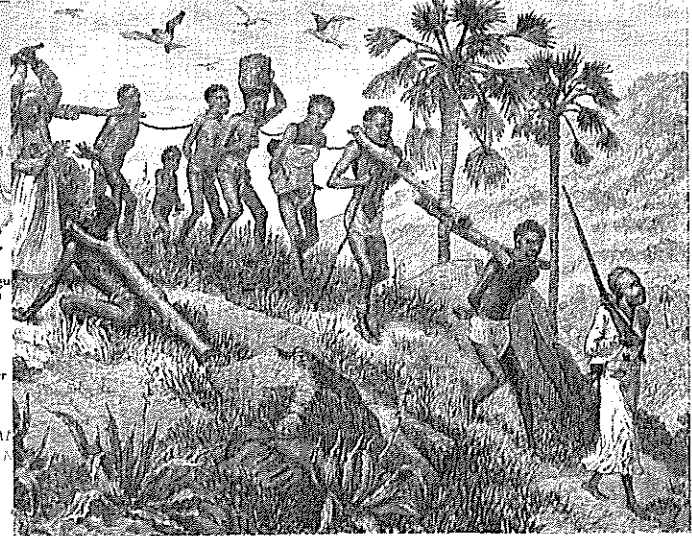
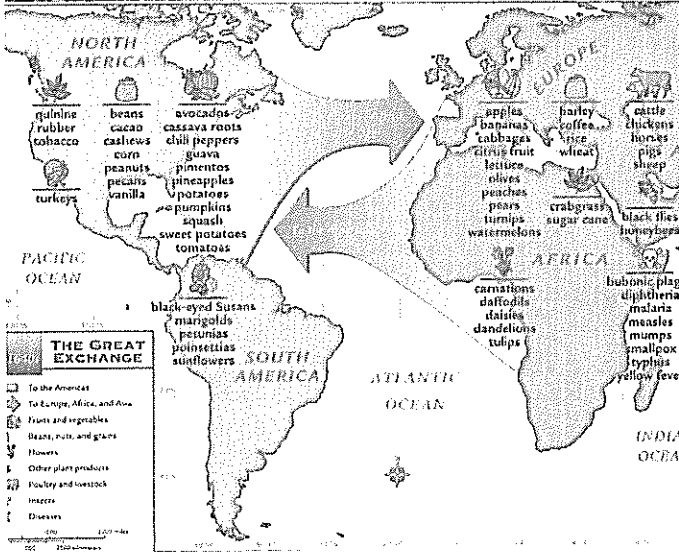


# UNIT 3B READING: THE EARLY MODERN ERA 1450-1750



SLAVERS REVENGING THEIR LOSSES

## Part II: The Connected Hemispheres *The Americas, Exploration, Invasion, and Slavery*

## Reading Calendar for Unit 3B: The Connected Hemispheres The Americas, Exploration, Invasion, and Slavery (1450-1750)

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
January 6  No school ☺	7	8	9  Section 1: Civilizations in the Americas, p 1-5  <i>Printing Press DBQ (write in class)</i>	10  Section 1: Civilizations in the Americas, p 5-11
13  Section 1: Civilizations in the Americas, p 12-14	14  Section 2: Spain Builds an American Empire, p 15-17	15  Section 2: Spain Builds an American Empire, p 17-20	16  Section 3: The Columbian Exchange and Global Trade p 21-24	17  Section 4: The Atlantic Slave Trade, p 25-29  <i>Intro research paper ☺</i>
20  <b>MLK Jr Day!</b> <i>Not Martin Luther Day (that's October 31)!</i>	21  <i>Study ☺</i>	22  <b>MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST: UNIT 3</b>	23  Research paper in library!	24  Research paper in library!

Please read and take notes on the assigned pages that night for homework. Try out some new notetaking styles this time. As always, you at least need:

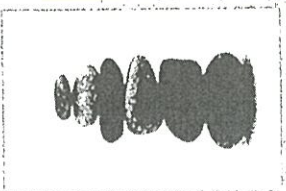
- chapter title
- section title
- defined vocabulary words
- at least a few general summaries of what was read

Or, feel free to use the guided notes that I offer. You should use those as a review, at least!

\*No quiz this time. It will be better for your grade (trust me) to have a test over the information. Your test will only be multiple choice, and will be between 40-50 questions.

**Your notes are due on the day of the test.**

FROM BY WORLD HISTORY AND ESSENTIAL  
COVERS AND MAPS  
GATEL WOOD



## SECTION 1: CIVILIZATIONS IN THE AMERICAS

While civilizations in the Eastern Hemisphere were changing during the era from 600 to 1450 C.E., civilizations in the Western Hemisphere were continuing to evolve along their separate paths. Nomadic groups and subsistence farmers populated North America, and more complex civilizations developed in Mesoamerica and the area around the Andes Mountains in South America. The earlier Olmec society of Mesoamerica had collapsed by 300 C.E. and was replaced by the Maya, the people of Teotihuacan, the Toltecs, and eventually the Aztecs. In South America, the Chavin society was also in decline by 300 C.E., and was replaced by several regional cultures, including the Mochica state and the Chimú state. By the end of the era, the people of the Americas were in their last days of isolation from the east, and most were enjoying halcyon days before the devastation that the 16<sup>th</sup> century would bring to their civilizations.

### SOCIETIES IN MESOAMERICA

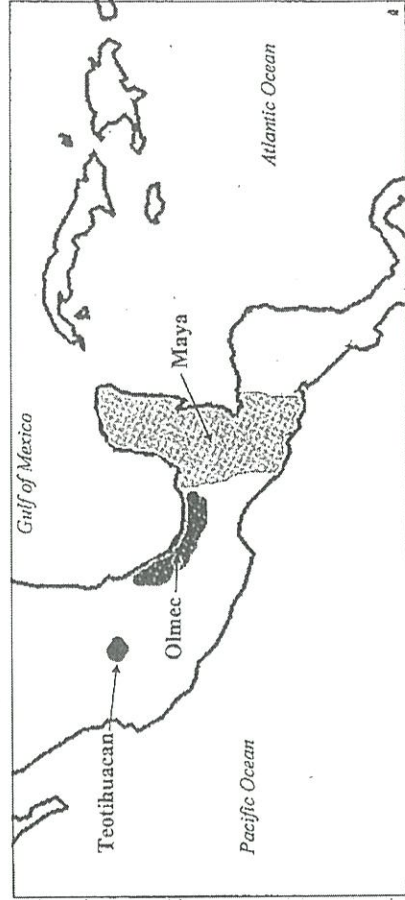
Scholars usually divide the era from 600 to 1450 C.E. in Mesoamerica into two sub-periods: classical (ending about 900) and post-classical (900 to 1450). The term "classical civilization" is sometimes applied to the Roman, Han, and Gupta Empires as an indication of advanced development, but notice that the classical era in Mesoamerica occurred several hundred years after the classical era in the Eastern Hemisphere, reflecting the independent development of the two hemispheres until 1450. Classical civilizations of the Western Hemisphere include the Maya and the people of Teotihuacan, and examples of post-classical civilizations are the Toltecs and the Aztecs.

#### Classical Mesoamerica

① The Olmec civilization disappeared completely by about 100 B.C.E., but many practices and beliefs appear to have been carried on in later civilizations. The earliest heirs of the Olmec were the Maya, who centered their society to the east (and south of the Olmec settlements in what is now southern Mexico and Guatemala).

Belize, Honduras, and El Salvador. The first permanent Maya villages appeared during the 3<sup>rd</sup> century B.C.E. in the highlands of Guatemala, with its fertile soil for agriculture. There the people built a ceremonial center, Kaminaljuyu, that dominated other communities around it. By the 4<sup>th</sup> century C.E., Kaminaljuyu fell under the control of Teotihuacan, and the Maya moved the center of their civilization to the poorly drained Mesoamerican lowlands. From about 300 to 900 C.E., the Maya built more than eighty large ceremonial centers in the lowlands, all with pyramids, palaces, and temples. These large centers were real cities with tens of thousands of people, but most of the populations were peasant villagers who lived in settlements on the periphery of the cities.

In these heavily jungled areas, the thin soil quickly lost its fertility, and in the early days the Maya, like many other people who have lived in rain forests, practiced slash and burn (or shifting) agriculture. This type of subsistence agriculture would not have been enough to support cities, such as Tikal, Quirigua, and Palenque, so the Maya built terraces that trapped silt carried by the rivers, supported by irrigation and swamp drainage systems. These techniques boosted their agricultural productivity, with Maya cultivators raising maize, cotton, and cacao (for chocolate) in abundance to support urban populations of 30,000 to 80,000 people. The cities were primarily religious and administrative centers, and trade seems to have been a relatively minor part of Maya life. They varied in size and layout, but almost all included large pyramids with temples on top, complexes of administrative buildings, houses for the elite, a ritual ball court, and often a series of altars and memorial pillars, called stelae. Stelae were built to commemorate great actions of Maya leaders or to mark ceremonial occasions, and they were inscribed with hieroglyphic script.

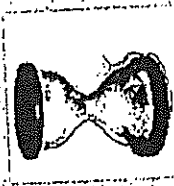


Early Mesoamericans. The Olmec civilization was the oldest, and disappeared by 100 B.C.E. Its heirs in the classical era that followed (to 900 C.E.) were Teotihuacan and the Maya.

② Guatemala

Maya society had clearly delineated social classes, with rulers and other members of the elite serving both priestly and political functions. They decorated their bodies with paint and tattoos and wore elaborate costumes of textiles, animal skins, and feathers. Although kings were not believed to be divine, they communicated directly with supernatural beings and deceased ancestors through rituals in which they drew blood from different parts of their bodies and fell into hallucinogenic trances. Vast numbers of commoners were needed to build the elaborate altars and temples, since everything was constructed without the aid of wheels or metal tools.

Religion was central to Maya life, with a pantheon of gods important to sustain agriculture, and many of the rituals included human sacrifice. Many victims were prisoners of war, especially defeated elite. Captured commoners were more likely to be used as part of the labor force to construct public buildings



### CHANGE OVER TIME: CLASSICAL AND POST-CLASSICAL MESOAMERICA

How did Mesoamerica change from the classical era (to 900 C.E.) to the post-classical era (900-1450 C.E.)? All civilizations had similar religious beliefs and practices, architecture, urban planning, and social organization, but some important changes occurred over time.

CLASSICAL (Maya, Teotihuacan)	POST-CLASSICAL (Toltec, Aztec)
Overall population was lower.	Population density increased, with larger cities, and overall population
Land was less intensively farmed.	Agriculture intensified, partly because of increased population.
Warfare among groups happened frequently.	Warfare intensified, becoming more frequent and involving more people as competition for land increased.
Small armies, relatively simple forms of government were characteristic.	Centralized, strong governments maintained large armies.

and irrigation and drainage systems. Priests had magical powers that gave them access to the underworld, which consisted of nine levels of hell. The gods, like those of Sumeria, were believed to interfere in human affairs, and they possessed both human and animal traits, most frequently those of the jaguar. The Maya believed that it was important to please the gods, who expected honor and reverence from their human subjects. Bloodletting pleased the gods, so sacrifice victims were often lacerated before being decapitated in order to produce more blood.

