Peopling the Americas

MAIN IDEA
In ancient times, migrating peoples settled the Americas, where their descendants developed complex societies.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
Patterns of immigration have always shaped and continue to shape American history.

Terms & Names
- nomadic
- Olmec
- Maya
- Aztec
- Inca
- Hohokam
- Anasazi
- Adena
- Hopewell
- Mississippian

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.

A PERSONAL VOICE THOMAS CANBY

“...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.”

—“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.

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, moving from place to place in search of food and water, 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.

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.
CHAPTER 1

EMPIRES OF MIDDLE AND SOUTH AMERICA

Archaeologists believe that the first empire of the Americas emerged as early as 1200 B.C. 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 B.C. These included the Maya, who built a dynamic culture in Guatemala and the Yucatán Peninsula between A.D. 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 A.D. 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 B.C. and A.D. 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 structures consisted of huge burial mounds filled with finely crafted objects. Other mounds were sculpted into effigies, or likenesses, of animals so large that they can be seen clearly only from the air. People of the Mississippian culture constructed gigantic pyramidal mounds.

Although societies such as the Mississippian and the Aztec still flourished when Christopher Columbus reached American shores in 1492, others had long since disappeared. Despite their fate, these early peoples were the ancestors of the many Native American groups that inhabited North America on the eve of its encounter with the European world.

**MAIN IDEA**

**Summarizing**

What were some of the achievements of the early civilizations of the Americas?

**CRITICAL THINKING**

3. **ANALYZING**
   How did the development of agriculture affect ancient societies in the Americas?

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

**DRAWING CONCLUSIONS**

Which ancient American empire do you think was most advanced? Support your choice with details from the text. **Think About:**

- the cultural achievements of each empire
- the characteristics of modern civilizations

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**TERMS & NAMES**

For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- nomadic
- Olmec
- Maya
- Aztec
- Inca
- Hohokam
- Anasazi
- Adena
- Hopewell
- Mississippian

**MAIN IDEA**

2. **TAKING NOTES**

In a chart like the one below, list the early civilizations of the Americas. Include the approximate dates they flourished and their locations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civilization</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

What are some similarities that you have noticed among these early civilizations?
Essie Parrish, a Native American storyteller and medicine woman, kept alive stories from a time when her people, the Kashaya Pomo, flourished along the northern California coast. She invited Robert Oswalt, an anthropologist, to time-travel with her to the 1540s. As Parrish spoke, the centuries rolled back.

"In the old days, before the white people came up here, there was a boat sailing on the ocean from the south. Because before that . . . [the Kashaya Pomo] had never seen a boat, they said, 'Our world must be coming to an end. Couldn’t we do something? This big bird floating on the ocean is from somewhere, probably from up high. . . .' [T]hey promised Our Father [a feast] saying that destruction was upon them.

When they had done so, they watched [the ship] sail way up north and disappear . . . They were saying that nothing had happened to them—the big bird person had sailed northward without doing anything—because of the promise of a feast. . . . Consequently they held a feast and a big dance."

—quoted in Kashaya Texts

The event became part of the Kashaya Pomo’s oral history. Stories like this have provided us with a broad picture of the Native American world before it came into contact with the world of European explorers and settlers.

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, nonmigratory life of farming communities.
CALIFORNIA Not one land, but many lands—that’s 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 (kwäQkC-LtPl), 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.

Vocabulary

adobe: a sun-dried brick of clay and straw

Science & Technology

FORENSIC RECONSTRUCTIONS

Artists are now able to recreate the facial features of ancient peoples. The appearance of Native Americans who died sometime between A.D. 1000 and 1400 have recently been reconstructed from skeletal remains. These remains, removed from a burial site in Virginia, have since been returned to the Monacan tribe. The reconstructions bear a remarkable resemblance to modern Monacans.

The forensic artist first makes a plaster cast from the original skull. Then the artist uses clay to build up the facial features. Finally, the artist individualizes the head, based on clues about the subject’s weight, muscularity, and environment.

The final reconstruction presents a close approximation of the person’s original appearance.

SKILLBUILDER Interpreting Visual Sources

1. What strikes you most about these reconstructed faces?
2. How might forensic reconstructions contribute to our understanding of the past?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R22.
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.”

**A PERSONAL VOICE** LOLOLOMAI

“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!”

—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’o-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, attitudes toward land use, and certain religious beliefs and social values were common to many cultures.

