, and the demand for sugar rose steadily.

In the 1400s, Spain and Portugal established sugarcane plantations on the Canary and Madeira Islands off the west coast of Africa. There, unlike most of Europe, the climate and soil were favorable for growing sugarcane. Chopping the tough cane and producing sugar required heavy manual labor, though, and plantation owners brought in enslaved Africans for that purpose.

Because Europeans had a limited amount of land available for sugarcane, their participation in the slave trade remained modest during the 1400s. This would change dramatically after Christopher Columbus landed in America.

**Reading Check** **Analyzing** Why did Europeans want slaves?
Europe Encounters America

Main Idea
Columbus sought a sea route to Asia. Instead, he encountered several outlying islands of North America.

Key Terms and Names
Leif Ericsson, Claudius Ptolemy, San Salvador Island, line of demarcation, Treaty of Tordesillas, Ferdinand Magellan, circumnavigate, Columbian Exchange

Reading Strategy
Organizing As you read about Europe’s exploration of the Americas, complete a chart like the one below by filling in the outcome of each exploration listed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exploration</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vikings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vespucci</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balboa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magellan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading Objectives
• Describe Columbus’s journeys and their impact on Native Americans and Europeans.
• Evaluate the workings and impact of the Columbian Exchange.

Section Theme
Global Connections The Treaty of Tordesillas helped determine that Spain would be the first strong European power in the Americas.

An American Story
In 1492 Christopher Columbus led 87 sailors on a voyage into the unknown. On September 9 Columbus noted in his log: “This day we completely lost sight of land, and many men sighed and wept for fear they would not see it again for a long time.” As the voyage dragged on, the sailors grew nervous and began plotting mutiny. Columbus wrote:

“All day long and all night long those who are awake and able to get together never cease to talk to each other in circles, complaining that they will never be able to return home. . . . I am told . . . that if I persist in going onward, the best course of action will be to throw me into the sea some night.”

Then, on the morning of October 12, the Pinta’s lookout, Rodrigo de Triana, let out a joyous cry—“Tierra! Tierra!” (“Land! Land!”). At dawn a relieved and triumphant Columbus went ashore. He believed he had arrived in the Indies— islands located southeast of China.

—adapted from The Log of Christopher Columbus

The Vikings Arrive in America
Although his historic journey set the stage for permanent European settlement in the Americas, Christopher Columbus was not the first European to arrive there. Strong archaeological evidence credits that accomplishment to the Norse, or Vikings, a people who came from Scandinavia.
Beginning in the late 700s, Viking ships, called longboats, began to venture from their homeland. Around A.D. 1000, Leif Ericsson and 35 Vikings explored the coast of Labrador and may have stayed the winter in what is now Newfoundland. Although the Vikings later tried to found colonies in the region, their attempts failed, largely because they were outnumbered by hostile Native Americans.

Examining How do we know that Columbus was not the first European in the Americas?

Columbus’s Plan

During the Renaissance, the scientific works of scholars like Claudius Ptolemy were rediscovered. In the A.D. 100s, he had drawn maps of a round world projected onto a flat surface, complete with lines of longitude and latitude. Nonetheless, Ptolemy had seriously underestimated the distance that each degree of longitude represented, making the earth seem much smaller than it actually was.

Basing his calculations on Ptolemy’s, an Italian navigator named Christopher Columbus reckoned Japan to be only 2,760 miles (4,441 km) west of Spain. In reality it was five times farther. Columbus was also unaware that a large landmass lay in the Atlantic between Europe and Asia.

Columbus needed financial backing to make a voyage across the Atlantic to Asia. For six years Columbus tried to persuade the rulers of Portugal, England, France, and Spain to fund his expedition. He promised Spain’s King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella that his scheme would bring them wealth, empire, and converts to Catholicism. Finally, in 1492, after it became clear that Portugal was about to reach Asia by going east around Africa, the Spanish rulers agreed to finance his venture.

Explaining Why did the rulers of Spain agree to support Columbus’s voyage to Asia?

