

Medici family
Mercator Projection
Michaelangelo
Montesquieu, Baron de
Nasir al-Din
Newton, Isaac
patrons
Protestant Reformation
putting-out system
Raphael
“Renaissance Man”
Rousseau, Jacques
rule of law
scholasticism
Scientific Revolution
Shakespeare, William
Smith, Adam
Thirty Years War
Treaty of Westphalia
Voltaire



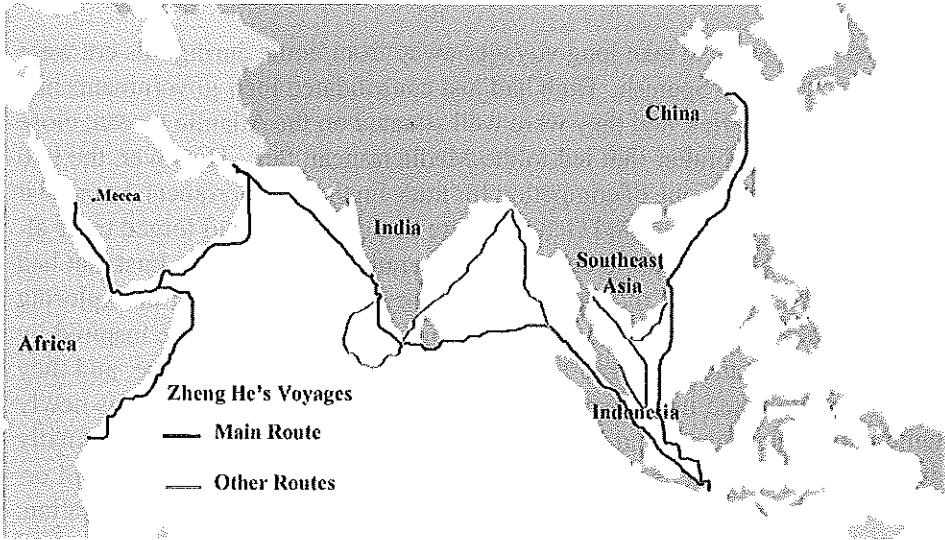
CHAPTER ELEVEN: HEMISPHERES UNITED

By 1450 people had been traveling across the world's seas and oceans since ancient times. The earliest water travel was generally by river, particularly in the areas of the river valley civilizations. Phoenician, Greek, and Roman ships crossed the Mediterranean Sea on a regular basis by the classical era, and dhows and Chinese junks traversed the wide expanses of the Indian Ocean. By the era from 600 to 1450, these trade patterns had intensified, canals connected rivers in China, and Polynesians had explored and settled on islands from the East Indies to Easter Island to Hawaii. Scandinavians had also made their way across the northern Atlantic to North America, but no sustained contact resulted from their travels. In the Americas, the Arawak were travelling around the Caribbean by 1000 C.E., and the Carib settled in many of the same areas by 1500, and had traveled to the North American mainland. All of these ventures throughout the world laid the basis for the extensive sea travel and trade that developed between 1450 and 1750 and made it possible for sea-based states to gain preeminent power in the world.

ZHENG HE'S VOYAGES

No solid historical proof exists that anyone crossed the Pacific Ocean before the early 16th century, and even though some islands in the Atlantic were settled, the Atlantic Ocean provided a great barrier between Europe, Africa, and the Americas. However, some incredible voyages were undertaken by China in the early 15th century. Chinese junks were the largest, most seaworthy ships of the day, and Chinese sailors were well trained. The expeditions were led by a Chinese Muslim, **Zheng He**, who was commissioned by the Ming Emperor **Yongle**. Although most of the Ming emperors emphasized self-reliance for China and discouraged extensive contacts with other civilizations, Yongle was something of a renegade who supported a series of seven maritime expeditions between 1405 and 1433, all commanded by Zheng He. The fleets were huge, with as many as 317 vessels and 28,000 men. The voyages stretched from China to Southeast Asia, India, the Red Sea, and east Africa. One purpose of the voyages was to re-

assert China's power after the demise of the Yuan Dynasty, and the ships carried expensive gifts for people along the way. In the time-honored tradition, Chinese vessels exacted tribute from those they encountered, who were influenced to cooperate by the size of the expeditions and the impressive ships. Zheng He also brought back exotic animals and plants to his emperor, most famously transporting a giraffe from Africa to China, where this wondrous creature was publicly displayed to people who had never seen such a sight.



Zheng He's Voyages. Zheng He took seven voyages from Nanjing to different destinations in the South China Sea and the Indian Ocean basin. He visited many ports in Southeast Asia and India, stopped by Mecca to fulfill his hajj, and docked in major cities along the Swahili Coast of Africa. He rid the Malacca Strait and surrounding waters of pirates, settled disputes among locals in several locations, and collected tribute and distributed gifts along the way.