One task of Maya priests was the construction of elaborate calendars, which wove two kinds of years: a solar year of 365 days based on the agricultural cycle, and a ritual year of 260 days. By combining the calendars, each day had specific characteristics that distinguished it from others, and the priests divined what activities could take place and when. Priests also wrote the inscriptions on temples and monuments and produced books on paper made from beaten tree bark or on vellum made from deerskin.

By about 800 C.E., most Maya populations had begun to leave the cities, and within 100 years most of the cities had disappeared. No one knows for sure why the civilization declined, although many theories have been proposed. Some historians suppose foreign invasion; others say civil war occurred; still others think that epidemic diseases decimated the cities. Gradually, the jungles grew over the cities, temples, and monuments, only to be uncovered by modern archaeologists, although many more are yet to be discovered.

About the time the Maya were reaching their peak, another civilization began to develop in the highlands to the north. The area was the site of several large lakes fed by water from the surrounding mountains, and the earliest settlers channeled the water into their fields to produce an abundance of crops. Their central city was Teotihuacan, which began to grow rapidly after about 200 B.C.E. Like the cities of the Olmecs and the Maya, Teotihuacan was a center of religious rituals and government administration. Their monuments were in the pyramidal form found all over Central America, but the Pyramids of the Sun and the Moon are among the largest masonry structures ever built. Some scholars believe that Teotihuacan might have been the first real city of the Western Hemisphere, with a population estimated between 125,000 and 200,000. Just as with the Maya, most of what we know about Teotihuacan must be interpreted from the architecture and art, and the city is unusual in that it laid out barrios, or quarters, for the ordinary people who farmed the fields surrounding the city. It had scores of temples, several palatial residences, busy markets, and hundreds of workshops for craftsmen.

Unfortunately, most of the written records perished when the city itself declined, so the remaining architecture is an important source of our knowledge.

of the people of Teotihuacan. Paintings and murals suggest that priests were an important part of the elite, just as they were in Maya society. Also similarly to the Maya, priests kept the calendar to ensure that crops were planted at the right time. In contrast to Maya cities, Teotihuacan was a center of extensive trade and exchange, with professional merchants trading their products throughout Mesoamerica. The city reached its peak during the 7<sup>th</sup> century C.E., although the political leadership is still a mystery. No public art displays honored individual rulers, as was found in Maya society, but the city was so well-planned that some kind of centralized planning must have taken place. Some have theorized that powerful families ruled cooperatively. The city collapsed around 750 C.E. for unknown reasons, but city walls had been built only about 150 years earlier, suggesting that the early days were more peaceful than the later days were. Some of the murals uncovered by archaeologists suggest that the city's final decades were violent, with most of the important temples in the city center, as well as the houses of the elite, burned down and religious images defaced.

### Post-Classical Mesoamerica

After the decline of Teotihuacan and the Maya cities, several regional states rose in Mesoamerica that fought constantly among themselves. These groups illustrate one of the changes from classical to post-classical societies: more emphasis on military organization. Their capital cities stood on well-defended hills, and their art often illustrated warriors. The Toltecs, a group that migrated from northwestern Mexico, were the first to unify central Mexico again after the

people of Teotihuacan. Their capital was Tula, northwest of modern Mexico City, which probably reached a population of about 60,000 between 950 and 1150 C.E. Like the people of Teotihuacan, the Toltecs tapped the water coming down from the mountains to irrigate crops of maize, beans, peppers, tomatoes, chiles, and cotton.

The Toltecs created their centralized state based on military power, and they conquered lands from Tula south to Central America, including many of the areas formerly controlled by the Maya. Their military orientation appeared in public buildings and temples, which were decorated with representations of warriors or with scenes of human sacrifice. Apparently, the Toltecs had two rulers rather than one, a fact that may have eventually weakened their power. Their most famous ruler was Topiltzin, a priest associated with the god Quetzalcoatl, who was forced into exile in the east, "the land of the rising sun." After his exile, the Toltec state began to decline, to be replaced by the Mexica, more commonly known as the Aztecs.



### EXAMINING THE EVIDENCE: MESOAMERICAN LEGENDS

Mesoamerican cultures were rich in legends passed down from one group to the next, often by stories told orally, but many were written down in the Aztec pictographic records, or *codices*. The Spanish preserved some of these records, and a Franciscan monk, Bernardino de Sahagun, compiled many others from years of individual interviews with Aztecs. Since these stories were recorded exclusively by the Spanish, some modern scholars question the accuracy of the accounts. However, one of the most famous legends is that of Topiltzin, a Toltec priest affiliated with the god Quetzalcoatl ("feathered serpent") who lost a struggle for power with another faction and was forced into exile. When he left, he promised to return, an event so much anticipated that the Aztecs, who followed the Toltecs to power in central Mexico, at first were hospitable to the Spaniards because they believed the Spanish leader to be the exiled hero. The following is one account of Topiltzin's departure.

Thereupon he [Topiltzin] looked toward Tula, and then wept... And when he had done these things... he went to reach the seacoast. Then he fashioned a raft of serpents. When he had arranged the raft, he placed himself as if it were his boat. Then he set off across the sea.

Source: Quoted in Nigel Davies, *The Toltec Heritage: From the Fall of Tula to the Rise of Tenochtitlan*. (Norman: University of Oklahoma, press, 1980), 3.

Google a picture of the Pyramid of the Sun + create

The Pyramid of the Sun. This colossal pyramid in Teotihuacan is not as tall as the Great Pyramid of Egypt (constructed much earlier), but it occupies nearly as much space. The main street of the city ran between the Pyramid of the Sun and the Pyramid of the Moon, with shops and residences lining the street. The stairs to the top of the pyramid probably led to a sacrificial altar.

According to Aztec legend, they built the main city, Tenochtitlan, in a place identified by an eagle perched on a cactus with a snake in its mouth. The city grew to be one of the largest cities on earth, with as many as 300,000 people at its height, positioned on a number of small islands in Lake Texcoco. Several causeways connected them to the mainland, and the city's central marketplace was described by the Spanish as far grander than anything they had ever seen. The area was part of a chain of lakes connected by marshes, and the Aztecs adapted their lifestyles to an aquatic environment. Like the people of Teotihuacan before them, they drained swamps, constructed irrigation works and terraces, and used chinampas, or floating gardens. This unique adaptation consisted of narrow artificial islands constructed by heaping muck from the lakes on beds of reeds anchored to the shores. Chinampas made it possible to sustain urban life by boosting agricultural production. The Aztecs imposed a tribute system on conquered peoples, who contributed maize, beans, and other foods to support Tenochtitlan.

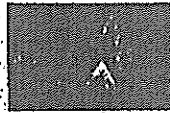
Like the Toltecs before them, the Aztecs rose to power through military might. With tough fighting skills and a tendency toward aggressive expansion. By the early 15th century, they emerged as an independent power that dominated the region. The ruling group among the Aztecs was made up of militaristic aristocrats, whose lives centered on conquest. At the top of the social hierarchy was a semi-divine king, who was selected by election from among the male members of the ruling family. Below him were his officials, who had earned their positions through heroic military leadership and ruled conquered people in the provinces like feudal lords. Next was a class of warriors who were recruited from ordinary freemen, and proved themselves in battle by taking at least four prisoners for sacrifice. Most Aztecs were ordinary free people who tilled the fields, constructed the buildings and roads, and carried burdens for others. At the bottom were serfs, whose rights and duties were similar to those of medieval European serfs, and slaves, who were war captives or debtors. Aztec society was patriarchal, but women received high honor for bearing warrior sons, and the spirits of women who died in childbirth were believed to help the sun god in his journey through the sky each day.

The Aztecs also had a large and powerful group of priests. They served as advisers to the king and his officials, and they conducted the elaborate religious rituals that were central to Aztec society. The chief god, Huitzilopochtli, ruled from the position of the sun at noon, and in order to keep him in his proper place in the sky, the Aztecs believed they must feed him human blood. This blood came from frequent human sacrifices on altars that lined the main streets of Tenochtitlan. Although other Mesoamerican groups practiced human sacrifice, the Aztec rituals were particularly bloody, with thousands of victims taken as

ing the heart from a live victim's chest, and the heart was then eaten by the Aztec nobility. Priests conducted these sacrifices with large obsidian knives. The fact that the sacrifices were carried out in front of large crowds that included the masses, as well as leaders from enemy and subject states, was a message that almost certainly impressed the viewers with the power of the Aztec elite.

### ANDEAN CIVILIZATIONS

The Chavin, the earliest civilization of the Andes region in South America, declined sometime after about 100 B.C.E., but on its foundations a new group of people, the Moche, built a society that thrived from about 100 to 700 C.E. The Moche built an extensive irrigation system from rivers coming out of the mountains, and cultivated maize, beans, manioc, and sweet potatoes in the lower coastal areas, and coca in the higher elevations. Moche society was highly stratified, with wealth and power concentrated in the hands of priests and military leaders. The wealthy adorned themselves with rich clothing, jewelry, and tall headdresses. Because the Moche had no written records, all that we know about them comes from archaeological evidence, especially from a recently



### SIMILARITIES: THE CONTINUITY OF THE MESOAMERICAN BALL GAME

Archaeologists have found consistent evidence that all the Mesoamerican groups — from the Olmec to the Aztecs — enjoyed ball games, with most of the civilizations building large courts in their cities. The game was played with a solid rubber ball on slope-sided courts. These ball courts varied considerably in size, but they all featured long narrow alleys, with side-walls for bouncing the balls. The rules of the ball game are not known, but based on its descent, the modern game of ulama, it was probably similar to racquetball or volleyball, where the object is to keep the ball in play. In the most widespread version of the game, the players would strike the ball with their hips, although sometimes they allowed the use of forearms, rackets, bats, or handstones. The ball was made of solid rubber, with sizes that differed greatly over time or according to the version played. While the game was played casually for simple recreation, including by children and perhaps even women, the game also had important ritual aspects, often featuring human sacrifice. Some representations show balls that closely resemble the human head.

excavated tomb that revealed masterfully crafted ceramics, gold ornaments, jewels, and textiles. Like so many other ancient people of the Americas, the Moche's decline is not well understood, although it appears to have coincided with a succession of natural disasters, including an earthquake and flood followed by thirty years of drought.

Other people, including the Tiwanaku and Wari, occupied the Andes region after the Moche, but the most powerful and well-organized civilization was the Inca, who formed a vast imperial state during the 15<sup>th</sup> century. The Inca began in about 1100 in Cuzco, a town set on a plateau 11,000 feet above sea level. Strong and ambitious leaders consolidated political power during the 1430s and began an aggressive expansion that eventually led them to control a long stretch of land that extended about 2500 miles north to south along the Andes range.