Columbus’s Explorations

In all, Columbus made four expeditions to the Americas. His first ended in glory and the promise of future riches. Each succeeding journey, however, brought him no closer to fulfilling that promise or finding the expected sea route to Asia.

TURNING POINT

The First Voyage Columbus and his three ships finally left Spain in August 1492, embarking on the harrowing westward voyage across the Atlantic and reaching what is today the Bahamas in October. He probably landed on present-day San Salvador Island. Columbus called the people he encountered Indians, thinking he had reached the fabled Indies.

Columbus headed deeper into the Caribbean searching for gold. He found the island of Cuba and then the island of Hispaniola, which the countries of Haiti and the Dominican Republic now share. Columbus mistakenly concluded that Cuba was the coast of China and that Hispaniola was Japan.

The islanders Columbus met must have been curious about the white-skinned, bearded Spanish. Columbus described their meeting this way:

—quoted in The Voyage of Christopher Columbus

Archaeological Evidence This carving of a European figure (left), and Viking calendar (above) prove that the Vikings arrived in North America before Columbus. Why were Vikings unable to colonize successfully?
CHAPTER 1 Converging Cultures

The Columbian Exchange

European contact with the Americas marked the start of an extensive exchange of plants and animals between the two areas of the world. Dramatic changes resulted from the exchange of plant life, leading to a revolution in the diets of peoples in both hemispheres.

Maize (corn), potatoes, many kinds of beans, tomatoes, and pumpkins were among the products the Eastern Hemisphere received from the Americas. Meanwhile, the Eastern Hemisphere introduced rice, wheat, barley, oats, melons, coffee, bananas, and many other plants to the Western Hemisphere.

Animals
The Spanish reintroduced horses to the Americas. Horses native to the Americas had died out during the Ice Age. Their reintroduction transformed Native American societies.

Plants
By about 1600, American maize and sweet potatoes were staple crops in China. They contributed to a worldwide population explosion beginning in this period.

On Christmas Eve, Columbus’s flagship, the Santa María, struck a reef off Hispaniola and broke apart. Columbus built a small fort called La Navidad on the island and left about 40 crew members to search for gold while he headed home with his remaining ships.

In March 1493 Columbus made a triumphant return to Spain, bringing back gold, parrots, spices, and Native Americans. The king and queen awarded him the titles “Admiral of the Ocean Sea” and “Viceroy and Governor of the Indies.” Ferdinand and Isabella listened closely as Columbus promised spices, cotton, and “as much gold as they want if their Highnesses will render me a little help.”

The Treaty of Tordesillas Although pleased with Columbus’s findings, Ferdinand and Isabella were concerned about claiming the new lands. Portugal, after all, had claimed the right to control the Atlantic route to Asia. To resolve the issue, the two Catholic nations appealed to the pope. In 1493 Pope Alexander VI established a line of demarcation, an imaginary north-to-south line running down the middle of the Atlantic. Spain was to control everything west of the line, while Portugal would control everything to the east.

In 1494, with the Treaty of Tordesillas, a line was approved by both nations. The treaty confirmed Portugal’s right to control the route around Africa to India. It also confirmed Spain’s claim to most of the newly discovered lands of America.

Columbus’s Later Voyages Columbus made three more voyages from Spain in 1493, 1498, and 1502. He explored the Caribbean islands of Hispaniola, Cuba, and Jamaica, and he sailed along the coasts of Central America and northern South America. Columbus claimed the new lands for Spain and established settlements, but he did not satisfy his dreams.

Reading Check Analyzing Why did Spain and Portugal sign the Treaty of Tordesillas?

Continuing Expeditions
Later explorations made it clear that Columbus had not reached Asia but a part of the globe unknown to Europeans, Asians, and Africans. In the following years, the Spanish explored most of the Caribbean region, paving the way for the Spanish Empire in the Americas.