After Yongle's death, the Ming made the decision to stop the voyages, leading many people in later times to speculate about how the course of world history might have been altered had they continued them. The voyages ended only a few decades before Europeans began venturing across the Atlantic and around the tip of Africa. If the Ming had not stopped the voyages, might the Chinese have "discovered" the Americas first? Indeed, a recent best-selling book concluded that it is probable that Zheng He made his way to the California coast. Most historians disagree with that conclusion; however, in many ways, the Chinese ships were more seaworthy (though not as agile) than the small European ships that later landed in the Americas. The fact remains that the Ming did stop the voyages, a perfectly understandable occurrence within the context of the dynasty's overall orientation to the world. Yongle was in many ways an exception to other Ming Emperors, whose general orientation was to be very skeptical about contact with foreigners. After all, the Mongols had taken over China not

too many years before. The overall behavior – to sponsor gigantic voyages and then abruptly stop them – reflects China’s on-again-off-again attitude toward the Middle Kingdom’s relationship with the world: trade was vital to China’s greatness but it also could bring great harm and destruction. Besides, money was needed yet again to contain attacks from nomadic groups on the northern and western borders, so the voyages were deemed too expensive.

PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH VOYAGES AND COLONIES

The first Europeans to take long voyages away from home during this era were the Portuguese and Spanish. Both had just consolidated their governments and built strong militaries, and they were well situated on the Atlantic Ocean, close to the Strait of Gibraltar that led to the Mediterranean Sea. However, the two kingdoms had little hope of competing for trade on the Mediterranean because it was dominated by Venice and Genoa. These two city-states had forged trade alliances with Muslim states to continue the lucrative trade with the East that had begun during the era of the Crusades, and they had little interest in exploring possible trade routes across the Atlantic. Spain and Portugal were inspired by the new cultural and economic forces that were transforming Europe, and they also were interested in finding new converts to Christianity. Spain was newly united under Ferdinand and Isabelle, who, as devout Catholics, in 1492 finally defeated Granada, the last Muslim kingdom on the Iberian Peninsula, and ordered all Jews to be expelled only three months later. Their religious devotion, coupled with newly centralized political power, provided incentive to spread Christianity to new regions.

The Portuguese began their explorations in the early 15th century after they attacked the rich Muslim Moroccan city of Ceuta, which was only across the Strait of Gibraltar from the newly conquered Muslim state of Granada. There the Portuguese observed the caravans that brought gold and slaves across the Sahara from the African states to the south, which encouraged them to sail down the African coast in hopes of establishing some trade contacts. These first ventures were led by the third son of the Portuguese king, Prince Henry, who devoted his life to navigation, and is known in history as “**Henry the Navigator.**” His most important contribution was the creation of a navigation school, which became a magnet for the Genoese, Jewish cartographers who were familiar with Arab maps, and a number of young Portuguese men, some of whom became far more famous than he. Henry and his staff studied and improved navigation technology, including the magnetic compass and the astrolabe, which helped mariners determine their locations on the oceans. The Portuguese also made some important advancements in the design for ships, since the square-sailed vessels propelled by oarsmen in the Mediterranean would not work in the more turbulent Atlantic Ocean. The new ship developed by the Portuguese was called

the **caravel**, which was much smaller than a Chinese junk, but its size allowed the exploration of shallow coastal areas and rivers, yet it was strong enough to withstand storms on the ocean. The caravel had two sets of sails: one set had square sails to catch ocean breezes for speed, and the other set were the triangular lateen sails that had been used for maneuverability for many years on the Indian Ocean. The newly perfected European cannon made the caravel a fighting ship as well.

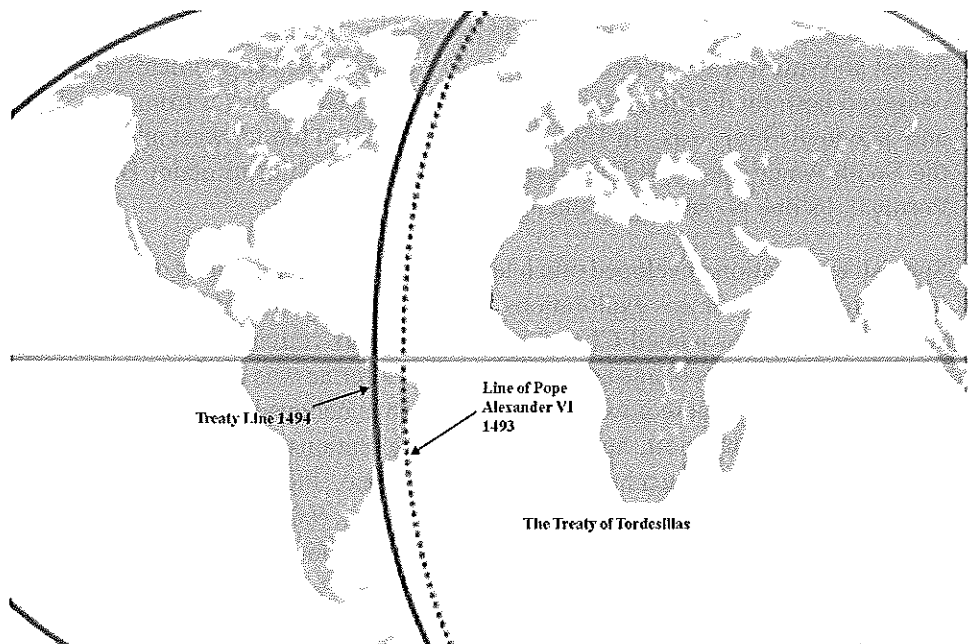
Henry had to convince others to strike out along the coast of Africa because of common concepts that southern waters were boiling hot and full of monsters, and so it took the Portuguese many years to venture beyond southern Morocco. They were further discouraged by the long stretch of desert that extended for hundreds of miles south of Morocco. Although it was not originally Henry's goal, some of the students from his school, most notably **Bartholomew Dias** and **Vasco da Gama**, set out to find the tip of Africa and connect beyond it to the Indian Ocean. These feats were accomplished by the end of the 15th century, after years of experimenting with wind and ocean currents and discovering the fastest and safest ways to return home to Portugal. These experiments also encouraged both the Portuguese and the Spanish to venture away from the coast and take to the high seas. In 1500 Pedro Cabral sailed too far west and reached the South American coast by mistake, but it allowed him to claim Brazil for Portugal, its one possession in the New World.