### COMPARISONS: THE UNIQUENESS OF ANDEAN CIVILIZATIONS

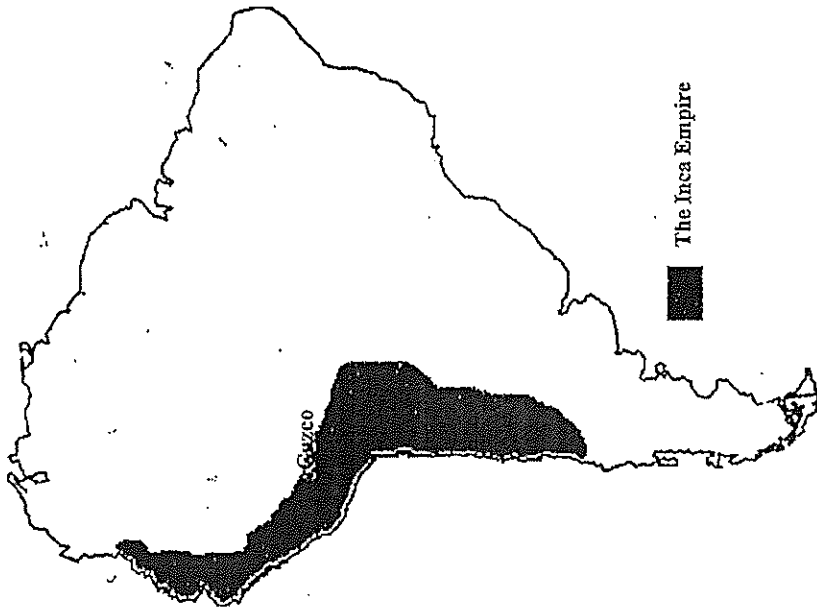
The Andean civilizations shared many characteristics with other civilizations of the 600 to 1450 era, but in some ways they were unique, partly because they developed in relative isolation from others. Another factor was their special natural environment that combined dry sea coast, high mountain valleys, and dense jungle. Their only beasts of burdens were llamas and alpacas, animals not found in other areas of the world until they were later exported from the Andes area. Two ways that the Andean civilizations were unique are as follows:

- 1) No written language.—None of the Andean civilizations had written languages, a fact that has led some observers to the conclusion that these civilizations were not very advanced. However, in most other areas, they were highly skilled and organized. They kept records with a system of knotted colored cords, *quipus*, that helped government administrators to count population and determine tribute obligations.
- 2) The *mit'a* labor system.—Communities were organized into *ayllus*, who were obligated to aid each other in tasks that required more labor than one household could provide. Once kingdoms organized, this mutual obligation system extended to responsibilities to the kings, and a *mit'a* labor system developed for public works. Each *ayllu* contributed a set number of workers for specific tasks each year, including road building and maintenance, and irrigation and drainage projects. Members of *ayllus* also worked the fields and cared for the animals that belonged to the aristocracy.

The expansion of the Inca Empire was made possible by agricultural advances that led to an increased food supply. Andean Indians had long understood that different crops grew at different altitudes, and with the help of metal tools, fertilizer, irrigation systems, dams, and canals, they began to store large surpluses to support both an army and a leisure class. The Inca also built terraces on the steep hillsides so crops could be planted, and the use of llamas and alpacas as beasts of burden gave them an advantage over their contemporaries in Mesamerica. The cultivators were mostly peasants who worked the lands and gave portions of the products to the aristocrats. Surpluses went into state storerooms to save for times of famine and for those unable to cultivate land for themselves. Under the *mit'a* system, each person owed compulsory labor services to the Inca state, with men doing heavy labor and women making textiles, pottery, and jewelry. With the aid of the *quipu*, a system of cords and beads for counting, Inca bureaucrats kept track of the labor service and tribute owed by local communities, called *ayllus*.

The chief ruler, called the *Inca*, was considered to be a deity descended from the sun, and his senior wife was seen as a link to the moon. In theory, the Inca owned everything, and he governed as an absolute, all-knowing ruler. Through the bureaucracy, which consisted mainly of aristocrats, the Inca allocated land to his subjects, who farmed it on his behalf. The Inca's status as a god-king was reflected in his elaborate dress, with fine textiles woven just for him. A special group of women made clothing and jewelry for the Inca and his family in ceaseless industry, since each day required new outfits, with those from the previous day discarded, never to be worn again. Inca aristocrats and priests led privileged lives in which they consumed fine foods and dressed in embroidered clothes made by peasant women. The aristocrats wore large ear spools that enlarged the ears so much that the Spaniards later called them *orejones*, or "big ears." Priests were highly educated, and major temples supported hundreds of priests who conducted many religious rituals. Noticeably absent was a distinct merchant class, since long-distance trade was less important than it was in Mesamerica, with the Inca emphasizing self-sufficiency and state regulation of production and surplus.

Inca religion was polytheistic, and the most important deity was the god of the sun, with the Inca (the leader) as the sun's representative on earth. Deceased rulers were mummified and then treated as intermediaries with the gods, given food and gifts, and displayed during public festivals. Part of the expansion of the Inca state was encouraged by the belief that each new Inca needed to secure his own land and wealth, so that the dead Inca's mummy could be supported by his cult for eternity. The magnificent Temple of the Sun in Cuzco was the center of the state religion, and the mummies of the past Incas were kept within



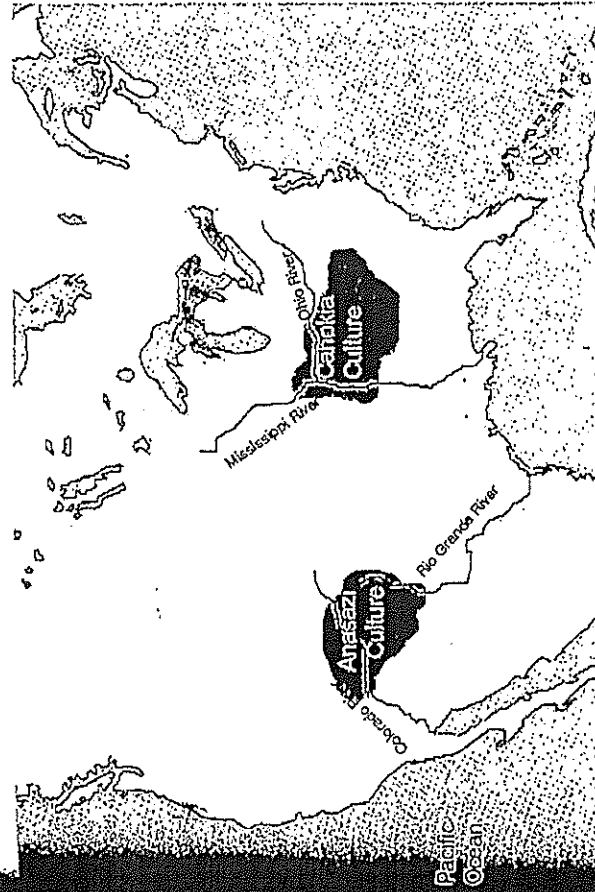
The Inca Empire

The Inca Empire extended some 2500 miles from north to south and was connected by an estimated 10,000 miles of roads, paved with stone and connected by suspension bridges over mountain gorges and rivers.

its walls. The temple is an example of the fine stone buildings of royal Cuzco that were constructed without mortar, held together by perfectly crafted stones that still stand today. The cult of the sun spread throughout the empire, but local gods were often worshipped as well.

The expansion of the Inca state was accomplished by a large and well-organized military, and the empire was held together by a remarkable system of roads running north and south both along the coast and in the mountains. A corps of official runners carried messages along the roads so that the ruler and his bureaucrats could keep in touch with their subjects. The roads also facilitated the spread of the Quechua language and the religious cult of Cuzco. Generally local administrators were left in place when a group was conquered, and they were overseen by Inca administrators drawn from the Inca nobility in Cuzco. Reciprocity based on the mit'a system extended to new subjects, who often benefited from incorporation into the Inca Empire with its roads and sophisticated

In contrast to Mesoamerica and the Andes region in South America, no major civilization controlled large amounts of land in North America. Instead a variety of people lived there with many different languages and lifestyles. Many were nomadic, hunting bison or deer, or in the arctic area whale, seals, and walrus. Others gathered nuts, berries, roots, and grasses to supplement fish or meat. In several regions of North America, agriculture allowed settlements to grow into villages and towns. For example, in what is now the southwestern United States, the Anasazi people used river water to irrigate crops of maize, beans, squash, and sunflowers. The hot, dry climate brought periodic drought and famine, but by 700 C.E., they were constructing permanent stone and adobe buildings called pueblos. These multistory stone-and-timber villages were connected by roads to one another, with most pueblos containing ritual enclosures called kivas. The nature of the ceremonies is still not known, but ritual items, including feathers and skeletal remains of macaws from Mexico have been found in the kivas. The Anasazi deserted their dwellings during long droughts and moved to greener pastures, but eventually abandoned the area by about 1300. In some areas, such as Chaco Canyon in New Mexico, large towns appeared, suggesting a regional population of about 15,000.



Agricultural People of North America. Most people of North America during the period from 600 to 1450 C.E. were nomadic, but in two areas, agricultural people built permanent settlements. The Anasazi culture developed in the southwest in the areas around the Colorado River and the Rio Grande River. The Cahokia culture used the waters of the Mississippi River and Ohio River to grow crops.



**COMPARISON:  
AZTECS AND INCA**

Two great American empires that were in place at the end of the era from 600 to 1450 C.E. were the Aztecs in Mesoamerica and the Inca in the Andes region of South America. The chart below summarizes some similarities and differences between these two groups.

**Aztecs**

**Social** Distinctive social classes with priests important elites  
Large middle class of merchants and traders

**Cultural** Religion central to society  
Practiced much human sacrifice  
Elaborate calendar, writing system

**Economic** Tenochtitlan — large city and suburbs  
Economy based on agriculture  
Trade important to economy

**Political** Built chinampas ("floating gardens")  
Powerful elite families who chose the ruler; bureaucracy less elaborate, powerful military

**Inca**

Distinctive social classes with priests important elites  
No real merchant middle class; trade controlled by government

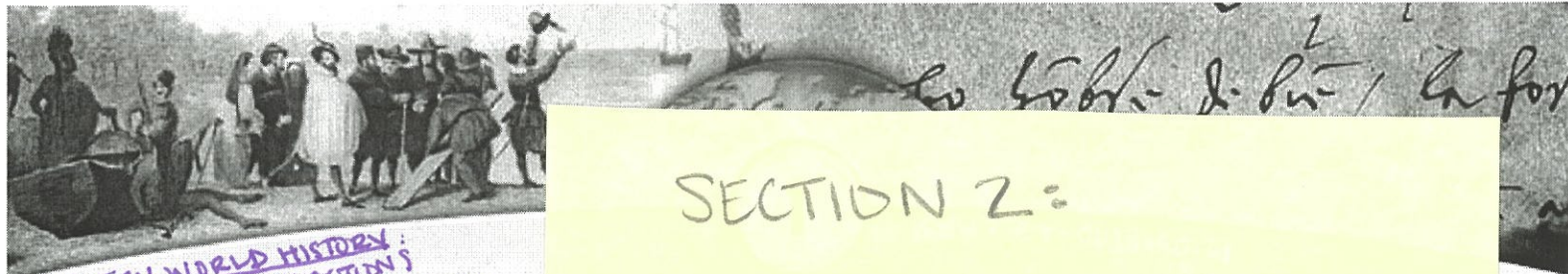
Religion central to society  
Human sacrifice practiced, but less central to rituals  
Quechua native language  
No written language

Cuzco — small city and suburbs  
Economy based on agriculture  
Trade not as important to economy

Built elaborate terraces for crops, extensive road system  
The "Inca" god-king ruled with absolute power and help of large bureaucracy  
powerful military

ber of different groups lived in this area, and the most distinctive feature of their culture was the construction of enormous earthen mounds built as stages for ceremonies, platforms for dwellings, and burial sites. The largest and most important mound-builder settlement of this period was at Cahokia, located near modern-day East St. Louis, Illinois. It appears as if the people who built Cahokia built other settlements around the Mississippi River Valley, but Cahokia is the most impressive, with about eighty mounds of different sizes there. The site was abandoned about 1300 for reasons still not understood. Since peoples north of Mexico had no writing, information about their societies comes almost exclusively from archaeological discoveries, and we know little about their political and social organization and religious beliefs. By 1450, most people in the Western Hemisphere lived in small kinship-based groups that spoke a variety of languages and practiced different customs. From Alaska to South America, nomadism was common, as was subsistence agriculture. Two large empires controlled areas that were a considerable distance apart: the Aztecs in Mesoamerica, and the Inca in the Andes region of South America. These two empires were the main obstacles for Spanish conquerors when they arrived in the early 16<sup>th</sup> century.

