Module 1

American Beginnings

Essential Question
What was the most significant impact of African, European, and North American cultures converging in the 16th century?

In this module you will learn about the native cultures of North America, Africa, and Europe. You will also discover how Europeans began to conquer and colonize parts of the Americas.

What You Will Learn . . .

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The Big Idea In ancient times, migrating peoples settled the Americas. Their descendants developed diverse Native American cultures in varied landscapes.

Lesson 2: West African Societies Around 1492 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 14
The Big Idea West Africa in the 1400s was home to a variety of peoples and cultures.

Lesson 3: European Societies Around 1492 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 21
The Big Idea Political, economic, and intellectual developments in western Europe in the 1400s led to the Age of Exploration.

Lesson 4: Transatlantic Encounters . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 36
The Big Idea Columbus’s voyages set off a chain of events that brought together the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas.

Lesson 5: Spain’s Empire in the Americas . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 44
The Big Idea Throughout the 1500s and 1600s, the Spanish conquered Central and portions of North America.

About the Painting: This painting depicts the arrival of English explorer Henry Hudson in the Bay of New York in 1609. Native Americans watch as the ship moves toward the shore.
## Events in the Americas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c. 20,000 BC</td>
<td>Asian peoples begin migrating to America across the Beringia land bridge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. 5000 BC</td>
<td>Corn is raised as a domesticated crop in central Mexico.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 BC</td>
<td>Adena culture begins building large earthen mounds in what is now southern Ohio.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 200 BC–AD 400</td>
<td>Hopewell culture, which created this mica bird claw, flourishes in the Midwest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>Viking Leif Ericson reaches what is now Newfoundland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. 1500</td>
<td>The Iroquois League is formed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1521</td>
<td>Hernández Cortés conquers the Aztec Empire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1540</td>
<td>Coronado explores the American Southwest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1565</td>
<td>Spanish settlers establish Saint Augustine, Florida.</td>
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## World Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1020 BC</td>
<td>Israel becomes a kingdom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>753 BC</td>
<td>Rome is founded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1492</td>
<td>Christopher Columbus first reaches America.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1540</td>
<td>Coronado explores the American Southwest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1565</td>
<td>Spanish settlers establish Saint Augustine, Florida.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>622</td>
<td>Muhammad founds Islam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1096</td>
<td>The Crusades begin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1434</td>
<td>The Portuguese begin West African slave trade.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1440</td>
<td>Johann Gutenberg develops the printing press.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1517</td>
<td>Martin Luther begins the Protestant Reformation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1534</td>
<td>Parliament declares Henry VIII head of the English church.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Big Idea
In ancient times, migrating peoples settled the Americas. Their descendants developed diverse Native American cultures in varied landscapes.

Why It Matters Now
Ancient customs and patterns of immigration have always shaped and continue to shape American history.

Key Terms and People
Olmec
Maya
Aztec
Inca
Hohokam
Anasazi
Adena
Hopewell
Mississippian
Kwakiutl
Pueblo
Iroquois

One American’s Story

Thomas Canby, a writer for National Geographic magazine, spent a year with archaeologists as they searched for clues about the earliest Americans. As Canby watched the archaeologists unearthing fragile artifacts, a long-lost world came into sharper focus.

“What a wild world it was! To see it properly, we must board a time machine and travel back into the Ice Age. The northern half of North America has vanished, buried beneath ice sheets two miles thick. Stretching south to Kentucky, they buckle earth’s crust with their weight. . . . Animals grow oversize. . . . Elephant-eating jaguars stand as tall as lions, beavers grow as big as bears, South American sloths as tall as giraffes. With arctic cold pushing so far southward, walrus bask on Virginia beaches, and musk-oxen graze from Maryland to California.”

—Thomas Canby, from “The Search for the First Americans,” National Geographic, Sept. 1979

This was the world of the first Americans—people who migrated to the Americas from another continent. Centuries later, a different kind of immigration to the Americas would bring together people from three complex societies: the Native American, the European, and the West African. The interaction of these three cultures helped create the present-day culture of the United States. However, it is with the ancient peoples of the Americas that the story of America actually begins.
Ancient Peoples Come to the Americas

The first Americans may have arrived as early as 22,000 years ago. Ice Age glaciers had frozen vast quantities of the earth’s water, lowering sea levels enough to expose a land bridge between Asia and Alaska. Ancient hunters trekked across the frozen land, now called Beringia, into North America.

HUNTING AND GATHERING  Experts suspect that most of these ancient explorers came by foot. Some groups may have edged down the Pacific coast in boats fashioned from the bones and hides of animals—boats that are much like the kayaks used by modern-day Inuit.

The evidence suggests that the earliest Americans were big-game hunters. Their most challenging and rewarding prey was the woolly mammoth, which provided food, clothing, and bones for making shelters and tools.

As the Ice Age ended around 12,000 to 10,000 years ago, this hunting way of life also ended. Temperatures warmed, glaciers melted, and sea levels rose once again. Travel to the Americas by foot ceased as the ancient land bridge disappeared below the Bering Sea.

Over time people switched to hunting smaller game, fishing, and gathering nuts, berries, and fruit along with grains, beans, and squash. While many ancient groups established settlements in North America, others continued south through what is now Mexico into South America. Wherever they went, the first Americans developed ways of life to suit their surroundings.

AGRICULTURE DEVELOPS  Between 10,000 and 5,000 years ago, a revolution quietly took place in what is now central Mexico. There, people began to plant crops. Some archaeologists believe that maize (corn) was the first plant that ancient Americans developed for human use. Other plants followed—gourds, pumpkins, peppers, beans, and more. Eventually, agricultural techniques spread throughout the Americas.

Today Alaska and Siberia are separated by the Bering Strait, a strip of sea only 55 miles wide. During the last Ice Age, glaciers moved south from the North Pole, freezing up the waters of the Bering Sea and exposing more land. This formed the Beringia land bridge, over which the earliest Americans probably migrated from Asia.
The introduction of agriculture brought tremendous change. Agriculture made it possible for people to remain in one place and to store surplus food. As their surplus increased, people had more time to develop other skills. From this agricultural base evolved larger, more stable societies and increasingly complex cultures. However, some Native American cultures never adopted agriculture and remained nomadic, or unsettled, while others mixed nomadic and non-nomadic lifestyles.

**Complex Societies Flourish in the Americas**

Around 3,000 years ago the first Americans began to form larger communities and build flourishing civilizations. A closer look at the more prominent of these societies reveals the diversity and complexity of the early American world.

**EMPIRES OF MIDDLE AND SOUTH AMERICA** Archaeologists believe that the first empire of the Americas emerged as early as 1200 BC in what is now southern Mexico. There the Olmec peoples created a thriving civilization in the humid rain forest along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Other civilizations appeared in the wake of the Olmec’s mysterious collapse around 400 BC. These included the Maya, who built a dynamic culture in Guatemala and the Yucatán Peninsula between AD 250 and 900, and the Aztec, who swept into the Valley of Mexico in the 1200s.

In South America, the most prominent of these empire builders were the Inca, who around AD 1200 created a glittering empire that stretched nearly 2,500 miles along the mountainous western coast of South America.

These empires’ achievements rivaled those of ancient cultures in other parts of the world. The peoples of these American empires built great cities and ceremonial centers, some with huge palaces, temple-topped pyramids, and central plazas. To record their histories some of these civilizations invented forms of glyph writing—using symbols or images to express words and ideas.

**ANCIENT DESERT FARMERS** As early as 3,000 years ago several North American groups, including the Hohokam and the Anasazi, introduced crops into the arid deserts of the Southwest. Later, between 300 BC and AD 1400, each group established its own civilization. The Hohokam settled in the valleys of the Salt and Gila rivers in what is now central Arizona. The Anasazi took to the mesa tops, cliff sides, and canyon bottoms of the Four Corners region—an area where the present-day states of Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico meet.

**MOUND BUILDERS** To the east of the Mississippi River, in a region extending from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, another series of complex societies developed. There the Adena, the Hopewell, and the Mississippian societies excelled at trade and at building. Some Adena and Hopewell
Interpret Maps

1. Region  Which river ran through the Mississippian, Adena, and Hopewell culture areas?

2. Place  What do the cities of Chichén Itzá and Tenochtitlán reveal about the cultures that created them?
Native Americans Live in Diverse Societies

The native groups of North America were as diverse as the environments in which they lived. The North American continent provided for many different ways of life, from nomadic to the kind of fixed, non-migratory life of farming communities.

CALIFORNIA Not one land, but many lands—that is how the Kashaya Pomo and other native peoples regarded the region that is now California. The land has a long coastline, a lush northwestern rain forest, and a parched southern desert.

The peoples of California adapted to these diverse settings. The Kashaya Pomo hunted waterfowl with slingshots and nets. To the north, the Yurok and Hupa searched the forests for acorns and fished in mountain streams.

NORTHWEST COAST The waterways and forests of the northwest coast sustained large communities year-round. The sea was of prime importance. On a coastline that stretched from what is now southern Alaska to northern California, peoples such as the Kwakiutl (kwä’kē-oot’l), Nootka, and Haida collected shellfish from the beaches and hunted the ocean for whales, sea otters, and seals.