Naming America In 1499 an Italian named Amerigo Vespucci, sailing under the Spanish flag, repeated Columbus’s attempt to sail west to Asia.
Exploring the coast of South America, Vespucci, like Columbus, assumed he had reached outermost Asia. Vespucci made his next voyage in 1501, this time representing Portugal. After sailing far south along the coast of South America, he realized that this large landmass could not be part of Asia. Vespucci’s descriptions of America were published and widely read in Europe. In 1507 a German scholar, Martin Waldseemüller, proposed that the new continent be named America for “Amerigo the discoverer.”

**Spanish Explorations** In 1513 the Spanish governor of Puerto Rico, Juan Ponce de Leon, sailed north. Legend has it that he was searching for a wondrous fountain that could magically restore youth. Whether or not this was his motive, Ponce de Leon did discover a land full of blooming wildflowers and fragrant plants. He claimed the area for Spain and named it Florida, which means “land of flowers.”

In 1510 Vasco de Balboa, an indebted planter from Hispaniola, stowed away on a ship heading west to the American mainland. He and a group of followers founded a colony on the Isthmus of Panama. There Balboa heard tales from Native Americans of a “south sea” that led to an empire of gold. Avid for the treasure, he hacked his way across steamy, disease-ridden jungles and swamps until he reached the opposite coast. There, in 1513, Balboa became the first European known to gaze upon the wide ocean that actually does lead to China and India.

In 1520 Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese mariner working for Spain, discovered the strait later named for him at the southernmost tip of South America. After navigating its stormy narrows, he sailed into the ocean Balboa had seen. Its waters seemed so peaceful—or pacific, in Portuguese—that Magellan gave the new ocean that name. Although Magellan died in the Philippine Islands on the way home to Spain, his expedition returned in 1522. Magellan is credited as the first person to circumnavigate, or sail completely around, the globe.

**The Columbian Exchange**

The arrival of European colonists in the Americas set in motion a series of complex interactions between peoples and ecologies. These interactions,
called the **Columbian Exchange**, would bring change to almost every culture in the world.

**From America to Europe** Native Americans introduced the Europeans to new farming methods and crops. Corn, which colonists soon made a staple, traveled back to Spain with Columbus and then spread to the rest of Europe. Other American foods, such as squash, pumpkins, beans, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, chili peppers, peanuts, chocolate, and potatoes, also made their way to Europe, as did tobacco and chewing gum. Europeans also adopted many Native American inventions, including canoes, snowshoes, hammocks, ponchos, and toboggans.

One of the most important discoveries for Europeans was the potato. European farmers learned that land planted with potatoes instead of rye could support about four times as many people. Potatoes had another key advantage. Because grain had to be harvested all at one time and then stored, families risked losing an entire year’s supply to pillagers. Potatoes, by contrast, could be left in the ground all winter and dug up only when needed for eating.

**From Europe to America** The Europeans introduced Native Americans to many new sources of food, including wheat, oats, barley, rye, rice, coffee, onions, bananas, oranges, and other new citrus fruits. Europeans also brought over domestic livestock such as chickens, cattle, pigs, sheep, and horses. In addition, they introduced Native Americans to new technologies, including new metalworking and shipbuilding methods, as well as firearms and other new weapons.

Offsetting these beneficial imports, however, was a deadly and invisible one—the bacteria and viruses that caused influenza, measles, chicken pox, mumps, typhus, and smallpox. Europeans carried some resistance to these diseases, but Native Americans had never experienced them and therefore had no immunity. Exposure led to epidemics in which millions died. The movement of disease was not one way—Europeans may have also brought Native American diseases back to Europe. Those illnesses, however, did not lead to a catastrophic collapse of the European population.

Within 50 years after contact with Europeans, groups living in parts of the Caribbean had become extinct. On Hispaniola, the native population plummeted from about 1 million to about 500. In Mayan Mexico, an estimated 95 percent of the local people died.

No one should discount the negative effects of the exchange Columbus initiated: the tragic epidemics and military conquests that devastated Native Americans and, later, the introduction of slavery. Yet Columbus’s explorations led ultimately to the founding of the United States and the building of a nation that honors individualism and protects human rights and freedoms. This too is part of Columbus’s legacy.