Large-scale agricultural societies also emerged in the woodlands east of the Mississippi River. Like the Anasazi, they cultivated maize and beans, but their natural environment was quite different, with abundant trees and rain. A num-



MODERN WORLD HISTORY  
PATTERNS + INTERACTIONS  
MCDUGAL UTTELL  
ISBN: 978 0618690121

# Spain Builds an American Empire

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
-----------	--------------------	---------------

**EMPIRE BUILDING** The voyages of Columbus prompted the Spanish to establish colonies in the Americas.

Throughout the Americas, Spanish culture, language, and descendants are the legacy of this period.

- Christopher Columbus
- colony
- Hernando Cortés
- conquistador
- Francisco Pizarro
- Atahualpa
- mestizo
- *encomienda*

**SETTING THE STAGE** Competition for wealth in Asia among European nations was fierce. This competition prompted a Genoese sea captain named **Christopher Columbus** to make a daring voyage from Spain in 1492. Instead of sailing south around Africa and then east, Columbus sailed west across the Atlantic in search of an alternate trade route to Asia and its riches. Columbus never reached Asia. Instead, he stepped onto an island in the Caribbean. That event would bring together the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas.

## The Voyages of Columbus

The *Niña*, *Pinta*, and *Santa Maria* sailed out of a Spanish port around dawn on August 3, 1492. In a matter of months, Columbus’s fleet would reach the shores of what Europeans saw as an astonishing new world.

**First Encounters** In the early hours of October 12, 1492, the long-awaited cry came. A lookout aboard the *Pinta* caught sight of a shoreline in the distance. “*Tierra! Tierra!*” he shouted. “Land! Land!” By dawn, Columbus and his crew were ashore. Thinking he had successfully reached the East Indies, Columbus called the surprised inhabitants who greeted him, *los indios*. The term translated into “Indian,” a word mistakenly applied to all the native peoples of the Americas. In his journal, Columbus recounted his first meeting with the native peoples:

### PRIMARY SOURCE

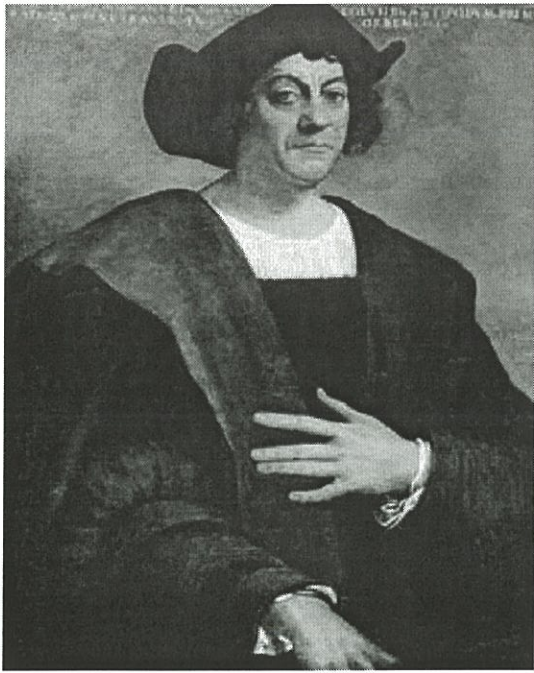
I presented them with some red caps, and strings of glass beads to wear upon the neck, and many other trifles of small value, wherewith they were much delighted, and became wonderfully attached to us. Afterwards they came swimming to the boats where we were, bringing parrots, balls of cotton thread, javelins, and many other things which they exchanged for articles we gave them . . . in fact they accepted anything and gave what they had with the utmost good will.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, *Journal of Columbus*

Columbus had miscalculated where he was. He had not reached the East Indies. Scholars believe he landed instead on an island in the Bahamas in the Caribbean Sea. The natives there were not Indians, but a group who called themselves the Taino. Nonetheless, Columbus claimed the island for Spain. He named it San Salvador, or “Holy Savior.”



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on major events in the establishment of Spain’s empire in the Americas.



▲ *Portrait of a Man Called Christopher Columbus* (1519) by Sebastiano del Piombo

Columbus, like other explorers, was interested in gold. Finding none on San Salvador, he explored other islands, staking his claim to each one. “It was my wish to bypass no island without taking possession,” he wrote.

In early 1493, Columbus returned to Spain. The reports he relayed about his journey delighted the Spanish monarchs. Spain’s rulers, who had funded his first voyage, agreed to finance three more trips. Columbus embarked on his second voyage to the Americas in September of 1493. He journeyed no longer as an explorer, but as an empire builder. He commanded a fleet of some 17 ships that carried over 1,000 soldiers, crewmen, and colonists. The Spanish intended to transform the islands of the Caribbean into **colonies**, or lands that are controlled by another nation. Over the next two centuries, other European explorers began sailing across the Atlantic in search of new lands to claim.

**Other Explorers Take to the Seas** In 1500, the Portuguese explorer Pedro Álvares Cabral reached the

shores of modern-day Brazil and claimed the land for his country. A year later, Amerigo Vespucci (veh•s•POO•chee), an Italian in the service of Portugal, also traveled along the eastern coast of South America. Upon his return to Europe, he claimed that the land was not part of Asia, but a “new” world. In 1507, a German mapmaker named the new continent “America” in honor of Amerigo Vespucci.

In 1519, Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan led the boldest exploration yet. Several years earlier, Spanish explorer Vasco Núñez de Balboa had marched through modern-day Panama and had become the first European to gaze upon the Pacific Ocean. Soon after, Magellan convinced the king of Spain to fund his voyage into the newly discovered ocean.

With about 250 men and five ships, Magellan sailed around the southern end of South America and into the waters of the Pacific. The fleet sailed for months without seeing land, except for some small islands. Food supplies soon ran out.

After exploring the island of Guam, Magellan and his crew eventually reached the Philippines. Unfortunately, Magellan became involved in a local war there and was killed. His crew, greatly reduced by disease and starvation, continued sailing west toward home. Out of Magellan’s original crew, only 18 men and one ship arrived back in Spain in 1522, nearly three years after they had left. They were the first persons to circumnavigate, or sail around, the world. **A**

**MAIN IDEA**

**Making Inferences**

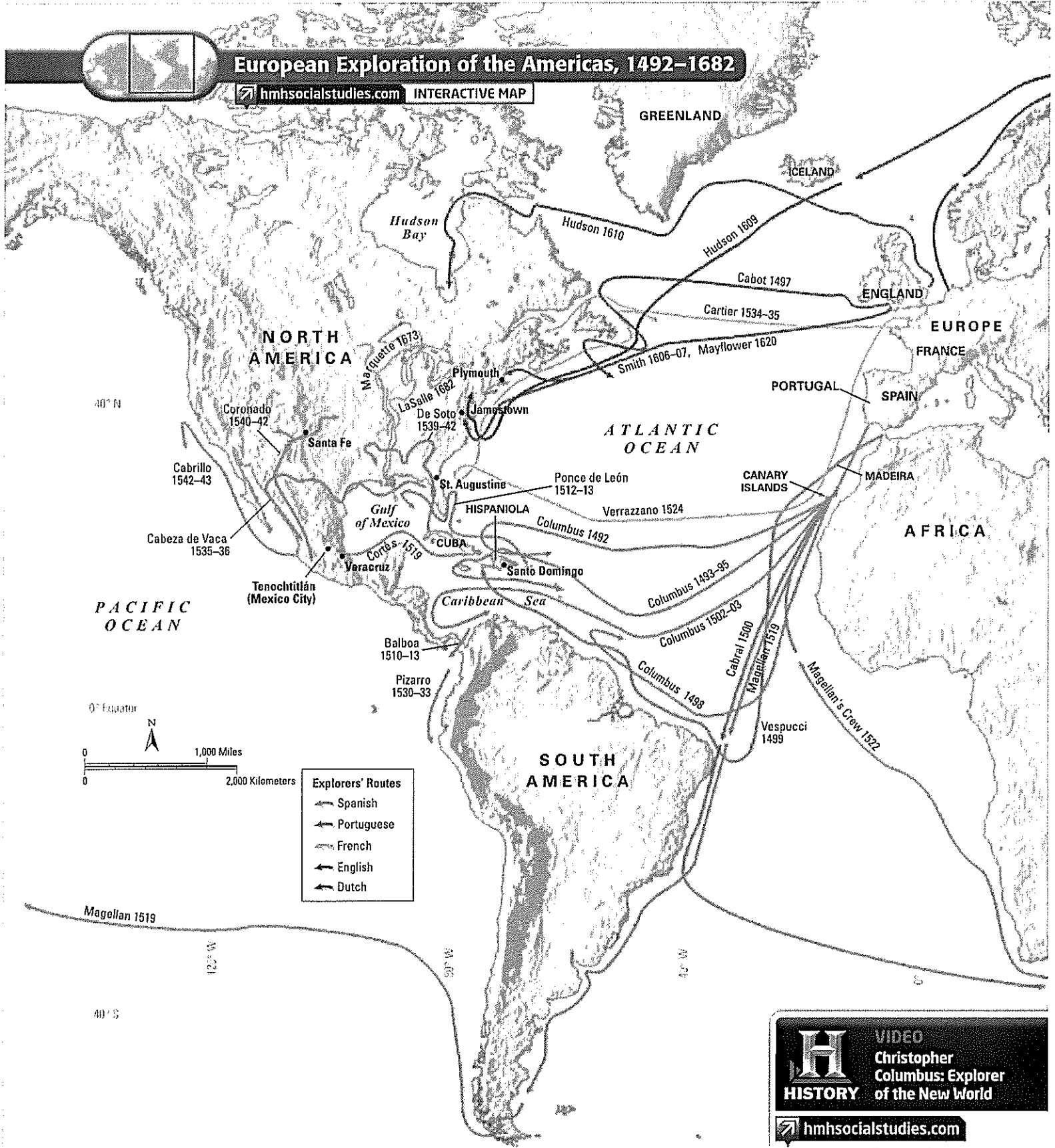
**A** What was the significance of Magellan’s voyage?

## Spanish Conquests in Mexico

In 1519, as Magellan embarked on his historic voyage, a Spaniard named **Hernando Cortés** landed on the shores of Mexico. After colonizing several Caribbean islands, the Spanish had turned their attention to the American mainland. Cortés marched inland, looking to claim new lands for Spain. Cortés and the many other Spanish explorers who followed him were known as **conquistadors** (conquerors). Lured by rumors of vast lands filled with gold and silver, conquistadors carved out colonies in regions that would become Mexico, South America, and the United States. The Spanish were the first European settlers in the Americas. As a result of their colonization, the Spanish greatly enriched their empire and left a mark on the cultures of North and South America that exists today.