Peoples such as the Kwakiutl decorated masks and boats with magnificent totems, symbols of the ancestral spirits that guided each family. Kwakiutl families also displayed their histories on huge totem poles set in front of their cedar-plank houses. A family’s totems announced its wealth and status.

Leading Kwakiutl families also organized potlatches, elaborate ceremonies in which they gave away large quantities of their possessions. A family’s reputation depended upon the size of its potlatch—that is, on how much wealth it gave away. A family might spend up to 12 years planning the event.

SOUTHWEST In the dry Southwest the Pima and Pueblo tribes, descendants of the Hohokam and Anasazi, lived in a harsh environment. By 1300 the Pueblo and a related tribe, the Hopi, had left the cliff houses of their Anasazi ancestors. The Pueblo built new settlements near waterways such as the Rio Grande, where they could irrigate their farms. However, the Hopi and the Acoma continued to live near the cliffs and developed irrigation systems.
People lived in multistory houses made of adobe or stone and grew corn, beans, melons, and squash. Like their ancestors they built underground kivas, or ceremonial chambers, for religious ceremonies and councils.

The lyrics to the ritual songs they sang may have resembled the ones recalled by a Hopi chief named Lololomai at the start of the 1900s. “This is the song of the men from my kiva,” Lololomai explained. “It tells how in my kiva the chief and his men are praying to make the corn to grow next year for all the people.”

“Thus we, thus we
The night along,
With happy hearts
Wish well one another.
In the chief’s kiva
They, the fathers . . .
Plant the double ear—
Plant the perfect double corn-ear.
So the fields shall shine
With tassels white of perfect corn-ears.
Hither to them, hither come,
Rain that stands and cloud that rushes!”

—Lololomai, quoted in The Indians’ Book

**EASTERN WOODLANDS** The landscape of the Southwest contrasted sharply with the woodlands east of the Mississippi River. Here hardwood forests stretched from the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River in the north to the Gulf of Mexico in the south.

The tribes that lived in the Eastern Woodlands had much in common. Native peoples like the **Iroquois** (ir’ə-kwoi’) built villages in forest clearings and blended agriculture with hunting and gathering. They traveled by foot or by canoe. Because of the vast supply of trees, most groups used woodworking tools to craft everything from snowshoes to canoes.

The peoples of the Eastern Woodlands also differed from one another in their languages, customs, and environments. In the Northeast, where winters could be long and harsh, people relied on wild animals for clothing and food. In the warmer Southeast, groups grew such crops as corn, squash, and beans.

**Native Americans Share Cultural Patterns**

Although no two Native American societies were alike, many did share certain cultural traits. Patterns of trade and the methods used for trade, attitudes toward land use and ownership, and certain religious beliefs were common to many cultures. They also shared similar social values and organized their societies around their families.
Before the arrival of Columbus, the trade routes of North America allowed goods to travel across the continent. The table below illustrates the major trade routes between different regions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Goods Traded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algonquin</td>
<td>Eastern Woodlands</td>
<td>colored feathers, copper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apaches</td>
<td>Plains</td>
<td>meat, hides, salt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navajo</td>
<td>Southwest</td>
<td>pottery, blankets, crops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwakiutl</td>
<td>Northwest Coast</td>
<td>fish oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ute</td>
<td>Great Basin</td>
<td>hides, buffalo robes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choctaw</td>
<td>Southeast</td>
<td>deerskins, bear oil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpret Maps**

1. **Region** What does this map reveal about North America in the 1400s?
2. **Location** Why do you think some regions had more trade routes than others?
TRADING NETWORKS  Trade was one of the biggest factors in bringing Native American peoples into contact with one another. As tribes established permanent settlements, many of these settlements became well known for specific products or skills. The Nootka of the Northwest Coast mastered whaling. The Ojibwa of the upper Great Lakes collected wild rice. The Taos of the Southwest made pottery. These items, and many more, were traded both locally and long-distance.

An elaborate transcontinental trading network enabled one group to trade with another without direct contact. Traders passed along items from far-off, unfamiliar places. Intermediaries carried goods hundreds and sometimes thousands of miles from their source. So extensive was the network of forest trails and river roads that an English sailor named David Ingram claimed in 1568 to have walked along Native American trade routes all the way from Mexico to the Atlantic coast.

LAND USE  Native Americans traded many things, but land was not one of them. They regarded the land as the source of life, not as a commodity to be sold. “We cannot sell the lives of men and animals,” said one Blackfoot chief in the 1800s, “therefore we cannot sell this land.” This attitude would lead to many clashes with the Europeans, who believed in private ownership of land. Native Americans disturbed the land only for the most important activities, such as food gathering or farming. A female shaman, or priestess, from the Wintu of California expressed this age-old respect for the land as she spoke to anthropologist Dorothy Lee.

“When we dig roots, we make little holes. When we build houses, we make little holes. . . . We shake down acorns and pinenuts. We don’t chop down the trees. We only use dead wood [for fires]. . . . But the white people plow up the ground, pull down the trees, [and . . . the] tree says, ‘Don’t. I am sore. Don’t hurt me.’”

—Wintu woman, quoted in Freedom and Culture

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS  While there was no one set of beliefs shared by all Native American societies, nearly all Native Americans thought of the natural world as filled with spirits. Past generations remained alive to guide the living. Every object possessed a voice that might be heard if one listened closely. This included both living and nonliving objects, such as plants, animals, mountains, lakes, and clouds. “I hear what the ground says,” remarked Young Chief of the Cayuses, who lived in what is now Washington and Oregon, in 1855. “The ground says, ‘It is the Great Spirit that placed me here.’ The Great Spirit tells me to take care of the Indians. . . .” Some cultures believed in one supreme being, known as “Great Spirit,” “Great Mystery,” “the Creative Power,” or “the Creator.”

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION  Bonds of kinship, or strong ties among family members, ensured the continuation of tribal customs. Elders instructed the young. In exchange, the young honored the elders and their departed ancestors.
The tasks assigned to men and women varied with each society. Among the Iroquois and Hopi, for example, women owned the household items, and families traced their ancestry from mother to grandmother to great-grandmother, and so on. In other Native American cultures men owned the family possessions and traced their ancestry through their father’s kin.

The division of labor—the assignment of tasks according to gender, age, or status—formed the basis of social order. Among the Kwakiutl, for example, slaves performed the most menial jobs, while nobles ensured that Kwakiutl law was obeyed.

The basic unit of organization among all Native American groups was the family, which included aunts, uncles, cousins, and other relatives. Some tribes further organized the families into clans, or groups of families descended from a common ancestor. Among the Iroquois, for example, members of a
Lesson 1 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Use a chart to list the early civilizations of the Americas. Include the approximate dates they flourished and their locations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civilization</th>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Location</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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What are some similarities that you have noticed among these early civilizations?

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Compare**  In your opinion, were the differences between Native American groups in North America greater than their similarities? Cite specific examples to support your answer.

**Think About:**
- adaptation to physical settings
- the role of tradition
- the variety of goods and languages encountered in trading

4. **Analyze Effects**  How did the development of agriculture affect ancient societies in the Americas?

5. **Evaluate**  Evaluate the achievements of the ancient cultures of the Americas. Which single accomplishment do you find most remarkable and why?

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**Schemitzun**

The sights and sounds of the Native American world come alive each August for several days on the Connecticut reservation of Mashantucket. Here performers and visitors from nearly 500 Native American tribes meet under a massive tent for Schemitzun, the “World Championship of Song and Dance.”

Schemitzun was traditionally a dance to celebrate the corn harvest. Today it has become an occasion for Native Americans to meet, share their art and culture, and celebrate their heritage.

Reading Check

Compare and Contrast What similarities and differences existed among Native American social structures?

- clan often lived together in huge bark-covered longhouses. All families participated in community decision making.
- Not all Native American groups lived together for long periods of time. In societies in which people hunted and gathered, groups broke into smaller bands for hunting. On the plains, for example, families searched the grasslands for buffalo. Groups like these reunited only to celebrate important occasions.
- In the late 1400s, on the eve of the encounter with the Europeans, the rhythms of Native American life were well established. No one could have imagined the changes that were about to transform the Native American societies.

NOW & THEN

**Civilization Dates Location**

- American Beginnings

**Schemitzun**

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NOW & THEN

**Civilization Dates Location**

- American Beginnings
West African Societies Around 1492

The Big Idea
West Africa in the 1400s was home to a variety of peoples and cultures.

Why It Matters Now
Modern African Americans have strong ancestral ties to the people of West Africa.

Key Terms and People
Islam
plantation
Songhai
savanna
Benin
Kongo
lineage

One African’s Story
Leo Africanus was about 18 when he laid eyes on the renowned city of Timbuktu in the West African empire of Songhai. A Muslim born in Granada (in modern Spain) and raised in North Africa, Leo Africanus visited the city with his uncle, who was on a diplomatic mission to the emperor of Songhai. At the time of their journey in 1513, Songhai was one of the largest kingdoms in the world, and the emperor, Askia Muhammad, was rich and powerful. Leo Africanus later described the bustling prosperity of Timbuktu and its lively intellectual climate.

“Here are many shops of . . . merchants, and especially such as weave linen and cotton cloth. And hither do the Barbary [North African] merchants bring cloth of Europe. . . . Here are great store of doctors, judges, priests, and other learned men, that are bountifully maintained at the king’s cost and charges, and hither are brought divers [diverse] manuscripts or written books out of Barbary, which are sold for more money than any other merchandise.”