**Reading Check**

**Describing** Why did millions of Native Americans die as a result of contact with Europeans?
Reading a Time Line

Why Learn This Skill?
When you read a time line, you see not only when an event took place but also what events took place before and after it. A time line can help you develop the skill of chronological thinking. Developing a strong sense of chronology—when events took place and in what order they took place—will help you examine relationships among the events. It will also help you understand what events caused or were the result of other events.

Learning the Skill
A time line is a chart that lists events that occurred between specific dates. The number of years between dates is the time span. A time line that begins in 1490 and ends in 1500 has a 10-year time span. Some time lines are divided into centuries. The twentieth century includes the 1900s, the nineteenth century includes the 1800s, and so on.

Time lines are usually divided into smaller segments, or time intervals. If you look at the two time lines below, you will see that the first time line has a 30-year time span divided into 10-year time intervals, and the second time line has a 6-year time span divided into 2-year time intervals.

Practicing the Skill
Sometimes a time line shows events that occurred during the same time period but in two different parts of the world. The time line above shows some events in the Americas and in the rest of the world during the same time span. Study the time line, and then answer the questions.

1. What time span and intervals appear on this time line?
2. What important event took place around A.D. 1300 in North America?
3. How many years before Ptolemy’s Geography was published did the Vikings reach North America?
4. When did Pope Urban II begin the Crusades?

Skills Assessment
Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 39 and the Chapter 1 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.
In the spring of 1519, a courier arrived in Tenochtitlán, capital of the Aztec empire. He had news for the emperor, Montezuma II. Bearded white men bearing crosses were encamped on the eastern shores of the emperor’s realm. Montezuma was worried. For several years he had heard reports of strange men with “very light skin” operating in the Caribbean. His subjects had also seen “towers or small mountains floating on the waves of the sea.” Now these strange white men had come to his lands, and Montezuma did not know what to do.

The men on the coast were Spanish soldiers. As they watched the soldiers, the people of eastern Mexico felt both fear and awe. One Aztec later recalled:

“They came in battle array, as conquerors . . . their spears glinted in the sun, and their pennons fluttered like bats. They made a loud clamor as they marched, for their coats of mail and their weapons clashed and rattled. . . . They terrified everyone who saw them.”

—quoted in The Broken Spears: The Aztec Account of the Conquest of Mexico

**The Conquest of Mexico**

Leading the Spanish march into the Aztec Empire was 34-year-old Hernán Cortés. He had sailed from Cuba with two aims: to find Native Americans to toil for the Spanish in Cuba, and to investigate reports of a wealthy civilization on the Yucatán Peninsula.
Cortés landed in the Yucatán with 11 ships, 550 men, and 16 horses. Soon after, thousands of Native Americans attacked. Although outnumbered, the Spanish had superior weapons. Their swords, crossbows, guns, and cannons quickly killed more than 200 warriors. As a peace offering, the Native Americans gave Cortés 20 young women. One was Malinche, who helped translate for Cortés as he continued up the coast. Malinche became one of Cortés’s closest advisers. He had her baptized and gave her the name Doña Marina.

The Spanish Meet the Aztec From local rulers, Cortés learned that the Aztec had conquered many people in the region and were at war with others, including the powerful Tlaxcalan people. He decided to make allies of the Tlaxcalans by impressing them with his army’s might. The local people had never seen horses before. Their foaming muzzles and the glistening coats of armor they wore were astonishing and terrifying. When they charged, it seemed to one Aztec chronicler “as if stones were raining on the earth.” Equally terrifying were the “shooting sparks” of the Spanish cannons. After several displays of Spanish power, the Tlaxcalans agreed to join with Cortés against the Aztec.

Two hundred miles away, Montezuma fretted. He believed an old prophecy foretelling that Quetzalcóatl—a fair-skinned, bearded deity—would someday return to conquer the Aztec. Montezuma did not know if Cortés was Quetzalcóatl. To be safe, he sent envoys promising a yearly payment to the king of Spain if Cortés halted his advance. As further appeasement, the envoys sacrificed several captives and gave their blood to the Spanish to drink. This act horrified the Spanish and alarmed Montezuma, who knew that Quetzalcóatl hated human sacrifice.