Spanish exploration developed much less gradually, with the rulers only becoming interested in overseas explorations during the last decade of the 15th century. A Genoese mariner named **Christopher Columbus** convinced Ferdinand and Isabella to sponsor a voyage across the Atlantic after he was turned down by the Genoese and Portuguese governments. Columbus believed that he could reach east Asia by sailing west, and he used the calculations of the Ancient Greek geographer Ptolemy when he estimated the distance. Ptolemy believed that the circumference of the earth was about 16,000 miles, 9,000 miles short of reality. As a result, it is not surprising that Columbus thought he had reached the East Indies when he arrived in the Americas in 1492. He made three voyages between 1492 and 1498, and continued to insist that he had reached Asia even after he sighted the coast of South America on the third voyage. Of course, he had encountered the New World instead, which would be named "America" after Amerigo Vespucci, a later explorer sponsored by Spain and Portugal.

The Treaty of Tordesillas

Despite the fact that the two kingdoms of Portugal and Spain sent explorations in different directions, they began to argue shortly after Columbus' first voyage about who controlled the newly discovered lands. Both looked to the Catholic Church for guidance. First, in 1493, the Spanish-born Pope Alexander VI en-

dorsed an imaginary line drawn through the Atlantic from the North to South Pole as the boundary for Spanish land claims, allowing Spain all land west of the line. Portuguese King John II protested the line that ran 100 leagues west of the Cape Verde islands and the Azores, so both countries agreed in the **Treaty of Tordesillas** in 1494 on a line moved to 370 leagues west of the islands. As Portugal pushed its explorations to India and beyond, and the Spanish began to explore the Pacific Ocean, they eventually began to argue about lands on the opposite side of the earth, resulting in a treaty in 1529 that set the line in the Pacific. A Spanish adventurer named Vasco Nunez de Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama from the east and “discovered” the Pacific Ocean on the other side in 1513, and **Ferdinand Magellan** was commissioned by Spain in 1519 to sail westward from Spain, cross the Atlantic, find a way through the Americas, cross the Pacific, and come back home to Spain. Though Magellan himself died in the Philippines, one of his ships made it all the way back to Spain, a significant accomplishment because it was the first to circumnavigate the globe.



The Treaty of Tordesillas. The first line drawn by Pope Alexander VI gave Spain all the land west of the dotted line. Portugal protested, resulting in the treaty line of 1494, the Treaty of Tordesillas, that moved the line west, allowing Portugal to claim lands east. Notice that the move allowed Portugal to claim Brazil, a area given to the Spanish by the first line.

The Treaty of Tordesillas was a fateful agreement for both Spain and Portugal, since it oriented Spain toward the Americas (except for Brazil) and Portugal toward Africa and the Indian Ocean. As the Portuguese entered the Indian Ocean basin, they encountered well-established trade routes and ports frequented,

shared, or controlled by many different people. With their sea-worthy caravels equipped with very effective cannon, the Portuguese were able to dominate trade from Africa to China during the 15th century. As their ships rounded the Cape of Good Hope at the tip of Africa, they first turned their attention to the Swahili city-states, many of which they burned to the ground. However, because different ports along the basin were pieces of the loosely connected Indian Ocean community, the “enemy” could not be defeated clearly through a blow to a non-existent head of state. The Portuguese, then, had to be content with quick profits from trade, and they seldom settled in ports they controlled. Muslims, Buddhists, and Hindus had very little interest in converting to the Christianity that they tried to impose, and despite the violence that the Portuguese dealt, in many ways life along the Indian Ocean trade circuit went on as it always had. On the other hand, the Spanish turned toward the New World, a place where they discovered that after the conquest of two clear enemies – the Aztecs and the Inca – all would be theirs. Thus began the transformation of the Americas.