—Leo Africanus, quoted in The History and Description of Africa Done into English by John Pory

Leo Africanus provides a glimpse of 16th-century West African life. From this region of Africa, and particularly from the West and West-Central coastal areas, would come millions of people brought to the Americas as slaves. These people would have a tremendous impact on American history and culture.
West Africa Connects with the Wider World

Although geographically isolated from Europe and Asia, West Africa by the 1400s had long been connected to the wider world through trade. For centuries, trade had brought into the region new goods, new ideas, and new beliefs, including those of the Islamic religion. Then in the mid-1400s, the level of interaction with the world increased with the arrival of European traders on the West African coast.

THE SAHARA HIGHWAY  The Timbuktu that Leo Africanus described was the hub of a well-established trading network. The network connected most of West Africa to the coastal ports of North Africa, and through these ports to markets in Europe and Asia. Leo Africanus and his uncle reached Timbuktu by following ancient trade routes across the Sahara—the world’s largest desert. At the crossroads of this trade, cities such as Timbuktu, Gao, and Jenne became busy commercial centers. The empires that controlled these cities and trade routes grew wealthy and powerful.

Traders from North Africa brought more than goods across the Sahara—they also brought their Islamic faith. Islam, founded in Arabia in 622 by Muhammad, spread quickly across the Middle East and North Africa. By the 1200s Islam had become the court religion of the large empire of Mali. The rulers of Songhai, including Askia Muhammad, later embraced Islam. Despite its official status, however, Islam did not yet have much influence over the daily lives and religious practices of most West Africans in the late 1400s.

THE PORTUGUESE ARRIVE  The peoples of West Africa and Europe knew little of each other before the 1400s. This situation began to change as Portuguese mariners made trading contacts along the West African coast. By the 1470s Portuguese traders had established an outpost on the West African coast near the large Akan goldfields, the source of much West African gold. Other trading outposts soon followed. These early contacts between West Africans and Portuguese traders would have two significant consequences for West Africa and the Americas. First, direct trade between the Portuguese and the coastal peoples of West Africa bypassed the old trade routes across the Sahara and pulled the coastal region into a closer relationship with Europe. Second, the Portuguese began the European trade in West African slaves.

In the 1480s the Portuguese claimed two uninhabited islands off the African coast, Príncipe and São Tomé. Discovering that the soil and climate were perfect for growing sugarcane, they established large sugar plantations there. A plantation is a farm on which a single crop, usually one that requires much human labor, is grown on a large scale. To work these plantations, the Portuguese began importing slaves from the West African mainland.

At first this trade was limited to a small number of West Africans purchased from village chiefs, usually captives from rival groups. However, the success of the Portuguese slave plantations provided a model that would be reproduced on a larger scale in the Americas—including the British North American colonies.
Three African Kingdoms Flourish
In the late 1400s West Africa was a land of thriving trade, diverse cultures, and many rich and well-ordered states.

SONGhai From about 600 to 1600 a succession of empires—first Ghana, then Mali, and beginning in the mid-1400s, Songhai (sôngˈhiː)—gained power and wealth by controlling the trans-Sahara trade. The rulers of these empires grew enormously rich by taxing the goods that passed through their realms.

With wealth flowing in from the north-south trade routes, the rulers of Songhai could raise large armies and conquer new territory. They could also build cities, administer laws, and support the arts and education. So it was with two great rulers of the Songhai. The first great king, Sunni Ali, who ruled from 1464 to 1492, made Songhai the largest West African empire in history. His military prowess became legendary—during his entire reign, he never lost a battle.

Another great ruler, Askia Muhammad, was a master organizer, a devout Muslim, and a scholar. He organized Songhai into administrative districts and

West Africa in the 1400s

Interpret Maps

1. Human-Environment Interaction What are the three climate zones of West Africa?
2. Location How did Songhai’s location aid the growth of that kingdom?
appointed officials to govern, collect taxes, and regulate trade, agriculture, and fishing. Under his rule, Timbuktu regained its reputation as an important education center as it attracted scholars from all over the Islamic world.

At its height in the 1500s Songhai’s power extended across much of West Africa. However, it did not control the forest kingdoms. Songhai’s cavalry might easily thunder across the savanna, the region of dry grassland, but it could not penetrate the belt of dense rain forest along the southern coast. Protected by the forest, peoples such as the Akan, Ibo, Edo, Ifi, Oyo, and Yoruba lived in kingdoms that thrived in the 1400s and 1500s.

**BENIN** Although the forests provided protection from conquest, they nevertheless allowed access for trade. Traders carried goods out of the forests or paddled them along the Niger River to the savanna. The brisk trade with Songhai and North Africa, and later with Portugal, helped the forest

A desert caravan reaches the fabled Songhai city of Timbuktu.

**Document-Based Investigation Historical Source**

**Trade Taxes**
In 1067 an Arab geographer in Spain named Al-Bakri described the duties (import and export taxes) levied in Ghana.

“For every donkey loaded with salt that enters the country, the king takes a duty of one golden dinar [about one-eighth ounce of gold], and two dinars from every one that leaves. From a load of copper the duty due to the king is five mithquals [also about one-eighth ounce of gold], and from a load of merchandise ten mithquals. . . . The [gold] nuggets found in all the mines . . . are reserved for the king, only gold dust being left for the people.”

—Al-Bakri, quoted in *Africa in the Days of Exploration*

**Analyze Historical Sources**
What does the quote tell you about this king’s wealth?
kingdoms grow. In the 1400s one of these kingdoms, Benin, dominated a large region around the Niger delta.

Within this great walled city, a powerful oba (ruler) named Ewuare headed a highly organized government in which districts were governed by appointed chiefs. Through other appointed officials, the oba controlled trade and managed the metal-working industries such as goldsmithing and brass smithing. He also exchanged ambassadors with Portugal in the late 1400s. Under the patronage of Ewuare and his successors, metalworkers produced stunning and sophisticated works of art, such as bronze sculptures and plaques.

Kongo Within another stretch of rain forest, in West Central Africa, the powerful kingdom of Kongo arose on the lower Zaire (Congo) River. In the late 1400s Kongo consisted of a series of small kingdoms ruled by a single leader called the Manikongo, who lived in what is today Angola. The Manikongo, who could be either a man or a woman, held kingdoms together by a system of royal marriages, taxes, and, when necessary, by war and tribute. By the 1470s the Manikongo oversaw an empire estimated at over 4 million people.

The Bakongo, the people of Kongo, mined iron ore and produced well-wrought tools and weapons. They also wove palm leaf threads into fabric that reminded Europeans of velvet. The Portuguese sailors who first reached Kongo in 1483 were struck by the similarities between Kongo and their own world. Its system of government—a collection of provinces centralized under one strong king—resembled that of many European nations at the time.

West African Culture

In the late 1400s the world of most West Africans was a local one. Most people lived in small villages, where life revolved around family, the community, and tradition. West African customs varied greatly but followed some common patterns. These patterns would influence the future interactions between Africans and Europeans and shape the experience of enslaved Africans in the Americas.

FAMILY AND GOVERNMENT Bonds of kinship—ties among people of the same lineage, or line of common descent—formed the basis of most aspects of life in rural West Africa. Some societies, such as the Akan, were matrilineal—that is, people traced their lineage through their mother’s family. These lineage ties determined not only family loyalties but also inheritances and whom people could marry. Societies such as the Ibo also encouraged people to find a mate outside their lineage groups. These customs helped create a complex web of family alliances.

Within a family, age carried rank. The oldest living descendant of the group’s common ancestor controlled family members and represented them in councils of the larger groups to which a family might belong. These larger groups shared a common language and history and often a common territory. One leader or chief might speak for the group as a whole. But this person rarely spoke without consulting a council of elders made up of the heads of individual extended families.
RELIGION  Religion was important in all aspects of African life. Political leaders claimed authority on the basis of religion. For example, the ruler of the Ife kingdom claimed descent from the first person placed on earth by the “God of the Sky.” Religious rituals were also central to the daily activities of farmers, hunters, and fishers.

West Africans believed that nature was filled with spirits and perceived spiritual forces in both living and nonliving objects. They also believed that the spirits of ancestors spoke to the village elders in dreams. Although West African peoples might worship a variety of ancestral spirits and lesser gods, most believed in a single creator. The Bakongo, for example, believed in Nzambi ampungu, a term that means the “creator of all things,” and so understood the Christian or Muslim belief in a supreme god. However, the Bakongo and other cultures could not understand the Christian and Muslim insistence that West Africans stop worshipping spirits, who were believed to carry out the Creator’s work. Out of this difference grew many cultural conflicts.

LIVELIHOOD  West Africans supported themselves by age-old methods of farming, herding, hunting, and fishing, and by mining and trading. Almost all groups believed in collective ownership of land. Individuals might farm the land, but it reverted to family or village ownership when not in use.

People on the dry savanna depended on rivers, such as the Niger, to nourish their crops and livestock. On the western coast along the Senegal and Gambia rivers, farmers converted tangled mangrove swamps into rice fields. This grain—and the skills for growing it—would accompany West Africans to the Americas.
USE OF SLAVE LABOR  West Africans divided tasks by age and by social status. At the lowest rung in some societies were slaves. However, in Africa, people were not born into slavery, nor did slavery necessarily mean a lifetime of servitude. In Africa, slaves could escape their bondage in a number of ways. Sometimes they were adopted into or they married into the family they served. This was a very different kind of servitude from that which evolved in the Americas, where slavery continued from generation to generation and was based on race.