With a joint Spanish-Tlaxcalan force heading toward him, Montezuma decided to ambush Cortés at the city of Cholula. Warned in advance by Doña Marina, the Spanish struck first, killing over 6,000 Cholulans. Montezuma now believed Cortés was unstoppable. On November 8, 1519, Spanish troops peacefully entered the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán.

The Aztec Are Defeated Sitting on an island in the center of a lake, Tenochtitlán astonished the Spanish. It was larger than most European cities and featured stone canals that people traveled by canoe. The central plaza had an enormous double pyramid and a huge rack displaying thousands of human skulls—a sight that repelled the Spanish.

Surrounded by thousands of Aztec, Cortés decided to take Montezuma hostage. Montezuma did not resist. Following orders from Cortés, he stopped all human sacrifice and had the statues of the Aztec gods replaced with Christian crosses and images of the Virgin Mary. The Aztec priests were furious and organized a rebellion in the spring of 1520. The battle raged for days before the Spanish, realizing they would be overrun, retreated. Over 450 Spaniards died, as did more than 4,000 Aztec, including Montezuma.

Cortés and his men took refuge with the Tlaxcalans and began building boats to attack the Aztec capital by
water. At the same time, smallpox erupted in the region, devastating the defenders of Tenochtitlán. As one Aztec recounted, “We were covered with agonizing sores from head to foot. The illness was so dreadful that no one could walk or move.” In May 1521, Cortés again attacked the greatly weakened Aztec forces. By August he had won.

**Reading Check** Examining What was the purpose of Hernán Cortés’s expedition to Mexico?

## New Spain Expands

On the ruins of Tenochtitlán, the Spanish built the city of Mexico, which became the capital of the colony of New Spain. Cortés then sent several expeditions to conquer the rest of Central America. The men who led these expeditions became known as **conquistadors**, or “conquerors.”

### Conquering the Inca

Spain also sent adventurers to South America. In 1526 Francisco Pizarro found the Inca Empire in Peru. He returned to conquer the Inca in 1532 with a small force of infantry and cavalry. Pizarro stationed his troops in the town of Cajamarca and invited the Inca ruler, Atahualpa, to meet him there. The emperor arrived with some 6,000 followers. When Atahualpa rejected the Bible a Spanish priest handed him, Pizarro ordered the canons to fire and the cavalry to charge. He and 20 soldiers then took the emperor prisoner.

Pizarro tried to rule Peru by keeping Atahualpa as a hostage. Less than a year later, however, he executed Atahualpa and installed a series of figurehead emperors who had to follow his orders. Although many people accepted the new system, others fled to the mountains and continued to fight the Spanish until 1572.

### Searching for Cities of Gold

The riches Pizarro found in Peru fueled rumors of other wealthy cities. In 1528 Pánfilo de Narváez vainly searched northern Florida for a fabled city of gold. Then he and his men built rafts and tried to sail to Mexico. They made it to present-day Texas, although most of the men, including Narváez, died in the attempt. The survivors, led by Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca and an enslaved man named Esteban, wandered across what is now Texas and New Mexico before reaching New Spain in 1536.

Many conquistadors had also heard of the Seven Golden Cities of Cibola north of New Spain. Hoping to find Cibola, in 1540 Francisco Vásquez de Coronado headed into what is now the American Southwest. Members of his expedition traveled west to the Colorado River and east into present-day Kansas. Finding nothing but windswept plains and strange “shaggy cows” (buffalo), Coronado returned to Mexico.

Meanwhile, Hernando de Soto took an expedition north of Florida. They searched the region for several years, killing many Native Americans and stealing supplies from them. They were the first Europeans to see the Mississippi River. After de Soto died, his men buried him in the Mississippi and returned home.