The Spanish Empire in the Americas

The Spanish set about their conquest of the Americas in the same manner that they drove the Muslims out of the Iberian Peninsula. Through a combination of religious fervor to spread their faith and a desire for riches, individual **conquistadors** (conquerors) ventured out from Hispaniola (the place where Columbus landed in the Caribbean), to search for gold and convert the natives to Christianity. **Hernan Cortes** left Cuba in 1519 with 600 soldiers to march toward the interior of Mexico, where they sought to find the Aztec capital. They were aided in their search by Amerindian people along the way who were controlled by but not loyal to their Aztec overlords. Particularly important was Malintzin (Malinche), a native woman who became a translator and guide for Cortes after she had been given to him as a mistress. Meanwhile, the Aztec emperor, **Moctezuma**, decided to welcome the Spaniards to Tenochtitlan, an action that, at least according to legend, may have been inspired by the belief that Cortes was Quetzalcoatl returning home at last. The natives had never seen men with beards before, and descriptions that were relayed to Moctezuma may have sounded like the “feathered serpent.” Whatever his real reason, it was clearly a mistake, and the Spanish took over the city and imprisoned Moctezuma, who was soon killed in a counterattack. How did 600 men take over the great city protected by thousands of Aztec warriors? One secret was the disloyalty of other Amerindian groups that sided with the Spanish against the Aztecs. Another was the outbreak of smallpox that hit Tenochtitlan after the Spanish arrived. The natives had never been exposed to the disease that they carried, even though the Spanish themselves were immune to it. It has been said that more Aztecs died from smallpox than from battle wounds. However, the battle wounds were also important because the Spanish had a weapon that the Aztecs did not have: guns.

Spanish swords were also the fine results of years of technological diffusion and perfection all across the Eastern Hemisphere. As Jared Diamond said, “guns, germs, and steel” made all the difference.



COMPARISONS: ETHNOCENTRISM IN EARLY EUROPE AND CHINA

Ethnocentrism is a term that describes the tendency of human beings to view other cultures through the eyes of their own, and usually conclude that their own culture is superior. Ethnocentrism is not necessarily malicious, but it almost always involves the belief that one’s culture is the “center” of the world, and all others revolve around it.

Very early, ethnocentrism was reflected in China, whose people referred to their land as “The Middle Kingdom,” or the culture at the center of all others. During the early part of the era 1450-1750, the Ming Dynasty ruled China, and one of their greatest fears was the threat that outside influence would harm Chinese purity. During the same time period, the Spanish and Portuguese were quarreling over land claims, generally oblivious to the presence of other powers on the earth. For example, Portugal hoped to capture India, a feat that was virtually impossible since a strong, established civilization was already in place there. Like most other societies in history, the Spanish and Portuguese saw land as theirs to conquer, with one another as the only real threat, an attitude that spurred great accomplishments, but also reflected a great deal of ethnocentrism.

A few years after Cortes conquered the Aztecs, another conquistador, **Francisco Pizarro**, led a group of soldiers to the Andes to find the Inca, a great empire that he had heard about while living in Panama. The Inca had just been through a bitter civil war between two rival brothers for the throne, and though one – **Atahualpa** – had won, the empire was much weakened. Pizarro met Atahualpa near the city of Cajamarca in 1532, where his small group of soldiers seized Atahualpa from a litter carried by Inca nobles. The Spaniards were surrounded by 40,000 Inca soldiers, but their guns and swords carried the day. Atahualpa was imprisoned, and agreed to fill rooms with gold in exchange for his release. Atahualpa kept his promise, but the Spaniards did not. Atahualpa was first baptized as a Christian and then strangled. A massive native rebellion followed that made the Inca victory take longer than the Aztec conquest, but by 1540 the Spanish had the former Inca Empire under control.

With these two conquests, the Spanish conquistadors marched into other parts of Mesoamerica, South America, and the southern part of North America, claiming land as they went, converting natives to Christianity, and searching for gold. By the end of the 16th century, they had built a massive colonial empire in the New World.



**PERSPECTIVES:
BARTHOLOMÉ DE LAS CASAS
ON THE SPANISH IN THE NEW
WORLD**

The view that most people have of the Spanish conquest of the New World has been shaped by the writings of Bartholomé de Las Casas, a conquistador turned priest who dedicated himself to protecting Amerindian rights. Sometimes called the “Black Legend,” the vicious reputation of the Spanish was forged in *A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies*, a book that Las Casas dedicated to the Spanish king Philip II to inform him of the abuses in the New World, as described in these passages:

“They [the Spanish] forced their way into native settlements, slaughtering everyone they found there, including small children, old men, pregnant women, and even women who had just given birth. They hacked them to pieces, slicing open their bellies with their swords as though they were so many sheep herded into a pen. They even laid wagers on whether they could manage to slice a man in two at a stroke, or cut an individual’s head from his body, or disembowel him with a single blow of their axes...They spared no one, erecting especially wide gibbets [gallows] on which they could string their victims up with their feet just off the ground and then burn them alive thirteen at a time, in honor of our Savior and the twelve Apostles...”