While slavery eventually came to dominate the interaction between Africans and Europeans, it was not the primary concern of the Portuguese sailors who first explored the African coast. At this time in the late 1400s, a variety of political, social, and economic changes in Europe spurred rulers and adventurers to push outward into unexplored reaches of the ocean.

Reading Check
Find Main Ideas What agricultural skills did West Africans bring to the Americas?

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. Organize Information  Make an outline of the main topics from the lesson, and fill it in with factual details related to each topic.

I. West Africa’s Climate Zones
II. West Africa’s Major Geographical Features
III. Three West African Kingdoms and Their Climate Zones

2. Key Terms and People  For each key term in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Analyze Causes  What factors helped the trade system flourish in West Africa? Use evidence from the text to support your response.

Think About:
• the geography of the region
• the kinds of goods exchanged
• the societies that emerged in West Africa

4. Analyze Effects  What effects did Portuguese trade routes have on West Africa?

5. Contrast  How did West African slavery differ from the kind of slavery that developed in the Americas?

Kente Cloth
Today people of African descent all over the world value as a symbol of Africa the multicolored fabric known as kente cloth. For African Americans who choose to wear kente cloth or display it in their homes, the fabric serves as a tangible link to West African cultures from which their ancestors came.

Artisans of the Asante (Ashanti) people of modern Ghana have woven kente cloth for centuries. Working at looms, they produce long strips of cloth of complex designs and varying colors. These strips are then sewn together into a brilliant fabric that sparkles with reds, greens, blues, golds, and whatever other hues the weavers chose as dyes.

Now & Then
I. West Africa’s Climate Zones
II. West Africa’s Major Geographical Features
III. Three West African Kingdoms and Their Climate Zones

Reading Check
Find Main Ideas What agricultural skills did West Africans bring to the Americas?
The Big Idea
Political, economic, and intellectual developments in western Europe in the 1400s led to the Age of Exploration.

Why It Matters Now
European settlement in the Americas led to the founding of the United States.

Key Terms and People
Prince Henry
Renaissance
hierarchy
nuclear family
Crusades
Reformation

One European’s Story

During the early decades of the 15th century, Prince Henry of Portugal, often called “Henry the Navigator,” sent Portuguese ships to explore the west coast of Africa. According to his biographer, Prince Henry’s driving motivation was the need to know.

“The noble spirit of this Prince . . . was ever urging him both to begin and to carry out very great deeds. For which reason . . . he had also a wish to know the land that lay beyond the isles of Canary and that Cape called Bojador, for that up to his time, neither by writings, nor by the memory of man, was known with any certainty the nature of the land beyond that Cape . . . it seemed to him that if he or some other lord did not endeavor to gain that knowledge, no mariners or merchants would ever dare to attempt it. . . .”

—Gomes Eanes de Zurara, from The Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea

Prince Henry’s curiosity was typical of the “noble spirit” of the Renaissance (rē´n-ı-sāns´), a period when Europeans began investigating all aspects of the physical world. The term Renaissance means “rebirth” of the interest in the physical world that had characterized ancient Greece and Rome. With his desire for knowledge, Prince Henry helped launch the era of European expansion.
The European Social Order

In the late 1400s most Europeans, like most Native Americans and most Africans, lived in small villages, bound to the land and to ancient traditions.

THE SOCIAL HIERARCHY  European communities based their organization on social hierarchy, that is, according to rank. Monarchs and nobles held most of the wealth and power at the top of the hierarchy. At the bottom labored the peasants, who made up the majority of the people. The nobility offered their peasants land and protection. In return, the peasants supplied the nobles with livestock or crops—and sometimes with military service.

Within the social structure, few individuals moved beyond the position into which they were born. Europeans generally accepted their lot as part of a larger order ordained by God and reflected in the natural world. Writing in the late 1500s, William Shakespeare expressed the fixed nature of this order in one of his plays.

“The heavens themselves, the planets, and this center [earth] Observe degree, priority, and place... Take but degree away, untune that string, And hark! what discord follows...”
—William Shakespeare, from Troilus and Cressida

One group that did experience social mobility was composed of artisans and merchants, the people who created and traded goods for money.

Document-Based Investigation Historical Source

European Social Order

This miniature painting representing the month of June is a page from a prayer book calendar made by the Limbourg brothers around the year 1416. The book, Les Très Riches Heures du Duc de Berry, was made for a younger son of the French king. It tells us a great deal about the aristocratic view of the European social order.

In the background, the walls of the city of Paris protect a palace and the royal chapel, buildings that represent the two most powerful institutions in medieval European society: church and aristocracy.

In the foreground, peasants mow the fields in an orderly world of peace and tranquility. However, the image is a fantasy, an idealized vision painted to please the aristocracy. There is no hint of the peasants’ grinding poverty or of the violence of the Hundred Years’ War that was at that moment devastating northern France.

Analyze Historical Sources
1. What does the painting tell you about the role of gender in the division of labor during the 1400s?
2. Why might images of poverty have displeased the aristocracy?
Although this group was relatively small in the 1400s, the profit they earned from trade would eventually make them a valuable source of tax revenue. Monarchs needed them to finance costly overseas exploration and expansion.

**THE FAMILY IN SOCIETY** Europeans recognized and respected kinship ties. However, the extended family was not as important for them as it was for Native American and African societies at this time. Instead, life centered around the nuclear family, the household made up of a mother and father and their children. As in other societies, gender largely determined the division of labor. Among peasant families, for example, men generally did most of the field labor and herded livestock. Women did help in the fields, but they also handled childcare and household labor, such as preparing and preserving the family's food.

**Christianity Shapes the European Outlook**

The Roman Catholic Church was the dominant religious institution in western Europe. The leader of the church—the pope—and his bishops had great political and spiritual authority. In the spiritual realm, church leaders determined most matters of faith. Parish priests interpreted the scriptures. They also urged the faithful to endure earthly sufferings in exchange for the promise of eternal life in heaven, or salvation. Priests also administered important rituals called the sacraments—such as baptism and communion—that were thought to ensure salvation. In Christian theology, salvation is the deliverance from the power or penalty of sin.

Hand in hand with the belief in salvation was the call to convert people of other faiths. This missionary call spurred Europe to reach out beyond its borders first to defend, and then to spread, the faith.

**CRUSADING CHRISTIANITY** By the early 700s Muslim armies had seized huge areas of Asia and North Africa, along with most of the Iberian Peninsula, where Spain and Portugal sit. To regain this territory, Spanish Christians waged a campaign called the reconquista, or reconquest. By 1492 the forces of the combined kingdoms of Queen Isabella of Castile and King Ferdinand of Aragon, who married in 1469, finally drove the Muslims from the peninsula. This victory ended more than seven centuries of religious warfare. A united Spain stood ready to assert itself internationally and to spread Christianity around the globe.

Meanwhile, Christian armies from all over western Europe responded to the church’s call to force the Muslims out of the Holy Land around Jerusalem. From 1096 to 1270 Europeans launched the Crusades, a series of military expeditions to the Middle East in the name of Christianity.

In the end these bloody Crusades failed to “rescue” the Holy Land, but they had two consequences that encouraged European exploration and expansion. First, they sparked an increase in trade, as crusaders returned home with a new taste for products from Asia. Second, the Crusades
weakened the power of European nobles, many of whom lost their lives or fortunes in the wars. Monarchs were able to take advantage of the nobles’ weakened ranks by consolidating their own power. Eventually, monarchs sponsored overseas exploration in order to increase their wealth and power.

**DECLINE IN CHURCH AUTHORITY** The Crusades had a third long-term consequence: the decline of the power of the pope. The ultimate failure of these campaigns weakened the prestige of the papacy (the office of the pope), which had led the quest. Power struggles in the 1300s and 1400s between the church and European kings further reduced papal authority and tipped the balance of power in favor of the monarchies.

Disagreements over church authority, along with outrage over corrupt practices among the clergy, led to a reform movement in the early 1500s. This movement, known as the Reformation, divided Christianity in western Europe between Catholicism and Protestantism. This split deepened the rivalries between European nations during the period of American colonization and sent newly formed Protestant sects across the Atlantic to seek religious freedom.

**Changes Come to Europe**

As the 1400s began, European societies were still recovering from a series of disasters during the previous century. From 1314 to 1316, heavy rain and disease wiped out crops and livestock. Thousands of peasants died of starvation. Then beginning in the 1340s, an epidemic of plagues killed over 25 million people—a fourth of Europe’s population. Meanwhile, long wars also raged across the continent, including the Hundred Years’ War between England and France.

However, amid this turmoil, modern Europe began to take shape. After the plague Europe experienced vigorous growth and change. The expansion of Europe pushed Europeans to look to other lands.

**“King Isabella” (1451–1504)**

Queen Isabella played a central role in European exploration by sponsoring Christopher Columbus’s voyages to the Americas. She made her mark on the Old World as well. As co-ruler of Spain, Isabella participated in her country’s religious and military matters.