# European Exploration of the Americas, 1492–1682

hmhsocialstudies.com INTERACTIVE MAP

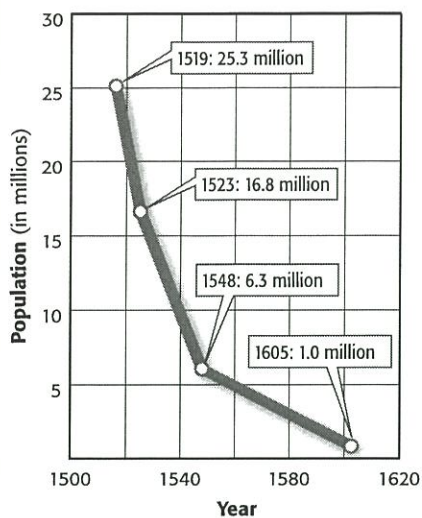


**HISTORY** VIDEO  
**Christopher Columbus: Explorer of the New World**  
[hmhsocialstudies.com](http://hmhsocialstudies.com)

**GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps**

- 1. Movement** How many different voyages did Columbus make to the Americas?
- 2. Region** Which general region did the Spanish and Portuguese explore? Where did the English, Dutch, and French explore?

## Native Population of Central Mexico, 1500–1620



Source: *The Population of Latin America: A History*

### SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Graphs

- Drawing Conclusions** By what percentage did the native population decrease between 1519 and 1605?
- Making Inferences** How did the sharp decline in the native population, due greatly to disease, affect the Spaniards' attempts to conquer the region?

**Cortés Conquers the Aztecs** Soon after landing in Mexico, Cortés learned of the vast and wealthy Aztec Empire in the region's interior. After marching for weeks through difficult mountain passes, Cortés and his force of roughly 600 men finally reached the magnificent Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán (teh•NAWCH•tee•TLAHN). The Aztec emperor, Montezuma II, was convinced at first that Cortés was a god wearing armor. He agreed to give the Spanish explorer a share of the empire's existing gold supply. The conquistador was not satisfied. Cortés admitted that he and his comrades had a "disease of the heart that only gold can cure."

In the late spring of 1520, some of Cortés's men killed many Aztec warriors and chiefs while they were celebrating a religious festival. In June of 1520, the Aztecs rebelled against the Spanish intruders and drove out Cortés's forces.

The Spaniards, however, struck back. Despite being greatly outnumbered, Cortés and his men conquered the Aztecs in 1521. Several factors played a key role in the stunning victory. First, the Spanish had the advantage of superior weaponry. Aztec arrows were no match for the Spaniards' muskets and cannons.

Second, Cortés was able to enlist the help of various native groups. With the aid of a native woman translator named Malinche, Cortés learned that some natives resented the Aztecs. They hated their harsh practices, including human sacrifice. Through Malinche, Cortés convinced these natives to fight on his side.

Finally, and most important, the natives could do little to stop the invisible warrior that marched alongside the

Spaniards—disease. Measles, mumps, smallpox, and typhus were just some of the diseases Europeans were to bring with them to the Americas. Native Americans had never been exposed to these diseases. Thus, they had developed no natural immunity to them. As a result, they died by the hundreds of thousands. By the time Cortés launched his counterattack, the Aztec population had been greatly reduced by smallpox and measles. In time, European disease would truly devastate the natives of central Mexico, killing millions of them. **B**

### MAIN IDEA

#### Summarizing

**B** What factors enabled the Spanish to defeat the Aztecs?

## Spanish Conquests in Peru

In 1532, another conquistador, **Francisco Pizarro**, marched a small force into South America. He conquered the Incan Empire.

**Pizarro Subdues the Inca** Pizarro and his army of about 200 met the Incan ruler, **Atahualpa** (AH•tuh•WAHL•puh), near the city of Cajamarca. Atahualpa, who commanded a force of about 30,000, brought several thousand mostly unarmed men for the meeting. The Spaniards waited in ambush, crushed the Incan force, and kidnapped Atahualpa.

Atahualpa offered to fill a room once with gold and twice with silver in exchange for his release. However, after receiving the ransom, the Spanish strangled the Incan king. Demoralized by their leader's death, the remaining Incan force retreated from Cajamarca. Pizarro then marched on the Incan capital, Cuzco. He captured it without a struggle in 1533.

**HISTORY**

**VIDEO**  
The Arrival of the Spanish

hmhsocialstudies.com

As Cortés and Pizarro conquered the civilizations of the Americas, fellow conquistadors defeated other native peoples. Spanish explorers also conquered the Maya in Yucatan and Guatemala. By the middle of the 16th century, Spain had created an American empire. It included New Spain (Mexico and parts of Guatemala), as well as other lands in Central and South America and the Caribbean.

**Spain's Pattern of Conquest** In building their new American empire, the Spaniards drew from techniques used during the *reconquista* of Spain. When conquering the Muslims, the Spanish lived among them and imposed their Spanish culture upon them. The Spanish settlers to the Americas, known as *peninsulares*, were mostly men. As a result, relationships between Spanish settlers and native women were common. These relationships created a large **mestizo**—or mixed Spanish and Native American—population.

Although the Spanish conquerors lived among the native people, they also oppressed them. In their effort to exploit the land for its precious resources, the Spanish forced Native Americans to work within a system known as *encomienda*. Under this system, natives farmed, ranched, or mined for Spanish landlords. These landlords had received the rights to the natives' labor from Spanish authorities. The holders of *encomiendas* promised the Spanish rulers that they would act fairly and respect the workers. However, many abused the natives and worked many laborers to death, especially inside dangerous mines.

**The Portuguese in Brazil** One area of South America that remained outside of Spanish control was Brazil. In 1500, Cabral claimed the land for Portugal. During the 1530s, colonists began settling Brazil's coastal region. Finding little gold or silver, the settlers began growing sugar. Clearing out huge swaths of forest land, the Portuguese built giant sugar plantations. The demand for sugar in Europe was great, and the colony soon enriched Portugal. In time, the colonists pushed farther west into Brazil. They settled even more land for the production of sugar.

## History Makers



### Francisco Pizarro 1475?–1541

Pizarro was the son of an infantry captain and a young peasant woman. His parents never married. Raised by his mother's poor family, he never learned to read. Ambitious, brave, and

ruthless, he determined to make his fortune as an explorer and conqueror.

Embarked on a voyage of conquest down the west coast of South America, Pizarro was ordered by the governor of Panama to abandon the expedition to prevent the loss of lives. Pizarro took his sword and drew a line in the dust, inviting those of his followers who desired wealth and fame to cross the line and follow him. Thus began the conquest of Peru.

Pizarro founded the city of Lima, Peru's capital, in 1535. He became governor of Peru and encouraged settlers from Spain.



### Atahualpa 1502?–1533

Atahualpa was the last ruler of the Incan empire in Peru. After Atahualpa was captured and held for ransom by the Spanish, the Incan people throughout the empire brought gold and

silver that the Spanish then had melted down into bullion and ingots. They accumulated 24 tons of gold and silver, the richest ransom in history.

The Spanish executed Atahualpa despite the ransom paid by his people. As he was about to be burned at the stake, the Spanish offered him a more merciful death by strangulation if he agreed to convert to Christianity, which he did. Thus died the last emperor of the Inca.



**INTERNET ACTIVITY** Go online to create a poster about the ransom paid by the Incan people to rescue Atahualpa.

This U.S. postage stamp was issued in 1940 to celebrate the 400th anniversary of the Coronado expedition.



## Spain's Influence Expands

Spain's American colonies helped make it the richest, most powerful nation in the world during much of the 16th century. Ships filled with treasures from the Americas continually sailed into Spanish harbors. This newfound wealth helped usher in a golden age of art and culture in Spain. (See Chapter 5.)

Throughout the 16th century, Spain also increased its military might. To protect its treasure-filled ships, Spain built a powerful navy. The Spanish also strengthened their other military forces, creating a skillful and determined army. For a century and a half, Spain's army seldom lost a battle. Meanwhile, Spain enlarged its American empire by settling in parts of what is now the United States.

**Conquistadors Push North** Dreams of new conquests prompted Spain to back a series of expeditions into the southwestern United States. The Spanish actually had settled in parts of the United States before they even dreamed of building an empire on the American mainland. In 1513, Spanish explorer Juan Ponce de León landed on the coast of modern-day Florida and claimed it for Spain.

By 1540, after building an empire that stretched from Mexico to Peru, the Spanish once again looked to the land that is now the United States. In 1540–1541, Francisco Vázquez de Coronado led an expedition throughout much of present-day Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas. He was searching for another wealthy empire to conquer. Coronado found little gold amidst the dry deserts of the Southwest. As a result, the Spanish monarchy assigned mostly priests to explore and colonize the future United States.

Catholic priests had accompanied conquistadors from the very beginning of American colonization. The conquistadors had come in search of wealth. The priests who accompanied them had come in search of converts. In the winter of 1609–1610, Pedro de Peralta, governor of Spain's northern holdings, called New Mexico, led settlers to a tributary on the upper Rio Grande. They built a capital called Santa Fe, or "Holy Faith." In the next two decades, a string of Christian missions arose among the Pueblo, the native inhabitants of the region. Scattered missions, forts, and small ranches dotted the lands of New Mexico. These became the headquarters for advancing the Catholic religion. ☉

### MAIN IDEA

#### Contrasting

☉ How did Spain's colony in New Mexico differ from its colonies in New Spain?

## Opposition to Spanish Rule

Spanish priests worked to spread Christianity in the Americas. They also pushed for better treatment of Native Americans. Priests spoke out against the cruel treatment of natives. In particular, they criticized the harsh pattern of labor that emerged under the *encomienda* system. "There is nothing more detestable or more cruel," Dominican monk Bartolomé de Las Casas wrote, "than the tyranny which the Spaniards use toward the Indians for the getting of pearl [riches]."

**African Slavery and Native Resistance** The Spanish government abolished the *encomienda* system in 1542. To meet the colonies' need for labor, Las Casas suggested Africans. "The labor of one . . . [African] . . . [is] more valuable than that of four Indians," he said. The priest later changed his view and denounced African slavery. However, others promoted it.

Opposition to the Spanish method of colonization came not only from Spanish priests, but also from the natives themselves. Resistance to Spain's attempt at domination began shortly after the Spanish arrived in the Caribbean. In November of 1493, Columbus encountered resistance in his attempt to conquer the present-day island of St. Croix. Before finally surrendering, the inhabitants defended themselves by firing poison arrows.

As late as the end of the 17th century, natives in New Mexico fought Spanish rule. Although they were not risking their lives in silver mines, the natives still felt the weight of Spanish force. In converting the natives, Spanish priests and soldiers burned their sacred objects and prohibited native rituals. The Spanish also forced natives to work for them and sometimes abused them physically.

In 1680, Popé, a Pueblo ruler, led a well-organized rebellion against the Spanish. The rebellion involved more than 8,000 warriors from villages all over New Mexico. The native fighters drove the Spanish back into New Spain. For the next 12 years, until the Spanish regained control of the area, the southwest region of the future United States once again belonged to its original inhabitants. **D**

By this time, however, the rulers of Spain had far greater concerns. The other nations of Europe had begun to establish their own colonies in the Americas.