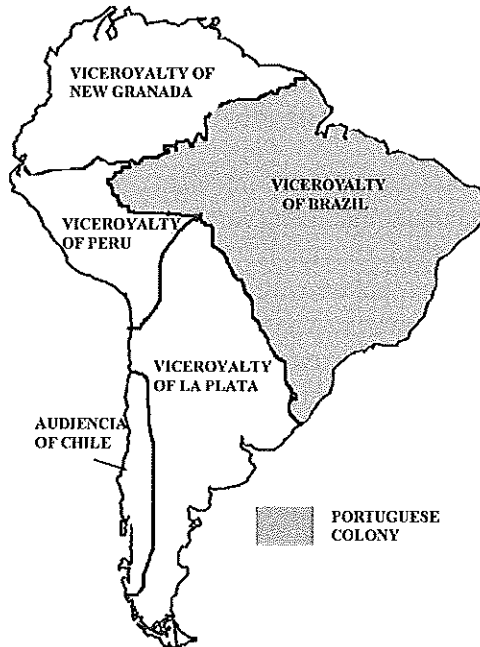
Reference: A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies by Bartholomé de Las Casas, translated by Nigel Griffin (Penguin Classics, 1992), pp. 14,15.

Iberian Colonial Organization

Once the Inca and Aztecs were conquered, The Spanish and Portuguese governments took control of the land the conquistadors had claimed, although the Portuguese were preoccupied with their interests in Africa and Asia until the early 18th century. The Portuguese kings first allowed court favorites to administer Brazil, then appointed a governor general, and finally a viceroy in 1720. The Spanish established two centers of authority in the Americas – Mexico and

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Peru – but later divided their possessions into four **viceroalties** and the Audiencia of Chile. In the old Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan they built a Spanish city called Mexico City, and they also built their own administrative buildings on the foundations of old Inca centers in Cuzco. However, Cuzco was in the interior mountains, so the Spanish moved their capital to Lima in 1535, a city along the coast much more accessible for trade.



Colonial Latin America in the 18th Century. At first the Spanish had only two viceroalties: New Spain in Mexico, and Peru in the Andes area. During the 18th century, they created new viceroalties that separated from Peru: La Plata and New Granada.

The **viceroys** were the king’s representatives in the New World, and they wielded a great deal of power over their lands. Spain was far away, and despite the fact that the king set up “audiencias”, or special courts, to review the viceroys’

decisions, communication was so difficult that the viceroys operated fairly independently. Each viceroy set up his government in an urban area, so the members of the large bureaucracy lived nearby, and army headquarters were also in the cities. Until the 17th century almost all colonial officials were born in Spain, but eventually, with new generations, Spaniards born in the New World took some of the posts. Settlement patterns in Portuguese Brazil were similar. Almost everyone that lived outside urban areas was Amerindian, with one important exception. True to the goal to convert as many natives to Christianity as possible, most ships that arrived in the New World from the Iberian Peninsula carried Catholic priests, particularly Jesuits, who were actively promoting the Catholic Reformation, and Franciscans, who had traditionally taken care of the poor. Priests went out into the countryside in order to contact the natives, and individually or in pairs they often set up residences and churches in areas far from other Europeans in the cities. Priests also saw to the spiritual needs of Europeans and established schools, universities, and printing services. However, their willingness to spread out throughout the countryside and live among the Amerindians was primarily responsible for the tremendous number of conversions they had. This pattern almost certainly made many priests quite sympathetic to the Amerindians, with some speaking up and eventually protesting Spanish exploitation.

The Colonial Economy in Latin America

The epidemic diseases that the immune Europeans carried with them to the New World may have helped the Spanish to defeat the Aztecs in Tenochtitlan, but the large number of natives that died from smallpox, measles, diphtheria, whooping cough and influenza certainly inhibited the economic development of the colonies. The Spanish set up silver mines in Peru and Mexico, where huge silver deposits were found, as well as agricultural plantations in the Caribbean, and the Portuguese organized sugar plantations in Brazil, since there were few precious metals there. Both mines and plantations required large work forces that the Europeans planned to fill with native workers. Even before the colonial administrative systems developed, individual conquistadors had forced natives to work for them under the **encomienda** system, which gave Spanish settlers – known as **encomenderos** – the right to force natives to work in their mines or fields. In return, they were responsible for their workers' well-being, including conversion to Christianity. In Peru this system of forced labor was modeled after the old Inca **mit'a** system that required one-seventh of adult male Amerindians to work at any give time for two to four months each year for their Spanish masters. In both arrangements, work was greatly hampered by the death of so many Amerindians. Often the plantations and mines had too few workers to function, and the **mit'a** system broke down as the Spanish first increased the time commitments, but eventually could not make it work as it had under the

Inca rulers. As a result, the Spanish and Portuguese turned more and more to importing slaves from Africa.