The queen often defied the pope to ensure that her candidates were appointed to positions in the Spanish church. In addition, Isabella tasted battle more frequently than most rulers, either male or female. The queen rode among her troops in full armor, personally commanding them in Ferdinand’s absence. Whenever Isabella appeared, her troops shouted, “Castile, Castile, for our King Isabella!”

Reading Check
Analyze Effects
How did religious changes in Europe affect the European colonization of the Americas?
THE GROWTH OF COMMERCE AND POPULATION  The Crusades opened up Asian trade routes and whetted the European appetite for Eastern luxuries, such as silk, porcelain, tea, and rugs. Merchants in Italian city-states were the first to profit from trade with Asia. They traded with the Muslim merchants who controlled the flow of goods through much of the Middle East. As trade opportunities increased, new markets were established and new trade routes were opened.

By the end of the 1400s, Europe’s population had rebounded from the plagues. This increase stimulated commerce and encouraged the growth of towns. The return to urban life (which had been largely neglected after the fall of Rome) brought about far-reaching social and cultural change. The new urban middle class would assume increasing political power, especially in Britain and its colonies.

THE RISE OF NATIONS  The Crusades weakened the nobility and strengthened monarchies. Western European monarchs began exerting more control over their lands by collecting new taxes, raising professional armies, and strengthening central governments. Among the new allies of the monarchs were merchants. They willingly accepted taxes on their newfound wealth in exchange for the protection or expansion of trade. By the late 1400s four major nations were taking shape in western Europe: Portugal, Spain, France, and England.
Only the king or queen of a unified nation had enough power and resources to finance overseas exploration. Monarchs had a powerful motive to encourage the quest for new lands and trading routes: they needed money to maintain standing armies and large bureaucracies. So the monarchs of Portugal, Spain, France, and England began looking overseas for wealth.

**THE RENAISSANCE** “Thank God it has been permitted to us to be born in this new age, so full of hope and promise,” exclaimed Matteo Palmieri, a scholar in 15th-century Italy. Palmieri’s optimism captured the enthusiastic spirit of the Renaissance. The Renaissance led to a more secular spirit, an interest in worldly pleasures, and a new confidence in human achievement. It started in Italy, a region stimulated by commercial contact with Asia and Africa. The Renaissance soon spread throughout Europe. Renaissance artists rejected the flat, two-dimensional images of medieval painting. Instead, they favored the deep perspectives and fully rounded forms of ancient sculpture and painting. Although their themes were still often religious in nature, Renaissance artists portrayed their subjects more realistically than had medieval artists, using new techniques such as perspective. European scholars reexamined the writings of ancient philosophers, mathematicians, geographers, and scientists. They also studied scholarly Arab works brought home from the Crusades.

The Renaissance encouraged people to regard themselves as individuals, to have confidence in human capabilities, and to look forward to the fame their achievements might bring. This attitude prompted many to seek glory through adventure, discovery, and conquest.

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**Factors Leading to the Age of Exploration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Military</th>
<th>European monarchs required funds to maintain large standing armies. Technological advances in sailing and firearms revolutionized warfare and played a key role in the European conquest of the Americas.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Asian trade routes opened, beginning an interest in Eastern luxuries and greatly increasing trade opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>European monarchs became more powerful as a result of the Crusades, weakening the power of the nobles who fought them. These monarchs were then able to sponsor overseas exploration to seek more wealth and power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>The Catholic Church continued to teach followers to travel in order to spread the faith. Some Europeans went to the Americas to do so. The Reformation divided Europe between Catholicism and Protestantism. It motivated Protestant sects to move to the Americas to colonize.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>People were motivated to travel as merchants because they would have the opportunity to gain affluence and rise in the social hierarchy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpret Tables**

Which of the factors in the table do you think was the most significant in influencing Europeans to explore other lands? Explain.
Europe Enters a New Age of Expansion

Even before the Renaissance, Europeans were venturing beyond their known world. One of the most famous of these Europeans was Marco Polo, a Venetian merchant who traveled overland to China. Although Polo’s journey took place in the 1200s, it was not until 1477 that the first printed edition of Polo’s account caused renewed interest in the East. Like other European merchants, Polo traveled to Asia by land. The expense and peril of such journeys led Europeans to seek alternative routes. European merchants and explorers listened to the reports of travelers and reexamined the maps drawn by ancient geographers.

SAILING TECHNOLOGY Europeans, however, needed more than maps to guide them. On the open seas, winds easily blew ships off course. With only the sun, moon, and stars to guide them, few ships ventured beyond the sight of land. To overcome their fears, European ship captains adopted the compass and the astrolabe, navigating tools that helped plot direction. They also took advantage of innovations in sailing technology that allowed ships such as
the caravel to sail against the wind. The caravel, the ship used by most early Portuguese and Spanish explorers, had many advantages over earlier vessels. It was lighter, swifter, and more maneuverable than other ships.

**PORTUGAL TAKES THE LEAD** Under Prince Henry the Navigator, Portugal developed and employed these innovations. Although Henry was only an armchair navigator, he earned his nickname by establishing an up-to-date sailing school and by sponsoring the earliest voyages.

For almost 40 years Prince Henry sent his captains sailing farther and farther south along the west coast of Africa. Portuguese explorations continued after Prince Henry died. Bartolomeu Dias rounded the southern tip of Africa in 1488. Vasco da Gama reached India ten years later. By sailing around Africa to eastern Asia via the Indian Ocean, Portuguese traders were able to cut their costs and increase their profits.

While cartographers redrew their maps to show the route around Africa, an Italian sea captain named Christopher Columbus traveled from nation to nation with his own collection of maps and figures. Columbus believed there was an even shorter route to Asia—one that lay west across the Atlantic.

In Spain an adviser of Queen Isabella pointed out that support of the proposed venture would cost less than a week’s entertainment of a foreign official. Isabella was convinced and summoned Columbus to appear before the Spanish court.

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**Lesson 3 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Create a web on your paper. Fill it in with the changes taking place in western Europe during the 1400s.

   ![Web Diagram](image)

   How did these changes help lead to the European Age of Exploration?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Issues** Which European event of the late 1400s to early 1500s do you think had the most far-reaching impact on European lives? Explain and support your answer.

   **Think About:**
   - the importance of religion
   - the role of adventurers and explorers
   - the increase in prosperity

4. **Develop Historical Perspective** In what ways would the revival of the cities have affected European social and cultural life?

5. **Draw Conclusions** Why do you think other European nations lagged behind Portugal in the race for overseas exploration? Support your reasons with details from the text.
One European’s Story

In January 1492 the Genoese sailor Christopher Columbus stood before the Spanish court with a daring plan: he would find a route to Asia by sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean. The plan was accepted, and on August 3, 1492, Columbus embarked on a voyage that changed the course of history. He began his journal by restating the deal he had struck with Spain.

“Based on the information that I had given Your Highnesses about the land of India and about a Prince who is called the Great Khan [of China], which in our language means ‘King of Kings,’ Your Highnesses decided to send me . . . to the regions of India, to see . . . the peoples and the lands, and to learn of . . . the measures which could be taken for their conversion to our Holy Faith. . . . Your Highnesses . . . ordered that I shall go to the east, but not by land as is customary. I was to go by way of the west, whence until today we do not know with certainty that anyone has gone. . . .”

—Christopher Columbus, from his log

Although Columbus did not find a route to Asia, his voyage set in motion a process that brought together the American, European, and African worlds.
Columbus Crosses the Atlantic

The Niña, Pinta, and Santa Maria slid quietly out of a Spanish port in the predawn hours of August 3, 1492. Although they were setting out into the unknown, their crews included no soldiers, priests, or ambassadors—only sailors and cabin boys with a taste for the sea. In a matter of months, Columbus’s fleet would reach the sandy shores of what was to Europeans an astonishing new world.

FIRST ENCOUNTERS At about 2 a.m. on October 12, 1492, a lookout aboard the Pinta caught sight of two white sand dunes sparkling in the moonlight. In between lay a mass of dark rocks. “Tierra! Tierra!” he shouted. “Land! Land!”

At dawn Columbus went ashore and caught sight of a group of people who called themselves the Taino (tī’ño), or “noble ones.” He renamed their island San Salvador, or “Holy Savior,” and claimed it for Spain.

GOLD, LAND, AND RELIGION The search for gold was one of the main reasons for Columbus’s journey. On his second day in the Americas, Columbus expressed one of the main reasons he had embarked on his journey. “I have been very attentive,” he wrote, “and have tried very hard to find out if there is any gold here.” When he did not find gold on San Salvador, he left to look elsewhere. Columbus spent 96 days exploring some small islands in what is now the Bahamas and the coastlines of two other Caribbean islands, known today as Cuba and Hispaniola. All along the way he bestowed Spanish names on territory he claimed for Spain. “It was my wish to bypass no island without taking possession,” he wrote.

Columbus also honored his promise to assert Christian domination. “In every place I have entered, islands and lands, I have always planted a cross,” he noted on November 16. Less than two weeks later, he predicted, “Your Highnesses will order a city . . . built in these regions [for] these countries will be easily converted.”

Columbus Describes the Taino

On the first day of their encounter, the generosity of the Taino startled Columbus. “They are friendly and well-dispositioned people who bear no arms,” he wrote in his log. “They traded and gave everything they had with good will.” But after only two days, Columbus offered an assessment of the Taino that had dark implications for the future.