### MAIN IDEA

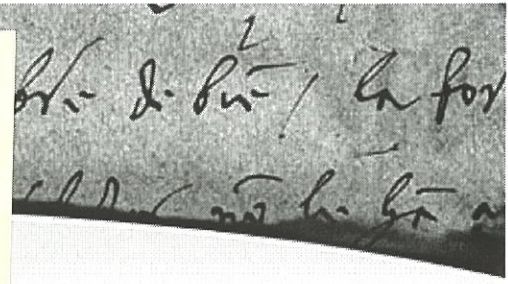
#### Analyzing Causes

**D** Why did the natives of New Mexico revolt against Spanish settlers?





## SECTION 3:



# The Columbian Exchange and Global Trade

### MAIN IDEA

**ECONOMICS** The colonization of the Americas introduced new items into the Eastern and Western hemispheres.

### WHY IT MATTERS NOW

This global exchange of goods permanently changed Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas.

### TERMS & NAMES

- Columbian Exchange
- capitalism
- joint-stock company
- mercantilism
- favorable balance of trade

**SETTING THE STAGE** The colonization of the Americas dramatically changed the world. It prompted both voluntary and forced migration of millions of people. It led to the establishment of new and powerful societies. Other effects of European settlement of the Americas were less noticeable but equally important. Colonization resulted in the exchange of new items that greatly influenced the lives of people throughout the world. The new wealth from the Americas resulted in new business and trade practices in Europe.

## The Columbian Exchange

The global transfer of foods, plants, and animals during the colonization of the Americas is known as the **Columbian Exchange**. Ships from the Americas brought back a wide array of items that Europeans, Asians, and Africans had never before seen. They included such plants as tomatoes, squash, pineapples, tobacco, and cacao beans (for chocolate). And they included animals such as the turkey, which became a source of food in the Eastern Hemisphere.

Perhaps the most important items to travel from the Americas to the rest of the world were corn and potatoes. Both were inexpensive to grow and nutritious. Potatoes, especially, supplied many essential vitamins and minerals. Over time, both crops became an important and steady part of diets throughout the world. These foods helped people live longer. Thus they played a significant role in boosting the world's population. The planting of the first white potato in Ireland and the first sweet potato in China probably changed more lives than the deeds of 100 kings.

Traffic across the Atlantic did not flow in just one direction, however. Europeans introduced various livestock animals into the Americas. These included horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs. Foods from Africa (including some that originated in Asia) migrated west in European ships. They included bananas, black-eyed peas, and yams. Grains introduced to the Americas included wheat, rice, barley, and oats.

Some aspects of the Columbian Exchange had a tragic impact on many Native Americans. Disease was just as much a part of the Columbian Exchange as goods and food. The diseases Europeans brought with them, which included smallpox and measles, led to the deaths of millions of Native Americans.



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the Columbian exchange.

# Global Impact: Food Exchange

## The Columbian Exchange

Few events transformed the world like the Columbian Exchange. This global transfer of plants, animals, disease, and especially food brought together the Eastern and Western hemispheres and touched, in some way, nearly all the peoples of the world.

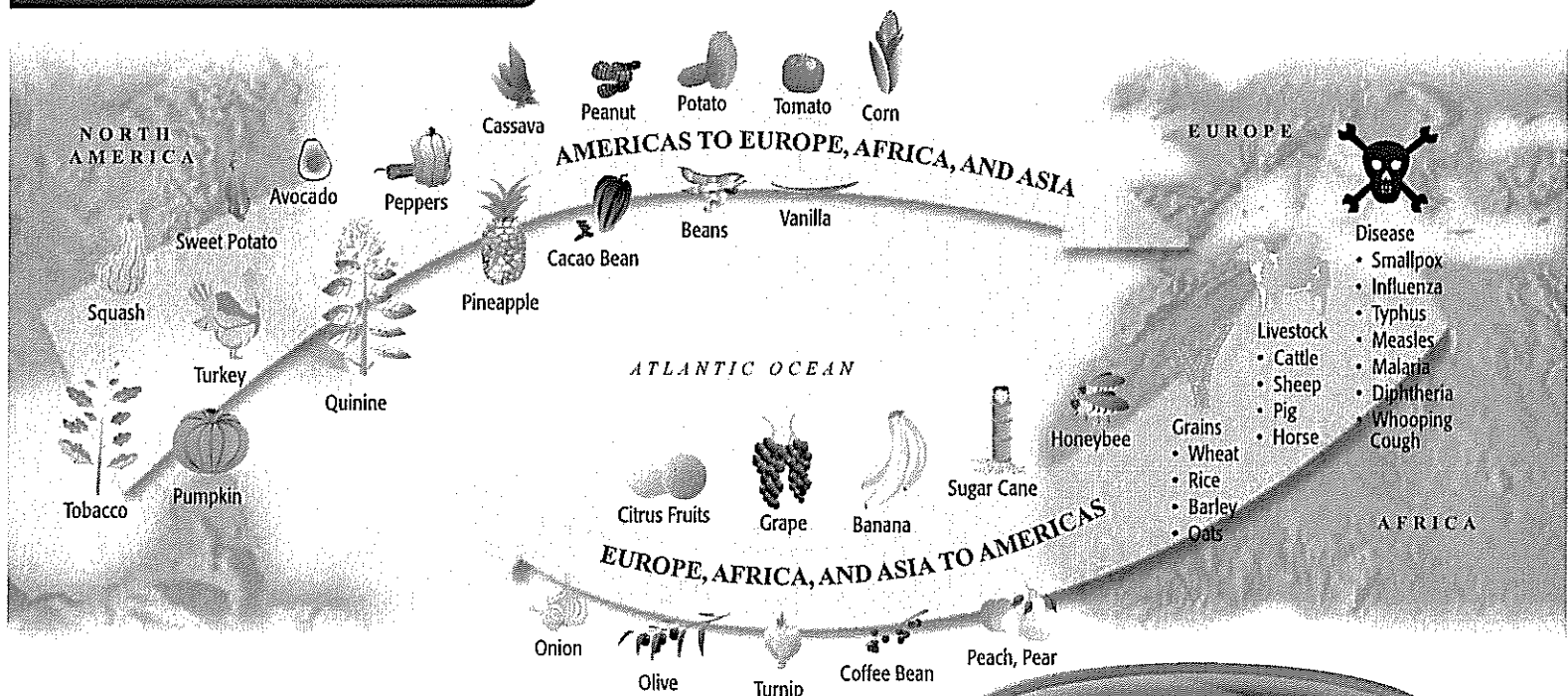
### Frightening Foods

Several foods from the Americas that we now take for granted at first amazed and terrified Europeans. Early on, people thought the tomato was harmful to eat. One German official warned that the tomato "should not be taken internally." In 1619, officials in Burgundy, France, banned potatoes, explaining that "too frequent use of them caused the leprosy." In 1774, starving peasants in Prussia refused to eat the spud.

*"The culinary life we owe Columbus is a progressive dinner in which the whole human race takes part but no one need leave home to sample all the courses."*

Raymond Sokolov

## The Columbian Exchange



### The Geography of Food

Think about your favorite foods. Chances are that at least one originated in a distant land. Throughout history, the introduction of new foods into a region has dramatically changed lives—for better and worse. Dependence on the potato, for example, led to a famine in Ireland. This prompted a massive migration of Irish people to other countries. In the Americas, the introduction of sugar led to riches for some and enslavement for many others.

### Connect to Today

**1. Forming Opinions** Have students work in small groups to pose and answer questions about the beneficial and harmful aspects of the Columbian Exchange.

See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R20.

**2. Comparing and Contrasting** Find out what major items are exchanged or traded between the United States and either Asia, Africa, or Europe. How do the items compare with those of the Columbian Exchange? Report your findings to the class.

A Spanish missionary in Mexico described the effects of smallpox on the Aztecs:

#### PRIMARY SOURCE

There was a great havoc. Very many died of it. They could not walk. . . . They could not move; they could not stir; they could not change position, nor lie on one side; nor face down, nor on their backs. And if they stirred, much did they cry out. Great was its destruction.

BERNARDINO DE SAHAGUN, quoted in *Seeds of Change*

Other diseases Europeans brought with them included influenza, typhus, malaria, and diphtheria. **A**

## Global Trade

The establishment of colonial empires in the Americas influenced the nations of Europe in still other ways. New wealth from the Americas was coupled with a dramatic growth in overseas trade. The two factors together prompted a wave of new business and trade practices in Europe during the 16th and 17th centuries. These practices, many of which served as the root of today's financial dealings, dramatically changed the economic atmosphere of Europe.

**The Rise of Capitalism** One aspect of the European economic revolution was the growth of **capitalism**. Capitalism is an economic system based on private ownership and the investment of resources, such as money, for profit. No longer were governments the sole owners of great wealth. Due to overseas colonization and trade, numerous merchants had obtained great wealth. These merchants continued to invest their money in trade and overseas exploration. Profits from these investments enabled merchants and traders to reinvest even more money in other enterprises. As a result, businesses across Europe grew and flourished.

The increase in economic activity in Europe led to an overall increase in many nations' money supply. This in turn brought on inflation, or the steady rise in the price of goods. Inflation occurs when people have more money to spend and thus demand more goods and services. Because the supply of goods is less than the demand for them, the goods become both scarce and more valuable. Prices then rise. At this time in Europe, the costs of many goods rose. Spain, for example, endured a crushing bout of inflation during the 1600s, as boatloads of gold and silver from the Americas greatly increased the nation's money supply.

**Joint-Stock Companies** Another business venture that developed during this period was known as the **joint-stock company**. The joint-stock company worked much like the modern-day corporation, with investors buying shares of stock in a company. It involved a number of people combining their wealth for a common purpose.

## Three Worlds Meet, 1492–1700

1492 (Europeans)

Columbus embarks on voyage.

1511 (Africans)

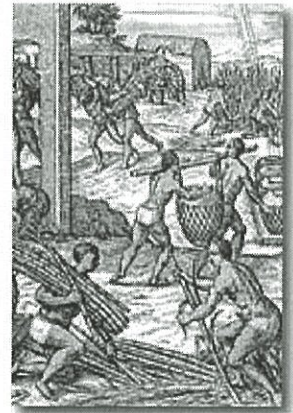
Africans begin working as slaves in the Americas.

1521 (Americans)

The Aztec Empire in Mexico is conquered by Hernando Cortés.

1533 (Americans)

The Inca Empire in South America falls to Francisco Pizarro.



1630 (Europeans)

Puritans establish the Massachusetts Bay Colony in North America.

1650 (Africans)

The number of Africans toiling in Spanish America reaches 300,000.

1675 (Americans)

Native Americans battle colonists in King Philip's War.