### Settling the Southwest

The failure of explorers to find gold or other wealth north of New Spain slowed Spanish settlement of the region. It was not until 1598 that settlers, led by Juan de Oñate’s expedition, migrated north of the Rio Grande, almost perishing while crossing northern Mexico. When they finally reached the Rio Grande, the survivors organized a feast to give thanks to God. This “Spanish Thanksgiving” is now celebrated each April in El Paso, Texas.

The Spanish gave the name New Mexico to the territory north of New Spain. Pedro de Peralta, the first governor of New Mexico, founded the capital city of Santa Fe in 1609 or 1610. The Spanish built forts called **presidios** throughout the region to protect settlers and to serve as trading posts. Despite these efforts,
few Spaniards migrated to the harsh region. Instead, the Catholic Church became the primary force for colonizing the southwestern part of America. Throughout the 1600s and 1700s, Spanish priests built missions and spread the Christian faith among the Navajo and Pueblo peoples of New Mexico. Beginning in 1769, Spanish missionaries led by the Franciscan priest Junipero Serra took control of California by establishing a chain of missions from present-day San Diego to San Francisco. A road called El Camino Real—the Royal Highway—linked the missions together.

The priests and missionaries in California and those in New Mexico took different approaches to their work. In California they forced the mostly nomadic Native Americans to live in villages near the missions. In New Mexico, on the other hand, the priests and missionaries adapted their efforts to fit into the lifestyle of the Pueblo people. They built churches near where the Pueblo people lived and farmed and tried to teach them Catholic ideas and European culture.

The Spanish priests tried to end traditional Native American religious practices that conflicted with Catholic beliefs. Some priests beat and whipped those who defied them. In response, a Native American religious leader named Popé organized an uprising against the Spanish in 1680. Some 17,000 warriors destroyed most of the missions in New Mexico. It took the Spanish more than a decade to regain control of the region.

**Spanish American Society**

The conquistadors were adventurers who had come to America seeking wealth and prestige. The society they built in New Spain reflected those goals.

**Mining, Ranching, and the Encomienda** When the Spanish realized that most Native American cities did not have much gold, they built mines. Ultimately, it was not gold that enriched Spain, but silver. The Spanish discovered huge deposits of silver ore in the 1540s and set up mining camps all across northern Mexico, transforming the economy. The work in the dark, damp mineshafts was very difficult. Many miners were killed by explosions and cave-ins. Others died from exhaustion.

To feed the miners in this arid region, Spaniards created large cattle ranches called haciendas. The land could not grow crops but it could feed vast herds of cattle and sheep. The vaqueros who worked with the cattle later influenced cowhands in the United States.

Another feature of Spanish colonial society was the encomienda, a system that granted control of Native American towns to Spanish encomenderos. The villagers paid their encomendero a share of what they harvested or produced and also worked part-time for him for free. The encomendero, in return, was supposed to protect the villagers and try to convert them to Christianity. Sadly, many abused their power and worked the Native Americans to death.

**A Class-Based Society** The people of Spain’s colonies in the Americas formed a highly structured society based on birth, income, and education. At
the top were *peninsulares*—people who had been born in Spain. They held most of the high government and church positions. Below the *peninsulares* were *criollos*—those born in the colonies to Spanish parents. Many *criollos* were wealthy, but they held slightly lesser positions. Next came the numerous *mestizos*, people of Spanish and Native American parents, whose social status varied greatly. A few were part of the upper class. Others worked as artisans, merchants, and shopkeepers. Most, however, were poor and relegated to the lowest class, along with Native Americans, Africans, and people of African and Spanish or African and Native American descent. These people provided most of the labor for New Spain’s farms, mines, and ranches.

To govern this vast, diverse empire in America, the Spanish king divided it into regions called viceroyalties, each ruled by a viceroy. The king also created the Council of the Indies to advise him. The Council advised the king and watched over all colonial activities. To manage local affairs, the king created a special court in Mexico known as the *audiencia*. The *audiencia*’s members were not only judges but also administrators and lawmakers.