“IT WOULD BE UNNECESSARY TO BUILD . . . [A FORT HERE] BECAUSE THESE PEOPLE ARE SO SIMPLE IN DEEDS OF ARMS. . . . IF YOUR HIGHNESSES ORDER EITHER TO BRING ALL OF THEM TO CASTILE OR TO HOLD THEM AS CAPTIVOS [SLAVES] ON THEIR OWN ISLAND IT COULD EASILY BE DONE, BECAUSE WITH ABOUT FIFTY MEN YOU COULD CONTROL AND SUBJUGATE THEM ALL, MAKING THEM DO WHATEVER YOU WANT.”

—Christopher Columbus, quoted in Columbus: The Great Adventure

Analyze Historical Sources

Why do you think Columbus and other Spanish explorers would want to “subjugate” the Taino people?
SPANISH FOOTHOLDS  In early January 1493 Columbus began his trip back to Spain. He was convinced that he had landed on islands off Asia known to Europeans as the Indies. Columbus called the people he met los indios. The term translated into “Indian,” a word mistakenly applied to all the diverse peoples of the Americas.

Columbus’s reports thrilled the Spanish monarchs, who funded three more voyages. When he set sail for the Americas in September 1493, Columbus was no longer an explorer but an empire builder. He commanded a fleet of some 17 ships and several hundred armed soldiers. He also brought five priests and more than 1,000 colonists, including hidalgos, or members of the minor nobility.

These European soldiers, priests, and colonists, and the many others that followed, would occupy first the Caribbean and then most of the Americas. Upon arriving, they imposed their will on the Native Americans who lived there. Their arrival on Hispaniola, the island presently divided between Haiti and the Dominican Republic, signaled the start of a cultural clash that would continue for the next five centuries.

The Impact on Native Americans

The Taino who greeted Columbus in 1492 could not have imagined the colonization and outbreaks of disease that would soon follow. While the Taino resisted Spanish control, there was little they could do against the viruses and diseases that accompanied the new settlers.

METHODS OF COLONIZATION  The European system of colonization—the establishment of distant settlements controlled by the parent country—was established long before Columbus set sail for Hispaniola. During the Crusades, Italians from Venice had taken over Arab sugar farms in what is now Lebanon. By the late 1400s the Portuguese had established plantation colonies on islands off the coast of West Africa, and Spain had colonized the Canary Islands.

From this experience Europeans learned the advantages of using the plantation system. They also realized the economic benefits of using forced labor. Finally, they learned to use European weapons to dominate a people who had less sophisticated weapons. These tactics would be used in full force against the peoples that the Europeans called Indians.

RESISTANCE AND CONQUEST  The natives of the Caribbean, however, did not give in to Columbus and the Spaniards without fighting. In November 1493 Columbus attempted to conquer the present-day island of St. Croix. Instead of surrendering, the inhabitants fired rounds of poisoned arrows. The Spaniards won easily. The struggle, however, proved that Native Americans would not be easily conquered as Columbus predicted.

Controlling the Taino who inhabited Hispaniola was even more difficult. After several rebellions, the Taino submitted to Columbus for several years but revolted again in 1495. The Spanish response was swift and cruel. A later
settler, the missionary Bartolomé de Las Casas, criticized the Spaniards’ brutal response.

“This tactic begun here . . . [will soon] spread throughout these Indies and will end when there is no more land nor people to subjugate and destroy in this part of the world.”

—Bartolomé de Las Casas, quoted in Columbus: The Great Adventure

**DISEASE RAVAGES THE NATIVE AMERICANS** European settlers brought deadly diseases such as measles, mumps, chicken pox, smallpox, and typhus. These diseases devastated Native Americans, who had not developed any natural immunity to them. They died by the thousands. According to one estimate, nearly one-third of Hispaniola’s estimated 300,000 inhabitants died during Columbus’s time there. By 1508 fewer than 100,000 survivors lived on the island. Sixty years later only two villages were left. These illnesses would soon spread to the rest of the Americas. More surely than any army, disease conquered region after region.

**The Slave Trade Begins**

With disease reducing the native workforce in the Americas, European settlers turned to Africa for slaves. In the coming years European slave ships would haul hundreds of thousands of Africans across the Atlantic to toil in the Americas.

The enslavement of Native Americans was a controversial issue among the Spaniards. Unfortunately, the Spanish saw the use of Africans as a possible solution to the colonies’ labor shortage. Advised Las Casas, “The labor of one . . . [African] . . . [is] more valuable than that of four Indians; every effort should be made to bring many . . . [Africans] from Guinea.”

As more natives died of disease, the demand for Africans grew. The price of enslaved Africans rose, and more Europeans joined the slave trade. African slavery was becoming an essential part of the European-American economic system.

The Atlantic slave trade would devastate many African societies. These societies lost many of their fittest members. Before the slave trade ended in the 1800s, it would drain Africa of at least 12 million people.

**The Impact on Europeans**

Columbus’s voyages had profound effects on Europe as well. Merchants and monarchs saw an opportunity to increase their wealth and influence. Ordinary people saw a chance to live in a new world, relatively free of social and economic constraints. Within a century, thousands of Europeans began crossing the Atlantic. This became one of the biggest voluntary migrations in history.
The voyages of Columbus and others led to the introduction of new plants and animals to Europe, Africa, and the Americas. Ships took plants and animals from the Americas back to Europe and to Africa. When they returned to the Americas, ships brought items from the Eastern Hemisphere to the Western Hemisphere. This global transfer of living things, called the **Columbian Exchange**, began with Columbus’s first voyage and continues today.

**NATIONAL RIVALRIES** Overseas expansion awakened European rivalries. Portugal was the pioneer in navigation and exploration. It deeply resented Spain’s sudden conquests. Pope Alexander VI, a Spaniard, stepped in to avoid war between the two nations in 1493. In the **Treaty of Tordesillas** (tôr´də–sê´äs) signed in 1494, Spain and Portugal agreed to divide the Western Hemisphere between them. Lands to the west of an imaginary vertical line drawn in the Atlantic, including most of the Americas, belonged to Spain. Lands to the east of this line, including Brazil, belonged to Portugal.

The plan proved impossible to enforce. Its only long-lasting effect was to give Portugal a colony—Brazil—in a South America that was largely Spanish. Otherwise, the agreement had no effect on the English, Dutch, or French. All of these nations began colonizing the Americas during the early 1600s.

**A New Society Is Born**

Christopher Columbus lived on Hispaniola until 1500. That year, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella ordered him to leave. They were dissatisfied with the explorer’s inability to maintain order on the island. After further travels throughout the Caribbean, Columbus reluctantly returned to Spain in 1504. He died in Spain two years later. The daring sea captain went to his grave disappointed that he had not reached China.
Neither Columbus nor anyone else could have foreseen the long chain of events that his voyages set in motion. In time, settlers from England would transplant their cultures to colonies in North America. From within these colonies would emerge a new society—and a new nation—based on ideas of representative government and religious tolerance.

The story of the United States of America thus begins with a meeting of North American, African, and European peoples and cultures that radically transformed all three worlds. The upheaval threw unfamiliar peoples and customs together on a grand scale. Although the Europeans tried to

<table>
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<tr>
<th>POINT</th>
<th>COUNTERPOINT</th>
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<tr>
<td>“Columbus’s achievements were historic and heroic.”</td>
<td>“The legacy of Columbus is primarily one of ‘genocide, cruelty, and slavery.”</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Many historians argue that Columbus’s fateful voyages produced many long-term benefits. As the journalist Paul Gray notes, “Columbus’s journey was the first step in a long process that eventually produced the United States of America, . . . a symbol and a haven of individual liberty for people throughout the world.”

Other historians suggest that respect is due Columbus for the sheer dimension of the change he caused.

“The Columbian discovery was of greater magnitude than any other discovery or invention in human history . . . both because of the . . . development of the New World and because of the numerous other discoveries that have stemmed from it,” asserts the historian Paolo Emilio Taviani.

Millions of Native Americans were enslaved or killed by Europeans and the diseases they brought with them. Some historians contend that this does not take away from Columbus’s achievements. They argue that sacrifice is often necessary for the sake of progress. Further, they claim that, like any historical figure, Columbus was a man of his time. He should not be condemned for acting according to the values of the age in which he lived.

Some historians have questioned the traditional view of Columbus as a hero. The historian Hans Konig argues that Columbus’s legacy should be deplored rather than celebrated: “The year 1492 opened an era of genocide, cruelty, and slavery on a larger scale than had ever been seen before.” Speaking to the experience of Native Americans in particular, the activist Suzan Shown Harjo insists that “this half millennium of land grabs and one-cent treaty sales has been no bargain [for Native Americans].”

Historian Howard Zinn argues that the actions of the European conquistadors and settlers were unnecessarily cruel and plainly immoral. Zinn questions whether the suffering of Native Americans can be justified by European gains: “If there are necessary sacrifices to be made for human progress, is it not essential to hold to the principle that those to be sacrificed must make the decision [to be sacrificed] themselves?”

In any event, Konig claims, the balance does not favor Columbus: “all the gold and silver stolen and shipped to Spain did not make the Spanish people richer . . . . They ended up [with] . . . a deadly inflation, a starving population, the rich richer, the poor poorer, and a ruined peasant class.”