**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.
North American Cultures in the 1400s

Tepees could be quickly dismantled and were well suited to the nomadic lifestyle of the Plains.

A longhouse of the Eastern Woodlands region

Pueblos, built of sun-dried brick, or adobe, were characteristic dwellings of the Southwest.

Native American Trade

Before the arrival of Columbus, the trade routes of North America allowed goods to travel across the continent.

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

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER
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?
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.

A PERSONAL VOICE  WINTU WOMAN
“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.’”

—quoted in Freedom and Culture

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS  Nearly all Native Americans thought of the natural world as filled with spirits. Past generations remained alive to guide the living. Every object—both living and non-living—possessed a voice that might be heard if one listened closely. “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.”

John White, one of the first English colonists to arrive in North America, made several drawings of Native American life in the Chesapeake region in 1585. The engraving shown here was copied from White’s original drawing and published in 1590. The image shows the village life of the Secotan people, who lived near Roanoke Island, North Carolina.
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 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.

MAIN IDEA
Comparing
What similarities and differences existed among Native American social structures?

CRITICAL THINKING
In your opinion, were the differences between Native American groups 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

SYNTHESIZING
Describe the relationship between the individual and his or her social group in Native American society. Use details from the text to support your description.

HYPOTHESIZING
Why did Native American societies not wish to buy and sell land?
West African Societies Around 1492

MAIN 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.

Terms & Names
• Islam
• plantation
• Songhai
• savanna
• Benin
• Kongo
• lineage

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.

A PERSONAL VOICE

"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 manuscripts or written books out of Barbary, which are sold for more money than any other merchandise."

—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 that 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 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 the prophet 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, and it was later embraced by the rulers of Songhai, including Askia Muhammad. 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 sugar cane, 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, western 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 (sông’hì)—gained power and wealth by controlling the trans-Saharan 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 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 kingdoms grow. In the 1400s one of these kingdoms, Benin, dominated a large region around the Niger Delta. Leading the expansion was a powerful oba (ruler) named Ewuare. Stories that have been passed down to the present day recall Ewuare’s triumphs in the mid-1400s.

**A PERSONAL VOICE** CHIEF JACOB EGHAREVBA

“...He fought against and captured 201 towns and villages. . . . He took their rulers captive and he caused the people to pay tribute to him. He made good roads in Benin City. . . . In fact the town rose to importance and gained the name of city during his reign. It was he who had the innermost and greatest of the walls and ditches made round the city, and he also made powerful charms and had them buried at each of the nine gateways of the city so as to ward against any evil.”

—A Short History of Benin

Within this great walled city, 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 non-living 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** Throughout West Africa, people 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.

**MAIN IDEA**

Development of Historical Perspective

5 What agricultural skills did West Africans bring to the Americas?

**ASSESSMENT**

1. **TERMS & NAMES** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - Islam
   - plantation
   - Songhai
   - savanna
   - Benin
   - Kongo
   - lineage

2. **TAKING NOTES** Make an outline using the main topics shown below, 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

3. **ANALYZING 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. **ANALYZING EFFECTS** What effects did Portuguese trade routes have on West Africa?

5. **CONTRASTING** How did West African slavery differ from the kind of slavery that developed in the Americas?
European Societies Around 1492

**MAIN 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.

**Terms & Names**
- Prince Henry
- Renaissance
- hierarchy
- nuclear family
- Crusades
- Reformation

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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.

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**A PERSONAL VOICE** GOMES EANES DE ZURARA

“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. . . .”

—The Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea

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

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**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 were based on social hierarchy, that is, they were organized 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 constituted 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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE**

"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. . . ."

—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. 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** While Europeans recognized and respected kinship ties, 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 child care and household labor, such as preparing and preserving the family’s food.

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**JUNE, FROM LES TRÈS RICHES HEURES DU DUC DE BERRY**

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, made for a younger son of the French king, 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.

**SKILLBUILDER Interpreting Visual Sources**

1. What does the painting tell you about the importance of gender in the division of labor during the 1400s?
2. Why might images of poverty have displeased the aristocracy?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R22.
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 and 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.

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.

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, who 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. Starting 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 in favor of 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.

**Vocabulary**

**secular:** worldly rather than spiritual

**MAIN IDEA**

**Drawing Conclusions**

How might Renaissance attitudes and ideas have influenced European explorers?

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**Science & Technology**

**THE CARAVEL**

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.