**Reading Check** Describing Why did the Spanish set up mines and cattle ranches in northern Mexico?

## The French Empire in America

In 1524, three years after Cortés conquered the Aztec, King Francis I of France sent Giovanni da Verrazano to map North America’s coastline. Verrazano wanted to find the *Northwest Passage*—a northern water route through North America to the Pacific Ocean. He traveled from what is today North Carolina to Newfoundland but found no sign of the passage.

Ten years later, realizing that Spain was growing wealthy from its empire, Francis sent another explorer named Jacques Cartier. Cartier made three trips to North America, discovering and mapping the St. Lawrence River. In the decades after his last voyage in 1541, fighting between Catholics and Protestants tore France apart. For the next 60 years, the French largely ignored North America.

### New France Is Founded

In 1602, with the religious wars over, King Henry IV of France authorized a colonization effort by a group of French merchants. The merchants, who hoped to build a profitable fur trade with Native Americans, hired Samuel de Champlain to help them. In 1608 Champlain founded the trading post of *Quebec*, which became the capital of the colony of New France.

Instead of having settlers clear the land and build farms, the backers of New France sought profits from fur. As a result, the colony grew slowly. By 1666 it had just over 3,000 people. Most of the fur traders did not even live there, preferring to make their homes among the Native Americans with whom they traded. Jesuit missionaries, known as “black robes,” likewise lived in the woods with the local people.

### France’s Empire Expands

In 1663 France’s King Louis XIV made New France a royal colony and focused on increasing its population. The government paid the shipping costs for over 4,000 immigrants, and it sent some 900 young women to provide wives for the
many single men in the colony. It also gave couples financial incentives to marry young and have many children. By the 1670s New France’s population was nearly 7,000, and by 1760 it was over 60,000.

In addition, the French began exploring North America. In 1673 a fur trader named Louis Joliet and a Jesuit priest named Jacques Marquette began searching for a waterway the Algonquian people called the “big river.” The two men finally found it—the Mississippi. In 1682 René-Robert Cavalier de La Salle followed the Mississippi all the way to the Gulf of Mexico, becoming the first European to do so. He claimed the region for France and named the territory Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV.

**GEOGRAPHY**

**Settling Louisiana**

The geography of the lower Mississippi hindered settlement. The coastline had no good harbors, and shifting sandbars made navigation dangerous. The oppressive heat caused food to spoil quickly, and mosquito-filled swamps made the climate unhealthy. The French did not establish a permanent settlement in the region until 1698, when Lord d’Iberville founded Biloxi. Mobile, New Orleans, and several forts followed over the next few decades.

The French settlers in southern Louisiana realized that the crops that could be grown there, such as sugar, rice, tobacco, and indigo, required hard labor that few settlers were willing to do. As a result, the French began importing enslaved Africans to work on their plantations.

**Rivalry With Spain** The Spanish had always been concerned about the French in North America. Indeed, they had founded St. Augustine, Florida, in 1565 to counter French settlement attempts to the north. St. Augustine prospered and became the first permanent town established by Europeans in what is today the United States.

The arrival of the French at the mouth of the Mississippi River spurred the Spanish to action once again. In 1690 the Spanish built their first mission in what is today eastern Texas. In 1716 Spanish settlers arrived to secure Spain’s claim and to block French expansion into the region. The French and Spanish empires in North America now bordered each other. Neither, however, posed a serious threat to the other. The real challengers for domination of North America were the rapidly growing English colonies along the Atlantic coast.

Reading Check  Explaining How did making New France a royal colony help the colony?
Spanish Missions

The Spanish settlers who came to the American Southwest had two aims: to claim the land and to convert the Native Americans to Catholicism. To achieve these aims, the Spaniards set up fortified religious settlements known as missions.

The missions reflected both the culture of Spain and the demands of life in an arid land. By the late eighteenth century, the missions were thriving, self-contained communities.

Arranged in a quadrangle around a central courtyard, the complex was a bustling world of workshops, storage areas, gardens, and living quarters. Its location was often determined by the availability of wood, water, and fields for raising crops and grazing the livestock that the Spanish brought to the Americas. The form of the mission was dictated by the building materials available. The thick walls of the one-story buildings were usually made of stone or sun-dried mud bricks known as adobe.