Critical Thinking

1. **Connect to History**  Do research to find out more about the Taino’s encounters with Columbus. Then write a monologue from the point of view of either (1) a Taino or (2) Columbus or a member of his expeditions.

2. **Connect to Today**  How does each side view the tradeoff between the human progress and the violence resulting from Columbus’s voyages? With which side do you agree? Why?
Lesson 4 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Create a timeline of the major events of Columbus’s voyages and interactions with Native Americans. Use the dates already plotted on the timeline below as a guide.

   ![Timeline of Events]

   How did the Americas change during Columbus’s lifetime as a result of his voyages?

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Effects**  What do you think were three of the most important long-term consequences of Columbus’s encounters in the Americas?

   **Think About:**
   - conquering and claiming land
   - forced labor of Native Americans and Africans
   - the Columbian Exchange

4. **Develop Historical Perspective**  Why did European explorers believe they could simply claim lands for their home countries, even though these lands were already populated?

5. **Summarize**  In the centuries before Columbus’s voyages, where had Europeans gained experience in colonization?

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Reading Check

**Analyze Issues**  Why do you think the Europeans were not completely successful in their efforts to impose their ways on Native Americans and Africans?

**Interpret Graphs**

1. What happened to the Native American population in the centuries after 1492?
2. Which group outnumbered the Native American population by 1780?

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North American Population, 1492–1780

![Population Graph]

Sources: American Indians: The First of This Land; American Indian Holocaust and Survival: A Population History Since 1492; A Concise History of World Population; Historical Abstracts of the United States
The Big Idea
Throughout the 1500s and 1600s, the Spanish conquered Central and portions of North America.

Why It Matters Now
Spanish language, religion, and architecture continue to influence the Americas.

Key Terms and People
Hernándo Cortés
conquistador
New Spain
mestizo
encomienda
Juan Ponce de León
New Mexico
Popé

One American’s Story

In 1519 the native world near Tabasco in southeastern Mexico changed forever. That year Hernándo Cortés led an army into the American mainland, eager to claim new lands for Spain. Tabasco was a province of the mighty Aztec empire. The peoples of Tabasco resisted the invaders but were no match for the Spaniards’ rifles and cannons.

In surrendering, the natives handed over 20 women to the Spaniards. One of these women was Doña Marina, or Malinche. Malinche easily mastered the Spanish language. She soon acted as both translator and guide for Cortés as he fought and negotiated his way through Mexico. She also proved to be a brave and daring warrior. Bernal Díaz del Castillo, one of Cortés’s foot soldiers, noted Malinche’s courage.

“Doña Marina . . . possessed such manly valor that, although she had heard every day how the Indians were going to kill us and eat our flesh with chili, and had seen us surrounded in the late battles, and knew that all of us were wounded or sick, yet never allowed us to see any sign of fear in her, only . . . courage.”

—Bernal Díaz del Castillo, quoted in Notable Latin American Women

Malinche played a key role in the early stages of the Spanish conquest of the Americas. The Spanish were the first European settlers in the Americas. They greatly enriched their empire and left a mark on the cultures of North and South America that still exists today.
The Spanish Claim a New Empire

In the wake of Columbus's voyages, Spanish explorers took to the seas to claim new colonies for Spain. These explorers, known as conquistadors (conquerors), were lured by the prospect of vast lands filled with gold and silver. They pushed first into the Caribbean region—the islands and coast of Central and South America along the Caribbean Sea. Then they swept through Mexico and south to the tip of South America.

CORTÉS SUBDUES THE AZTEC  Soon after landing in Mexico, Cortés learned of the vast and wealthy Mexica, or Aztec, empire, located deep in the region's interior. The Aztec, members of the diverse Nahua peoples of central Mexico, dominated the region. Cortés set off to conquer the Aztec with a force of 600 soldiers, 17 horses, numerous dogs, and 10 cannons. As he marched inland, Cortés was a gifted diplomat as well as military leader. Cortés convinced those Nahua who had long resented the spread of Aztec power to join his ranks.

After marching for weeks through 200 miles of difficult mountain passes, Cortés and his legions finally looked on the magnificent Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán. The Spaniards marveled at Tenochtitlán. It had towering temples and elaborate engineering works—including a system that brought fresh water into the city. “We were amazed,” Bernal Díaz said of his first glimpse of Tenochtitlán. “Some of our soldiers even asked whether the things we saw were not a dream.”

BIOGRAPHY

Hernándo Cortés (1485–1547)

Cortés made himself the enemy of the Native Americans, but the daring conquistador had few friends among Spaniards either. Spanish authorities on Cuba, where Cortés owned land, accused him of murdering his wife, Catalina Juárez. “There were ugly accusations, but none proved,” wrote Juárez's biographer.

The Cuban governor, Diego Velázquez, resented Cortés's arrogance. He relieved him of the command of a gold-seeking expedition to the mainland. Cortés left Cuba anyway.

As he fought his way through Mexico, Cortés had to battle not only the Native Americans, but also the Spanish forces that Velázquez had sent to arrest him.
While the Aztec city astonished the Spaniards, the capital’s glittering gold stock seemed to hypnotize them. “They picked up the gold and fingered it like monkeys,” one Native American witness recalled. “They hungered like pigs for that gold.”

Convinced at first that Cortés was an armor-clad god, the Aztec emperor Montezuma agreed to give the Spanish explorer a share of the empire’s existing gold supply. Cortés admitted that he and his comrades had “a disease of the heart that only gold can cure.” He eventually forced the Aztec to mine more gold and silver. In the spring of 1520 the Aztec rebelled against the Spaniards’ intrusion. It is believed that, before driving out Cortés’s forces, the Aztec stoned Montezuma to death, having come to regard him as a traitor.

While they successfully repelled the Spanish invaders, the natives found they could do little to stop disease. By the time Cortés launched a counterattack in 1521, the Spanish and their native allies overran an Aztec force that was greatly reduced by smallpox and measles. After several months of fighting, the invaders finally sacked and burned Tenochtitlán, and the Aztec surrendered.

While flames still flickered in the shattered capital, Cortés laid plans for the colony of New Spain. This colony included the Spanish-ruled land north of the isthmus of Panama. Cortés chose the capital, which he called Mexico City, and it became the center of Spanish power in the New World. Within three years, Spanish churches and homes rose from the foundations of old native temples and palaces in Mexico City. Cathedrals and a university followed.

**SPANISH PATTERN OF CONQUEST** In building their new American empire, the Spaniards drew from techniques used during the reconquest of Spain from the Moors. The Moors were a Muslim people from North Africa who had occupied Spain for centuries. When conquering the Moors in the late 1400s, the Spanish lived among them and imposed upon them their Spanish culture.

Spanish settlers in the Americas were mostly men and were known as peninsulares. Marriage between peninsulares and native women was common. These marriages created a large mestizo—or mixed Spanish and Native American—population. Their descendants live today in Mexico, other Latin American countries, and the United States.

Although the Spanish conquerors lived among and intermarried with the native people, they also oppressed them. The Spanish exploited the land for its precious resources. In doing so, the Spanish forced the native workers to labor within a system known as encomienda, in which the natives farmed, ranched, or mined for Spanish landlords, who had received the rights to their labor from Spanish authorities. A harsh pattern of labor emerged under the encomienda and was protested by some Spanish priests.

In 1542 the Spanish monarchy, which had tried to encourage fair treatment of native subjects, abolished the encomienda. To meet their intense labor needs, the Spaniards instead turned to other labor systems and began to use African slaves.
European Exploration of the Americas, 1492-1682

- **Juan de la Cosa** (pilot-navigator on Columbus's ship Niña) drew the known world on this oxhide map in 1500.

**Interpret Maps**

1. **Movement** How many voyages to the Americas did Columbus make?

2. **Place** In what years did England and France sail to the Americas and which regions did they explore?
The Conquistadors Push North

The Spanish dreamed of new conquests and more gold. They were also afraid that European nations might invade their American empire from the north. Spain undertook a series of expeditions into what would become the southeastern and southwestern United States.

EXPLORING FLORIDA AND THE SOUTHEAST In 1513 on Easter Sunday—a day the Spaniards called pascua florida, or “feast of flowers”—explorer Juan Ponce de León spied a tree-covered beach. In honor of the holiday he named the land La Florida. For almost five decades the Spanish probed La Florida and the surrounding areas for gold, battling the local residents, disease, and starvation. In 1562, discouraged by the lack of economic success, Spain abandoned further exploration of Florida.

Within months of Spain’s departure a band of French settlers arrived near what is now Jacksonville. Accompanying the settlers were French pirates, or buccaneers. They quickly took interest in Spain’s treasure-filled ships sailing from the Gulf of Mexico. Consequently, Spain reversed its decision to abandon Florida and ordered one of its fiercest warriors, Pedro Menéndez de Avilés, to drive the French out of the area.

Menéndez de Avilés not only drove out the French but also established a lonely outpost, which he called St. Augustine, in 1565. It has survived to become the oldest European-founded city in the present-day United States.

Another Spanish explorer, Hernando de Soto, landed in Florida in 1539. He and his men traveled through the Southeast as far north as the present-day Carolinas and Tennessee. They then headed west and became the first Europeans to see the Mississippi River. Crossing the river, de Soto reached present-day Arkansas. Native Americans also had conflicts with Hernando de Soto and his men. One Native American chief told de Soto, “You and your people, . . . entering with such speed and fury into my country, . . . as to strike terror into our hearts.” De Soto died of a fever in 1542 and was buried in the Mississippi River.