The Portuguese sugar plantations had always relied on slave labor, and even after disease killed so many natives, slave raiders forged inland to find new workers in more remote areas. Importing slaves was more expensive, but the Africans proved to be more resistant to disease, so in the long run, were better investments. In Mexican and Peruvian mines, the mit'a eventually gave way to a system of wage workers, who were paid good wages to take on the dangerous work. The amount of silver produced rose dramatically in the late 16th century as the population stabilized, and for several decades, silver from Spanish mines dramatically affected the world economy, and made Spain one of the richest states in the world. Mining stimulated the Spanish American economy, and rural estates (called haciendas) produced abundant food for the workers, and small textile shops made their clothing.

The silver mines were a mixed blessing for the Spanish. Since Spanish galleons crossing through the Caribbean and the Atlantic toward Spain were almost always carrying silver, pirates often attacked them, as did ships from rival European countries. Silver that did arrive in Spain flowed out of the country to pay for its many wars with England, France, and the Ottoman Empire, and to buy manufactured goods through the long-distance trade networks. So much silver went into circulation that prices rose sharply, setting off an inflation that greatly wounded the Spanish economy.

Society in Colonial Latin America

The political and economic structures put in place by Spain and Portugal greatly impacted social classes and practices. Since Amerindians were seen by the Iberians as their subjects, the greatest societal division was that between European and Amerindian. The political administrators, military leaders and soldiers, and plantation and mine owners were European; the workers were Amerindian. The old Aztec and Inca class distinctions were wiped away, as all were treated the same by Europeans. Once Spanish and Portuguese children were born in the New World, a distinction arose between those born in the Old World (**peninsulares**) and those born in the new (**creoles**). Over time, the peninsulares faded, and creoles came to dominate politics and the economy. However, few women came over from Spain and Portugal, so Spanish soldiers and officials took native wives and mistresses, and their children – part European and part Amerindian – were called **mestizos**. Once African slaves arrived in the new world, another dimension for social distinctions was added. People who were of both European and African descent were called **mulattoes**, and together with the mestizos they composed the **castas**, a middle-level status between Europeans at the top, and Amerindians and blacks at the bottom.

The Spanish and Portuguese carried their traditional patriarchal societies across the ocean, and fathers had a great deal of authority over their children. Women were subordinate to men, and could not hold political positions or run plantations or mines. However, a woman with a dowry (payment made to her husband at marriage) maintained control of it throughout the marriage. Widows often carried on family businesses after husbands died, and women also had full rights to inheritance.

THE EXPLORATION AND SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA

Three other European powers set their sights on land in the Americas: the Netherlands, Britain, and France. The Netherlands developed as a center of trade during the High Middle Ages, and unlike the Iberian Catholics, the Dutch Protestants were not particularly interested in spreading their religion to new lands. Instead, their religious zeal was channeled by the **Protestant work ethic** that encouraged individual endeavors toward gaining wealth. Newly empowered by independence of the Netherlands from Spain in the late 16th century, shrewd Dutch businessmen noticed that Portugal was losing control of the Indian Ocean trade by the early 17th century. Dutch ships headed toward eastern destinations, where they bought luxury goods from east and Southeast Asia and sold them for a profit in Europe. They prospered partly because many Muslims preferred to trade with them since the Protestants did not try to convert them to Christianity as the Portuguese Catholics attempted to do. However, the Dutch, like the Portuguese, were not averse to using their cannon to back up business deals. The Dutch, like the British and French, organized **joint-stock companies** to share the risk of their business ventures, with the largest and most famous one being the Dutch East India Company that specialized in the spice and luxury trade of the East Indies. The company quickly gained control of Dutch trading in the Pacific during the early 17th century, and by the late 17th century they shifted their attention to the trans-Atlantic African slave trade. Meanwhile the Dutch also crossed the Atlantic, and in 1624 the Dutch West India Company established the colony of New Netherland with its capital located on Manhattan Island in North America.

The British got a rather late start in their colonization efforts, partly as a result of an internal power struggle – The War of the Roses – that took their attention and drained their resources during the 15th century. Struggles between Catholics and Anglicans resulted from Henry VIII’s establishment of the Anglican Church in the early 16th century, but by the reign of his daughter, Elizabeth I, England demonstrated its superior naval power when its fleet defeated the Spanish Armada in 1588. Their first venture to North America was a disappointment – Sir Walter Raleigh’s “Lost Colony” on the Carolina coast failed – but by the early 1600s, they had founded several joint-stock companies to begin English settle-

ment of the eastern coast of North America. Beginning with Jamestown (Virginia) in 1607, the British established diverse colonies up and down the coast. Puritans, who had broken with Anglican England, settled in Massachusetts; Quakers under the guidance of William Penn sought refuge in New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and Catholics found respite in Maryland. The joint-stock companies intended to make profits, and many that came to North America under their sponsorship had economic rather than religious goals. In 1664 the English solidified their control of the Atlantic coast from Massachusetts south when they seized New Netherlands from the Dutch to rename it "New York." This victory came on the heels of two successful wars against the Dutch that secured England's status as the world's leading naval power by the late 17th century.