For security, most of the mission’s residences were connected, and all windows faced inward. The entrances were locked at night. A covered arcade, or outdoor hallway, ran along the inner walls of the residences. The complex was usually dominated by a large church. Thousands of Native Americans were attracted to the missions by gifts and by the prospect of finding safety and food. They were instructed in Catholicism and Spanish. Women wove cloth and cooked; men labored at handicrafts or in the fields.

In addition to the native beans and corn, the converts planted crops introduced by the Spaniards such as wheat, oats, oranges, olives, and grapes.

Some of the missions would not allow the Native Americans to leave without permission once they had entered the community. Making this transition to a regimented life was difficult, and escapes were common. To enforce order and hunt down runaways, many missions had a small detachment of soldiers. The soldiers rode on horses, which the Spaniards brought to the Americas.

The Spaniards also brought measles and smallpox—devastating diseases against which the Indians had no natural immunity. Mission cemeteries often held the bones of thousands of Native Americans who died of these European diseases.
The Spanish built the church of San José y San Miguel de Aguayo in San Antonio, Texas, in the 1720s. Such churches were only part of much larger mission complexes. The art above shows the layout of a typical mission.

Years before the English unfurled their flag at Jamestown, Spanish missionaries and colonists from New Spain, as Mexico was known, were settling in the Southwest. The map shows their major migration routes into present-day New Mexico, Texas, and California, as well as the location of their missions and presidios, or garrisoned forts.

The Virgin of Guadalupe adorns the church at the mission of San José y San Miguel de Aguayo.
Reviewing Key Facts


26. How did Asians migrate to the Americas during the Ice Age?

27. How were slave labor and the cultivation of sugarcane related to one another?

28. What major factors encouraged European exploration in the 1400s and 1500s?

29. Why were Europeans searching for a sea route to Asia?

30. Why were the Spanish able to defeat the Aztec and the Inca?

31. How were the missionary practices of the Spanish different in California than in the Southwest?

32. What factors determined a person’s social class in Spanish colonial society?

33. What was the purpose of the Council of the Indies?
Critical Thinking

34. **Analyzing Themes: Cultures and Traditions** How did environment, climate, and food supplies influence the lifestyles of early peoples in the Americas?

35. **Forming an Opinion** If you had been King Ferdinand or Queen Isabella, would you have agreed to support Christopher Columbus’s voyages to the Americas? Why or why not?

36. **Categorizing** Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list how the relationships between Native Americans and the Spanish differed from those between Native Americans and the French.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native American relations with the Spanish</th>
<th>Native American relations with the French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Practicing Skills

37. **Reading a Time Line** Refer to the time line on page 29. Then answer the following questions.
   a. What is the time span on this time line?
   b. How much time elapsed between the republication of Ptolemy’s Geography and Columbus’s landing in America?

Chapter Activities

38. **Technology Activity: Using a Database** Search a library or the Internet to find information about the early civilizations in the Americas and Africa that were discussed in this chapter. Build a database collecting information about the cultures of these early civilizations. Include information about religious customs and traditions, ways of making a living, government, and housing. Include a map showing the locations of these civilizations.

39. **American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM** Read “Letter From Christopher Columbus” under Exploring the Americas. Work with a few of your classmates to describe how Columbus mapped the region he visited.

Writing Activity

40. **Portfolio Writing: Script for a Documentary** Choose an early civilization described in the chapter. Write a script for a scene in a documentary featuring this civilization. Describe the setting of the scene, and explain what the people in the scene would be doing. Place the script in your portfolio.

Geography and History

41. The map above shows the routes of the Crusades. Study the map and answer the questions below.
   a. **Interpreting Maps** Which Crusade ended at Constantinople?
   b. **Applying Geography Skills** Which Crusade traveled almost exclusively by land?

Self-Check Quiz

Visit the American Republic Since 1877 Web site at tarvol2.glencoe.com and click on Self-Check Quizzes—Chapter 1 to assess your knowledge of chapter content.