SETTLING THE SOUTHWEST In 1540, in search of another wealthy empire to conquer, Francisco Vásquez de Coronado led the first Spanish expedition into what is now Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas. Coronado’s group split up at some point. One of his men became the first European to see the Grand Canyon. After wandering for two years, the only precious metal Coronado took home was his own battered gold-plated armor. Spain turned to mining in Mexico after finding no gold in the Southwest.

The Spaniards who followed in Coronado’s wake came to the Southwest largely to search for veins of silver ore or to spread the Roman Catholic religion. As the native population dwindled from disease, Spanish priests gathered the surviving natives into large communities, called congregaciones. Spain’s northern holdings, called New Mexico, were governed by Pedro de Peralta. In the winter of 1609–1610 de Peralta led missionary priests and other settlers to a tributary of the upper Rio Grande. Together they built a capital
**Spanish Missions in the Southwest**

The missions built by the friars who accompanied the conquistadors combined the rich architectural heritage of Spain with symbols and traditions familiar to their Native American converts. Most missions were a series of buildings grouped around a courtyard, which was used for festivals or services. The drawing below shows the Mission San Luis Rey de Francia in California.

In Texas and California, bells were used to summon people to worship. They were often hung in *espadañas*, tiered clusters framed by a rounded wall meant to resemble a cloud. To the Native Americans of the Southwest, clouds represented power. The bells shown at right are from the Mission San Miguel in California.

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**Analyze Historical Sources**

What mission feature do you think accommodated the traditional Native American practice of worshipping in the open air?
called Santa Fe, or “Holy Faith.” In the next two decades, several Christian missions were built among the Pueblos in the area. The hooves of pack mules wore down a 1,500-mile trail known as *el Camino Real*, or “the Royal Road.” They carried goods back and forth along this trail between Santa Fe and Mexico City.

**Resistance to the Spanish**

The Catholic missionaries who settled north of Mexico not only tried to Christianize the peoples they encountered but also attempted to impose Spanish culture on them. The native inhabitants of New Mexico resisted and eventually rebelled against the Spaniards’ attempts to transform their lives and beliefs.

**CONFLICT IN NEW MEXICO** Spanish priests converted scores of Native Americans in New Mexico. However, tension marked the relationship between the priests and their new converts. Spanish priests and soldiers sought to transform the Native Americans’ cultures. They smashed and burned objects held sacred by local communities and suppressed many of their ceremonial dances and rituals.

During the 1670s priests and soldiers around Santa Fe began forcing Native Americans to help support the missions by paying a tribute, an offering of either goods or services. The tribute was usually a bushel of maize or a deer hide. The Spanish also forced Native Americans to work for them and sometimes abused them physically. Native Americans who practiced their native religion or refused to pay the tribute were beaten.

**POPÉ’S REBELLION** One unfortunate Native American who felt the sting of a Spanish whip was the Pueblo religious leader Popé. The priests punished Popé for his worship practices, which they interpreted as witchcraft. The whipping left the Pueblo leader scarred with hatred and ready for rebellion. In 1680 he led a well-organized uprising against the Spanish. The uprising involved some 17,000 people from villages all over New Mexico. The triumphant fighters destroyed Spanish churches, executed priests, and drove the Spaniards back into New Spain. “The heathen,” one Spanish officer wrote about the uprising, “have concealed a mortal hatred for our holy faith and enmity for the Spanish nation.” For the next 14 years—until Spanish armies regained control of the area—the southwest region of the future United States once again belonged to its original inhabitants.

**OTHER NATIONS EXPLORE** Spain would never again have complete control of the Americas. Earlier religious conflicts between Catholic Spain and Queen Elizabeth I’s
Lesson 5 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Create a web on your paper and fill in events related to the main idea in the center.

   ![Web Diagram](image)

   **Spain established a profitable empire in the Americas.**

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Evaluate**  Do you agree or disagree with this statement:

   The Spanish conquest of the Aztecs, which led to the creation of Mexico, was neither a triumph nor a defeat? Support your opinion with references to the text.

   **Think About:**
   - the actions of the conquistadors
   - the effects of disease on the native peoples
   - the *encomienda* system
   - the mestizo population in Mexico today

4. **Form Generalizations**  State three main ideas about the Spaniards’ exploration and settlement north of Mexico and their interaction with Native Americans there.

5. **Make Inferences**  What can you infer from the fact that approximately 17,000 Native Americans from all over New Mexico took part in Popé’s rebellion?

   Spain established a profitable empire in the Americas.

   Protestant England had erupted into war in the late 1500s. To stop English raids on his treasure ships, King Philip II of Spain assembled an armada, or fleet, of about 130 ships. The armada carried nearly 19,000 soldiers. In the summer of 1588 the Spanish Armada sailed into the English Channel ready for battle. However, English warships outmaneuvered the vessels, bombarding them using heavy, long-range cannons.

   Aiding the English cannons were powerful storms that destroyed much of the Spanish Armada. Its defeat dealt a blow to Spain’s military power. It also opened the way for the rest of Europe to venture into the Americas. This defeat was a huge event that ended Spain’s naval dominance in the Atlantic. In time England began establishing colonies along the eastern shore of North America, thus extending its own empire in the New World. Before long, France and the Netherlands also joined in with plans to colonize parts of North America.
Module 1 Assessment

Key Terms and People
For each key term or person below, write a sentence explaining its significance to American beginnings.
1. Aztec
2. Iroquois
3. Islam
4. plantation
5. Renaissance
6. Reformation
7. Christopher Columbus
8. colonization
9. New Mexico
10. Popé

Main Ideas
Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

Societies of the Americas to 1492
1. What theories explain when and how the first people arrived in the Americas?
2. Which ancient societies flourished in the region now occupied by the United States?
3. Why did Native American societies develop different cultural traditions in different regions?
4. Describe the social organization of Native American groups.

West African Societies Around 1492
5. Why was Timbuktu such an important city?
6. Which religion did traders from North Africa bring with them to West Africa?
7. Why did political leaders claim authority on the basis of religion?

European Societies Around 1492
8. How did religion reinforce the social hierarchy of European societies?
9. How did the Reformation deepen rivalries between European nations?
10. How did Renaissance art differ from medieval art?

Transatlantic Encounters
11. What impact did the Columbian Exchange have on people's lives throughout the world?
12. What caused Spanish immigrants to want to colonize the Americas?
13. Where did Europeans first experiment with the plantation system?

Spain's Empire in the Americas
14. How did Mexican culture develop out of both Spanish and Native American elements?
15. How did Native Americans react to Spanish efforts to establish colonies?
16. What event in 1588 helped encourage England, France, and the Netherlands to explore and colonize North America?

Critical Thinking
1. Analyze Effects In a web, describe how trade and commerce affected each region and time period shown.

2. Form Generalizations In what ways did trade link Native Americans?
3. **Contrast** How do you think the contrasting cultural attitudes to land ownership might have affected the relationship between Europeans and Native Americans?

4. **Analyze Events** European settlers began an involuntary immigration trend, bringing Africans to the Americas to become a slave workforce. Why were slaves brought from the region of Africa rather than another region of the world?

5. **Analyze Motives** In the 16th century, both Spain and France wanted to colonize the location that would become Florida. Why do you think this location was attractive to European settlers?

**Engage with History**

Think about how the European explorations of the Americas changed the way of life for the Native Americans. Form small groups and discuss the following question: Would you have resisted or helped the Europeans if you had been a Native American during the days of European colonization?

**Focus on Writing**

Imagine that you are one of the Taino people. You have just seen a landing party from Christopher Columbus’s expedition arrive on the shores near your village. Based on what you have read in this module, write a paragraph describing your first encounter with the expedition, your reactions to the explorers, and your thoughts about further contact.

**Collaborative Learning**

Organize into pairs and use library or Internet sources to find excerpts from the journals of early explorers such as Columbus or Cabeza de Vaca. After reading, work together to list the assumptions and conclusions drawn by the writer about the new land and peoples he encountered. Write a paragraph explaining how these assumptions affected the interactions between explorers and native peoples.
The Spanish conquistador Juan Ponce de León was the first European to set foot on land that later became part of the United States. Ponce de León first sailed to the Americas with Christopher Columbus on his second voyage in 1493. Once in the Caribbean region, he helped conquer what is now Puerto Rico and was named ruler of the island. According to legend, Ponce de León learned about a Fountain of Youth, whose waters could make old people young again. He may have been searching for this fountain when, in 1513, he made landfall on the coast of what today is the southeastern United States. He named the area Florida and claimed it for Spain.

Explore important events in the life of Ponce de León online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more through your online textbook.
Go online to view these and other HISTORY® resources.

Ponce de León’s 1513 Route
Study the map to learn about the region of the Americas that Ponce de León explored in 1513.

Caribbean Island Encounters
Watch the video to learn about the first encounters between Spanish explorers and the people of the Caribbean.

Claiming Florida for Spain
Watch the video to learn about Ponce de León’s first landing on the coast of what is now Florida.

Ponce de León’s 1513 Route
Study the map to learn about the region of the Americas that Ponce de León explored in 1513.