Like England, France entered the race for colonies in the Americas rather late. They explored the waterways of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the St. Lawrence River to establish colonies at Port Royal (Nova Scotia) in 1604 and Quebec in 1608. French explorers eventually set up forts along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, and French colonies were founded in the Caribbean as well. As in all other European colonies in the New World, control of the French colonies ultimately rested with the king. The French, like the Spanish and Portuguese, were also interested in converting natives to Catholicism, so some of the early inhabitants were Jesuit priests. The French were particularly interested in the strong European fur market. French fur traders set up traps along the waterways and involved natives in the trade as well. They exchanged guns, textiles, and alcohol for furs, a practice that not only led to over hunting, but also put firearms into the hands of Amerindians that they later used in confrontations with European settlers, making warfare more deadly. Even though the fur trade flourished, population in French colonies grew more slowly than in English colonies. The cold Canadian colonies held little appeal for French settlers, and France did not allow Protestant Huguenots to settle in their North American colonies. Also, the lifestyle of fur traders, constantly on the move to follow traps and trade deals with natives, was not conducive to family life. In contrast, the English colonies were often settled by families, who came to farm and to provide work for the joint-stock companies.

The English and Dutch governments tried to control the economies of their colonies in the Americas through **mercantilism**, a system in which they intervened in the market constantly, with the understanding that the goal of economic gain was to benefit the mother country. The official policy was that goods and services that originated in the home country could be exported to colonies only and all colonial exports had to go to the home country. Whether the government controlled the economy directly, as it did in France, Spain, and Portugal, or through government-endorsed joint-stock companies, as happened in England and the Netherlands, New World endeavors expanded the mother

country's economy far beyond its borders, helping to tilt the balance of power in the world toward Europe.

Governments in North America

Because Dutch and English colonies were often privately financed by joint-stock companies, their governments were more likely to have more independence from the mother country than Latin American colonies, which were financed directly by the kings. In North America a company charter spelled out the responsibilities and rights of the colonists, so the governments weren't all organized exactly the same. Alternately, Maryland was a proprietary colony, granted to Lord Baltimore himself and not to a stock company. When the Virginia Company (a joint-stock company) failed, the king assumed control of its lands, making Virginia a royal colony directly under his control. In English colonies, the governments had assemblies, often with two houses that mimicked the House of Lords and the House of Commons in the mother country, and just as the lords and commoners in England had asserted in earlier centuries, the colonists came to think that they should share with the king to right to determine their own rules and regulations. No powerful, authoritarian viceroys were set up, and no large urban areas comparable to Mexico City or Lima developed till much later.

Relations with Amerindians

In contrast to the densely populated Aztec and Inca Empires, the Amerindian populations in North America were generally small in the areas that the Dutch, British, and French explored and settled. Most practiced slash-and-burn agriculture or other semi-nomadic life styles, so European colonists could displace them rather easily, usually forcing them further inland. North American natives were just as susceptible to the diseases brought by Europeans, so their populations were further reduced as more settlers arrived. As Amerindians were pushed westward, some adapted to their new environments by hunting rather than agriculture, a lifestyle made possible by the earlier introduction of horses by the Spanish in Mexico during the 16th century. As some Amerindian groups migrated away from the Europeans, they intruded into lands claimed by other natives, setting off numerous territorial wars. Although Europeans interacted with North American natives, sometimes cooperating with them and sometimes mistreating them, they did not have to conquer any powerful empires as the Spanish had to do in order to control Latin America.

Less rigid social classes developed in the English colonies based on ethnicity, such as the mestizos of Latin America, partly because the European and Amerindian groups led separate lives in the early days. With Amerindians out of the way, the colonies were composed of all English people, and so there were

fewer differences among them to form the basis for social class distinctions. Intermingling of blood did take place, but was more common as settlers pressed westward. The southern English colonies developed strict social classes between blacks and whites, and anyone of mixed race was considered to be black, even though the term “mulatto” was used as it was in Latin America. The English believed that blacks and native people were inferior people, but because they maintained strict geographical boundaries between natives and Europeans, the social classes that developed within the middle and northern colonies were mainly among Europeans (except in the south), and were more fluid than in Latin America, where the races were in closer everyday proximity. French trappers, on the other hand, often took native wives, and the French relationship



PERSPECTIVES: HOW NATIVES AND NEWCOMERS SAW ONE ANOTHER

As Europeans came to the Americas during the period 1450-1750, conflicts arose between natives and the newcomers, with Amerindian rebellions continuing through the 19th century. From the beginning, each side saw the other through the lens of their respective cultures, as reflected in the quotes below.