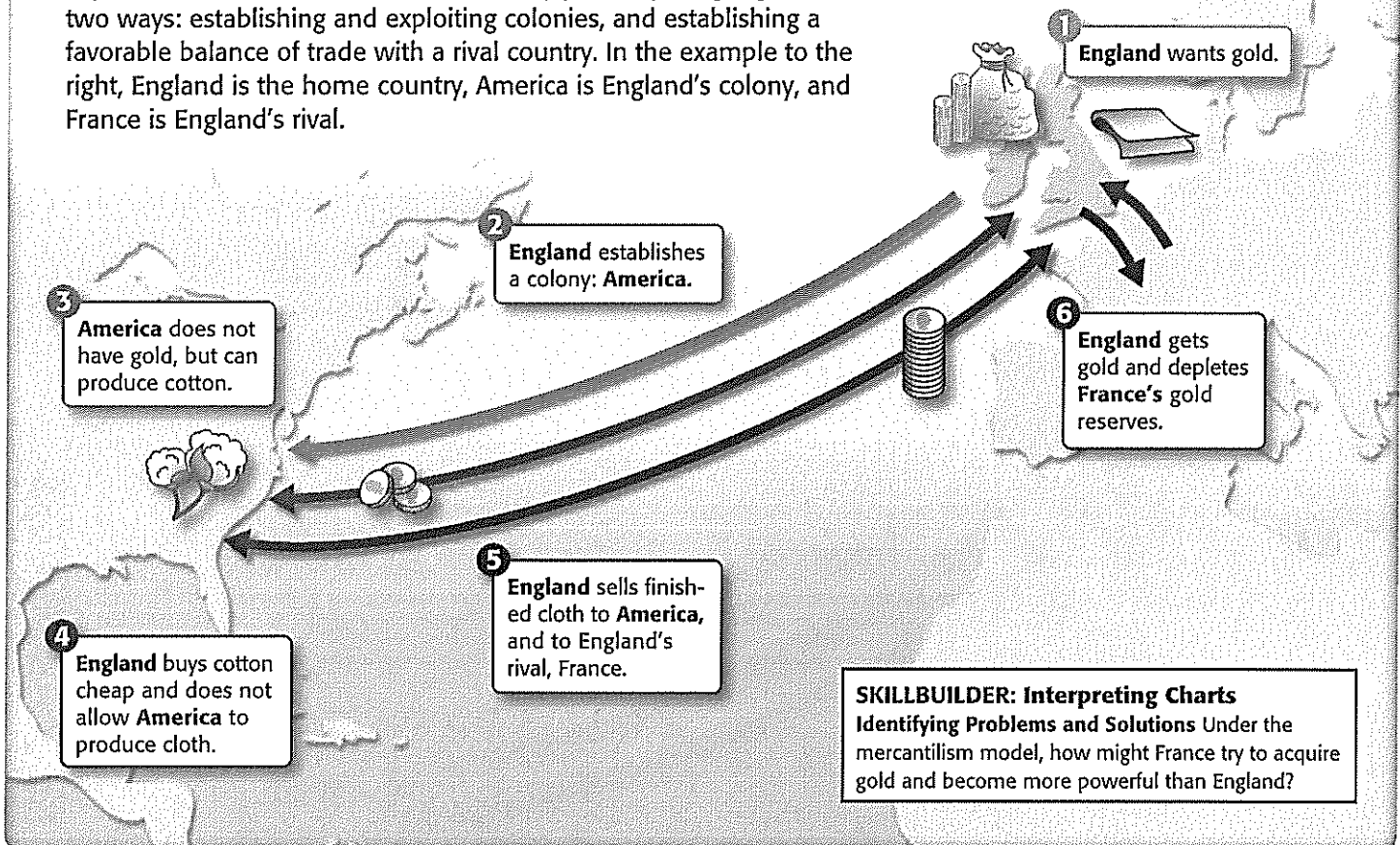
#### MAIN IDEA

#### Making Inferences

**A** Why is the Columbian Exchange considered a significant event?

# Mercantilism

As you have read, mercantilism was an economic theory practiced in Europe from the 16th to the 18th centuries. Economists of the period believed that a country's power came from its wealth. Thus, a country would do everything possible to acquire more gold, preferably at the expense of its rivals. A mercantilist country primarily sought gold in two ways: establishing and exploiting colonies, and establishing a favorable balance of trade with a rival country. In the example to the right, England is the home country, America is England's colony, and France is England's rival.



In Europe during the 1500s and 1600s, that common purpose was American colonization. It took large amounts of money to establish overseas colonies. Moreover, while profits may have been great, so were risks. Many ships, for instance, never completed the long and dangerous ocean voyage. Because joint-stock companies involved numerous investors, the individual members paid only a fraction of the total colonization cost. If the colony failed, investors lost only their small share. If the colony thrived, the investors shared in the profits. It was a joint-stock company that was responsible for establishing Jamestown, England's first North American colony. **B**

**MAIN IDEA**

**Making Inferences-**

**B** Why would a joint-stock company be popular with investors in overseas colonies?

## The Growth of Mercantilism

During this time, the nations of Europe adopted a new economic policy known as **mercantilism**. The theory of mercantilism (shown above) held that a country's power depended mainly on its wealth. Wealth, after all, allowed nations to build strong navies and purchase vital goods. As a result, the goal of every nation became the attainment of as much wealth as possible.

**Balance of Trade** According to the theory of mercantilism, a nation could increase its wealth and power in two ways. First, it could obtain as much gold and silver as possible. Second, it could establish a **favorable balance of trade**, in which it sold more goods than it bought. A nation's ultimate goal under mercantilism was to become self-sufficient, not dependent on other countries for goods. An English author of the time wrote about the new economic idea of mercantilism:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

Although a Kingdom may be enriched by gifts received, or by purchases taken from some other Nations . . . these are things uncertain and of small consideration when they happen. The ordinary means therefore to increase our wealth and treasure is by Foreign Trade, wherein we must ever observe this rule: to sell more to strangers yearly than we consume of theirs in value.

THOMAS MUN, quoted in *World Civilizations*

Mercantilism went hand in hand with colonization, for colonies played a vital role in this new economic practice. Aside from providing silver and gold, colonies provided raw materials that could not be found in the home country, such as wood or furs. In addition to playing the role of supplier, the colonies also provided a market. The home country could sell its goods to its colonies. ©

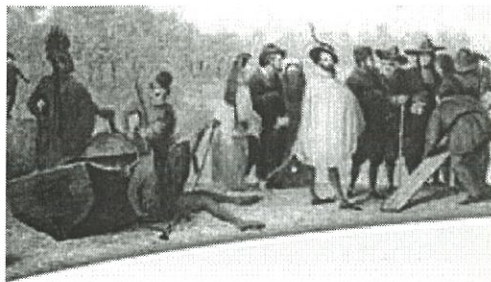
**Economic Revolution Changes European Society** The economic changes that swept through much of Europe during the age of American colonization also led to changes in European society. The economic revolution spurred the growth of towns and the rise of a class of merchants who controlled great wealth.

The changes in European society, however, only went so far. While towns and cities grew in size, much of Europe's population continued to live in rural areas. And although merchants and traders enjoyed social mobility, the majority of Europeans remained poor. More than anything else, the economic revolution increased the wealth of European nations. In addition, mercantilism contributed to the creation of a national identity. Also, as Chapter 5 will describe, the new economic practices helped expand the power of European monarchs, who became powerful rulers.

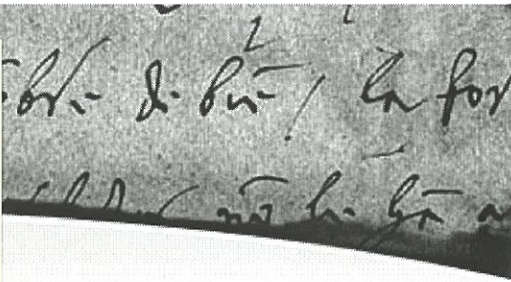
**MAIN IDEA**

**Summarizing**

© What role did colonies play in mercantilism?



# SECTION 4:



## The Atlantic Slave Trade

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
<b>CULTURAL INTERACTION</b> To meet their growing labor needs, Europeans enslaved millions of Africans in the Americas.	Descendants of enslaved Africans represent a significant part of the Americas' population today.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Atlantic slave trade</li> <li>• triangular trade</li> <li>• middle passage</li> </ul>

**SETTING THE STAGE** Sugar plantations and tobacco farms required a large supply of workers to make them profitable for their owners. European owners had planned to use Native Americans as a source of cheap labor. But millions of Native Americans died from disease, warfare, and brutal treatment. Therefore, the Europeans in Brazil, the Caribbean, and the southern colonies of North America soon turned to Africa for workers. This demand for cheap labor resulted in the brutalities of the slave trade.

### The Causes of African Slavery

Beginning around 1500, European colonists in the Americas who needed cheap labor began using enslaved Africans on plantations and farms.

**Slavery in Africa** Slavery had existed in Africa for centuries. In most regions, it was a relatively minor institution. The spread of Islam into Africa during the seventh century, however, ushered in an increase in slavery and the slave trade. Muslim rulers in Africa justified enslavement with the Muslim belief that non-Muslim prisoners of war could be bought and sold as slaves. As a result, between 650 and 1600, Muslims transported about 17 million Africans to the Muslim lands of North Africa and Southwest Asia.

In most African and Muslim societies, slaves had some legal rights and an opportunity for social mobility. In the Muslim world, a few slaves even occupied positions of influence and power. Some served as generals in the army. In African societies, slaves could escape their bondage in numerous ways, including marrying into the family they served.

**The Demand for Africans** The first Europeans to explore Africa were the Portuguese during the 1400s. Initially, Portuguese traders were more interested in trading for gold than for captured Africans. That changed with the colonization of the Americas, as natives began dying by the millions.

Europeans saw advantages in using Africans in the Americas. First, many Africans had been exposed to European diseases and had built up some immunity. Second, many Africans had experience in farming and could be taught plantation work. Third, Africans were less likely to escape because they did not know their way around the new land. Fourth, their skin color made it easier to catch them if they escaped and tried to live among others.



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the effects of the slave trade.

**MAIN IDEA**

**Analyzing Motives**

**A** What advantages did Europeans see in enslaving Africans?

In time, the buying and selling of Africans for work in the Americas—known as the **Atlantic slave trade**—became a massive enterprise. Between 1500 and 1600, nearly 300,000 Africans were transported to the Americas. During the next century, that number climbed to almost 1.3 million. By the time the Atlantic slave trade ended around 1870, Europeans had imported about 9.5 million Africans to the Americas. **A**

**Spain and Portugal Lead the Way** The Spanish took an early lead in importing Africans to the Americas. Spain moved on from the Caribbean and began to colonize the American mainland. As a result, the Spanish imported and enslaved thousands more Africans. By 1650, nearly 300,000 Africans labored throughout Spanish America on plantations and in gold and silver mines.

By this time, however, the Portuguese had surpassed the Spanish in the importation of Africans to the Americas. During the 1600s, Brazil dominated the European sugar market. As the colony's sugar industry grew, so too did European colonists' demand for cheap labor. During the 17th century, more than 40 percent of all Africans brought to the Americas went to Brazil.

## Slavery Spreads Throughout the Americas

As the other European nations established colonies in the Americas, their demand for cheap labor grew. Thus, they also began to import large numbers of Africans.

**England Dominates the Slave Trade** As England's presence in the Americas grew, it came to dominate the Atlantic slave trade. From 1690 until England abolished the slave trade in 1807, it was the leading carrier of enslaved Africans. By the time the slave trade ended, the English had transported nearly 1.7 million Africans to their colonies in the West Indies.

African slaves were also brought to what is now the United States. In all, nearly 400,000 Africans were sold to Britain's North American colonies. Once in North America, however, the slave population steadily grew. By 1830, roughly 2 million slaves toiled in the United States.

## History in Depth

### Slavery

Slavery probably began with the development of farming about 10,000 years ago. Farmers used prisoners of war to work for them.

Slavery has existed in societies around the world. People were enslaved in civilizations from Egypt to China to India. The picture at the right shows slaves working in a Roman coal mine.