- **The triangular lateen sails**, an innovation borrowed from Muslim ships, allowed the caravel to sail against the wind. Rigged with lateens, the ship could tack (sail on a zigzag course) more directly into the wind than could earlier European vessels.
- **The shallow draft** (the depth of the ship below the water line) made the ship ideal for coastal exploration.
- **The sternpost rudder** allowed greater maneuverability.
- **The smaller deck** at the stern provided protection from the rain.
- **The large hatch** allowed goods to be stored below deck.
Europe Enters a New Age of Expansion

Although Marco Polo’s journey to China 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 through uncharted waters. 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. (See “The Caravel” on page 24.)

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.

1. TERMS & NAMES
For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Prince Henry
- Renaissance
- hierarchy
- nuclear family
- Crusades
- Reformation

2. MAIN IDEA
For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. CRITICAL THINKING
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. SUMMARIZING
How did advances in technology open the way for world exploration?

5. DRAWING 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.
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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE  CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS**

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"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. . . ."
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—The Log of Christopher Columbus

Although Columbus did not find a route to Asia, his voyage set in motion a process that brought together the peoples of Europe, Africa, and the Americas.

**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 (tā’nō), or “noble ones.” He renamed their island San Salvador, or “Holy Savior,” and claimed it for Spain.

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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS**

“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.”

—quoted in Columbus: The Great Adventure

**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.”

**SPANISH FOOTHOLDS** In early January 1493, Columbus began his trip back to Spain. 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, and impose 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.

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**HISTORICAL SPOTLIGHT**

**THE VIKINGS**

The first Europeans to reach North America were probably Vikings. About 982, the Norwegian Viking Eric the Red crossed the Atlantic in an open boat and set up two colonies on Greenland. Some fifteen years later, his son, Leif, voyaged farther to a place he called Vinland the Good because of its abundant grapes. Historians now believe that present-day Newfoundland is Leif Ericson’s Vinland. In 1963, archaeologists discovered there a half-burned timbered house of Norse design that dates to about the year 1000.

According to Norwegian sagas, or tales of great deeds, another Norwegian expedition followed Leif Ericson’s and stayed in Newfoundland for three years. Then the Skraelings, as the saga calls the native peoples, drove away the colonists, and the Vikings never returned.
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 against the peoples that the Europeans called Indians.

**RESISTANCE AND CONQUEST** The natives of the Caribbean, however, did not succumb to Columbus and the Spaniards without fighting. In November of 1493, Columbus attempted to conquer the present-day island of St. Croix. Instead of surrendering, the inhabitants defended themselves by firing rounds of poisoned arrows. The Spaniards won easily, but the struggle proved that Native Americans would not yield in the easy conquest predicted by Columbus.

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.

**A PERSONAL VOICE** *BARTOLOMÉ DE LAS CASAS*

“*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.*”

—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, which devastated Native Americans, who had not developed any natural immunity to these diseases. 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 work force, 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.

A NEW SLAVE LABOR FORCE 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.

AFRICAN LOSSES The Atlantic slave trade would devastate many African societies, which 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 in what became one of the biggest voluntary migrations in history.

THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE 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 and 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 inflamed European rivalries. Portugal, the pioneer in navigation and exploration, deeply resented Spain’s sudden conquests. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI, a Spaniard, stepped in to avoid war between the two nations. In the Treaty of Tordesillas (tôr’də-sē’əs), 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 whom 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, dissatisfied with the explorer’s inability to maintain order on the island, ordered him to leave. After further travels throughout the Caribbean,

"Columbus’s achievements were historic and heroic."
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.

Some historians contend that, although millions of Native Americans were enslaved or killed by Europeans and the diseases they brought with them, this does not detract 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 and ought not to be condemned for acting according to the values of the age in which he lived.

"The legacy of Columbus is primarily one of ‘genocide, cruelty, and slavery.’"
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.”
Columbus reluctantly returned to Spain in 1504, where he died 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 impose their ways on Native Americans and Africans, they never completely succeeded. Their need to borrow from the people they sought to dominate proved too strong. Furthermore, the Native Americans and Africans resisted giving up their cultural identities. The new nation that emerged would blend elements of these three worlds, as well as others, in a distinctly multicultural society. Throughout the history of the United States, this multiculturalism would be one of its greatest challenges and also one of its greatest assets.

**SKILLBUILDER Interpreting Graphs**

1. What happened to the Native American population in the centuries after 1492? **Answer:** It declined dramatically.
2. Which group outnumbered the Native American population by 1780? **Answer:** Europeans.

**Three Worlds Meet 31**