Race was not always a factor in slavery. Often, slaves were captured prisoners of war, or people of a different nationality or religion.

However, the slavery that developed in the Americas was based largely on race. Europeans viewed black people as naturally inferior. Because of this, slavery in the Americas was hereditary.



**African Cooperation and Resistance** Many African rulers and merchants played a willing role in the Atlantic slave trade. Most European traders, rather than travel inland, waited in ports along the coasts of Africa. African merchants, with the help of local rulers, captured Africans to be enslaved. They then delivered them to the Europeans in exchange for gold, guns, and other goods. **B**

As the slave trade grew, some African rulers voiced their opposition to the practice. Nonetheless, the slave trade steadily grew. Lured by its profits, many African rulers continued to participate. African merchants developed new trade routes to avoid rulers who refused to cooperate.

**MAIN IDEA**

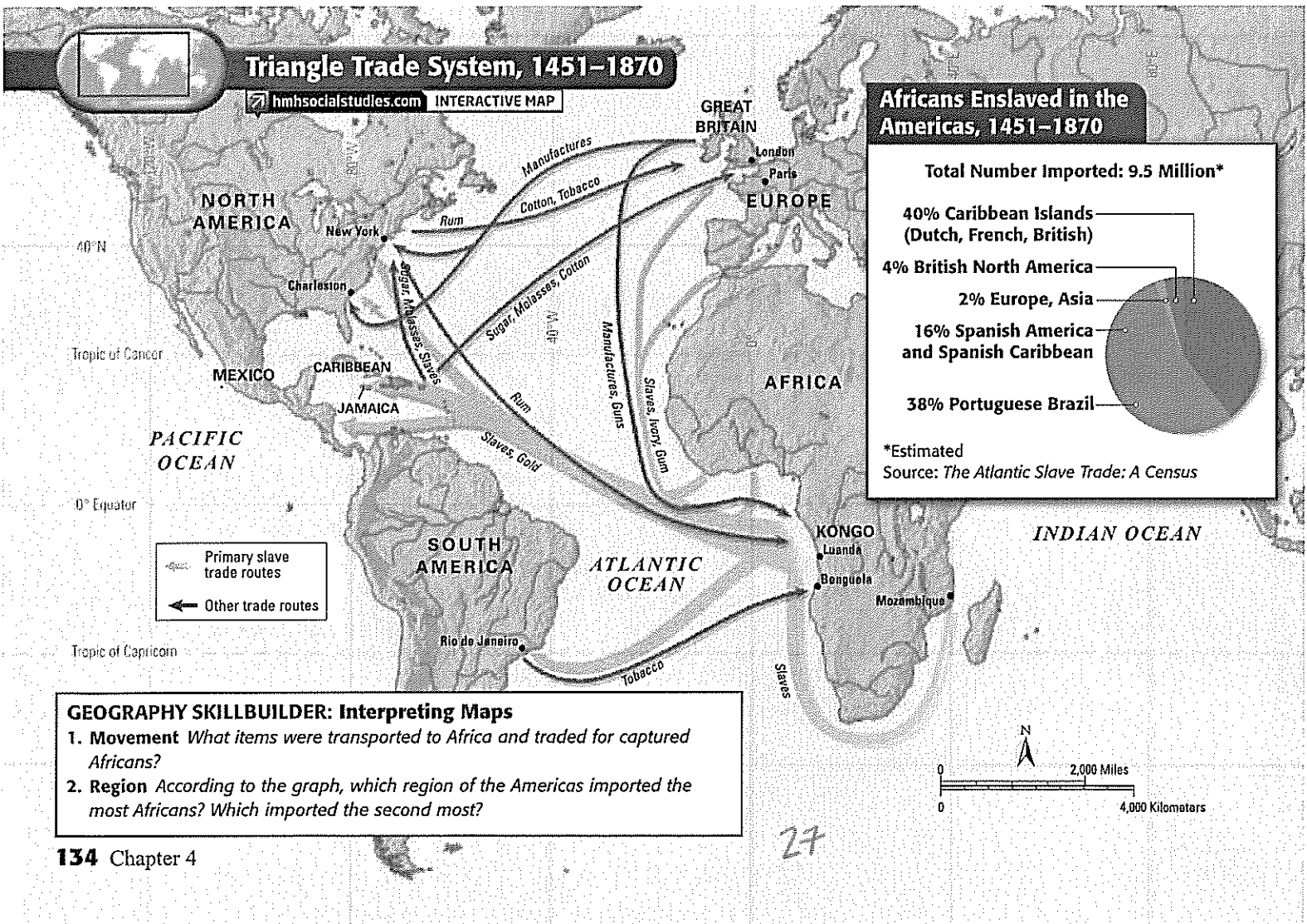
**Analyzing Issues**  
**B** Why did many African rulers participate in the Atlantic slave trade?

**A Forced Journey**

After being captured, African men and women were shipped to the Americas as part of a profitable trade network. Along the way, millions of Africans died.

**The Triangular Trade** Africans transported to the Americas were part of a transatlantic trading network known as the **triangular trade**. Over one trade route, Europeans transported manufactured goods to the west coast of Africa. There, traders exchanged these goods for captured Africans. The Africans were then transported across the Atlantic and sold in the West Indies. Merchants bought sugar, coffee, and tobacco in the West Indies and sailed to Europe with these products.

On another triangular route, merchants carried rum and other goods from the New England colonies to Africa. There they exchanged their merchandise for Africans. The traders transported the Africans to the West Indies and sold them for sugar and molasses. They then sold these goods to rum producers in New England.



27



## > Analyzing Primary Sources

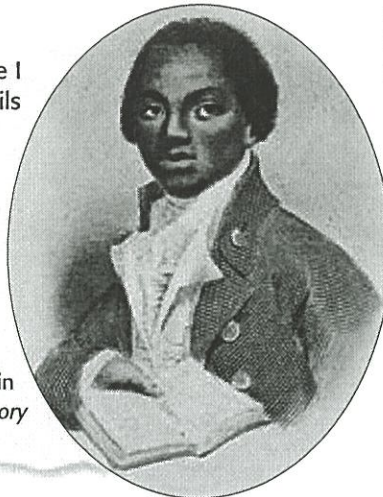
### The Horrors of the Middle Passage

One African, Olaudah Equiano, recalled the inhumane conditions on his trip from West Africa to the West Indies at age 12 in 1762.

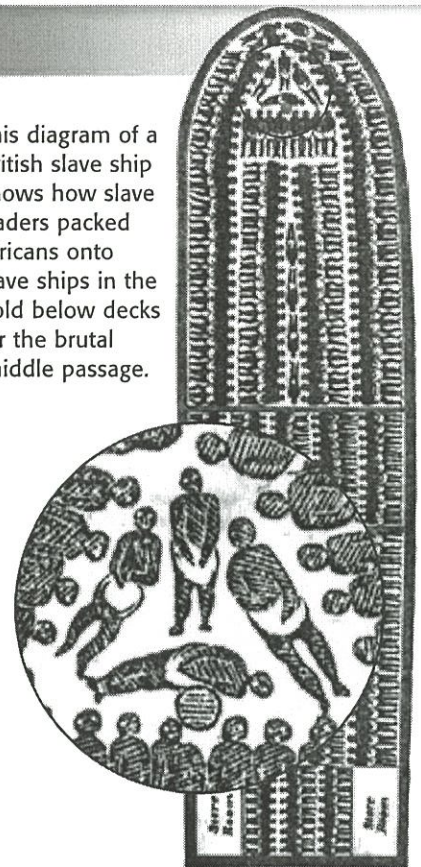
#### PRIMARY SOURCE

I was soon put down under the decks, and there I received such a salutation [greeting] in my nostrils as I never experienced in my life; so that, with the loathsomeness of the stench, and crying together, I became so sick and low that I was not able to eat . . . but soon, to my grief, two of the white men offered me eatables; and on my refusing to eat, one of them held me fast by the hands, and laid me across . . . the windlass, while the other flogged me severely.

OLAUDAH EQUIANO, quoted in  
*Eyewitness: The Negro in American History*



This diagram of a British slave ship shows how slave traders packed Africans onto slave ships in the hold below decks for the brutal middle passage.



#### DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

1. **Making Inferences** Why might the white men have forced Equiano to eat?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** What does the diagram of the slave ship suggest about conditions on board?

Various other transatlantic routes existed. The “triangular” trade encompassed a network of trade routes crisscrossing the northern and southern colonies, the West Indies, England, Europe, and Africa. The network carried a variety of traded goods.

**The Middle Passage** The voyage that brought captured Africans to the West Indies and later to North and South America was known as the **middle passage**. It was considered the middle leg of the transatlantic trade triangle. Sickening cruelty characterized this journey. In African ports, European traders packed Africans into the dark holds of large ships. On board, Africans endured whippings and beatings from merchants, as well as diseases that swept through the vessel. Numerous Africans died from disease or physical abuse aboard the slave ships. Many others committed suicide by drowning. Scholars estimate that roughly 20 percent of the Africans aboard each slave ship perished during the brutal trip.

## Slavery in the Americas

Africans who survived their ocean voyage faced a difficult life in the Americas. Forced to work in a strange land, enslaved Africans coped in a variety of ways.

**A Harsh Life** Upon arriving in the Americas, captured Africans usually were auctioned off to the highest bidder. After being sold, slaves worked in mines or fields or as domestic servants. Slaves lived a grueling existence. Many lived on little food in small, dreary huts. They worked long days and suffered beatings. In much of the Americas, slavery was a lifelong condition, as well as a hereditary one.

**Resistance and Rebellion** To cope with the horrors of slavery, Africans developed a way of life based on their cultural heritage. They kept alive such things as their musical traditions as well as the stories of their ancestors.

Slaves also found ways to resist. They made themselves less productive by breaking tools, uprooting plants, and working slowly. Thousands also ran away.

Some slaves pushed their resistance to open revolt. As early as 1522, about 20 slaves on Hispaniola attacked and killed several Spanish colonists. Larger revolts occurred throughout Spanish settlements during the 16th century.

Occasional uprisings also occurred in Brazil, the West Indies, and North America. In 1739, a group of slaves in South Carolina led an uprising known as the Stono Rebellion. Uprisings continued into the 1800s.

## Consequences of the Slave Trade

The Atlantic slave trade had a profound impact on both Africa and the Americas. In Africa, numerous cultures lost generations of their fittest members—their young and able—to European traders and plantation owners. In addition, countless African families were torn apart. Many of them were never reunited. The slave trade devastated African societies in another way: by introducing guns into the continent.

While they were unwilling participants in the growth of the colonies, African slaves contributed greatly to the economic and cultural development of the Americas. Their greatest contribution was their labor. Without their back-breaking work, colonies such as those on Haiti and Barbados may not have survived. In addition to their muscle, enslaved Africans brought their expertise, especially in agriculture. They also brought their culture. Their art, music, religion, and food continue to influence American societies.

The influx of so many Africans to the Americas also has left its mark on the very population itself. From the United States to Brazil, many of the nations of the Western Hemisphere today have substantial African-American populations. Many Latin American countries have sizable mixed-race populations.

As the next section explains, Africans were not the only cargo transported across the Atlantic during the colonization of the Americas. The settlement of the Americas brought many different items from Europe, Asia, and Africa to North and South America. It also introduced items from the Americas to the rest of the world.