“We consider ourselves...much happier than thou, in this that we are very content with the little that we have...[We] find all our riches and all our conveniences among ourselves, without trouble, without exposing our lives to the dangers in which you find yourselves constantly through your long voyages.”

An anonymous Quebec Indian leader to French settlers

“In respect to us, they are a people poor, and for want of skill and judgement in the knowledge and use of our things, do esteem our trifles before things of great value...[It] may be hoped, if means of good government be used, that they may in short time be brought to civility, and the embracing of true religion.”

Captain Arthur Barlowe, describing natives in Virginia



COMPARATIVE COLONIES IN THE AMERICAS

LATIN AMERICA

Encomienda, mit'a, and slave labor systems developed.

Many single men came as soldiers from Europe and married native women.

Governments were authoritarian viceroyalties with no assemblies and elaborate bureaucracies.

Amerindians were forced into labor by Europeans.

Social structures were hierarchical, with several classes strictly based on ethnicity.

NORTH AMERICA

Labor systems that developed were slavery and indentured servitude.

More families came, and so less intermarriage took place until settlers began moving west.

Governments operated more independently from the kings, with assemblies and less elaborate bureaucracies.

Amerindians were usually pushed aside and not used as a labor force.

Social classes were hierarchical in the southern colonies (based on black vs. white), but generally less hierarchical and rigid than in Latin America.

with natives was generally more cooperative, especially since they shared fur-trapping responsibilities and rights.

Because most of the English colonists came to settle in North America, whether as a result of religious persecution or the desire to make economic gains, most of them farmed or went into trade, so forced labor systems developed differently than those in Latin America, where encomienda and mit'a systems predominated. Slaves were brought to North America, just as they were to the Caribbean and to Brazil, but were not practical in areas with small farms, such as New England. In the English middle colonies, another type of compulsory labor appeared: **indentured servitude**. An indentured servant was usually ethnically the same as a free settler, but he or she was bound by an "indenture" (contract)

to work for a person for four to seven years in exchange for payment of the voyage to the New World. At the end of the contract, the indentured servant would often get a small piece of land, tools, and clothing.

GLOBAL EXCHANGES

Once European ships were regularly crossing the Atlantic and venturing into the Pacific Ocean as well, the sustained contact between hemispheres had profound implications for almost all areas of the world, not just for Europe and the Americas. Some of the new exchanges were biological – plants, food, animals, human beings, and disease – and others were commercial, involving manufactured goods, non-biological raw materials, and money. Both types of exchanges combined to establish global networks of trade and communications such as had not been seen before in world history.

The Columbian Exchange

The **Columbian Exchange** was the global diffusion of crops, other plants, human beings, animals, and disease that took place after the European exploratory voyages to the New World of the late 15th and 16th centuries. More than previous diffusions, the Columbian Exchange put people of the world in touch with biological species that were radically different from what they had known before. In previous times, species had developed separately, resulting in an almost completely different set of flora and fauna in the Western and Eastern Hemisphere, as well as in Oceania. When these worlds were brought together, people had access to all three, bringing about vast changes in natural environment, health, and demographic patterns.

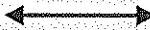
A dramatic demographic change occurred in the New World with astoundingly high death rates among Amerindians as a result of contact with Europeans. Because of their long isolation, they had no immunities to smallpox, influenza, typhus, measles, and diphtheria, and once diseases were communicated, they spread rapidly, killing the majority of the people. Smallpox was the deadliest of the early epidemics, but often it combined with other diseases to increase mortality rates even more. Death rates were highest in densely populated areas, such as the Aztec and Inca empires, but they spread to other areas as well. Persistent accusations were made that Europeans spread their diseases on purpose, but only limited historical proof has been found to support them. However, the exchange worked both ways, and by the mid-17th century, European immigrants to the Caribbean were dying of malaria, a disease found in the tropical country along the Gulf of Mexico. As Europeans made their way into Oceania, contagious diseases spread to many previously unexposed people, resulting in high death tolls, although on a smaller scale than in the Americas.

As devastating as the disease pathogens were, the Columbian Exchange also had some very positive consequences, and over time, it probably increased rather than decreased world population overall. Supplies of food increased so that people were less likely to go hungry in times of drought or local food shortages. The variety of available food increased with the exchange, giving people wider access to an assortment of nutrients necessary for good health. Even though it took some time to adjust to new types of food, caloric intake increased in many areas, a trend especially important for growing children.

NEW EXCHANGES IN THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE

The Americas

beans, squash,
tomatoes, sweet potatoes,
peanuts, chilis,
chocolate, maize (corn),
potatoes, avocados,
pineapple, manioc



The Eastern Hemisphere

wheat, rice, olives, grapes, bananas,
rice, citrus fruits, melons, figs, sugar,
coconuts
horses, cattle, pigs, sheep, goats,
chickens, rabbits, rats

The introduction of European livestock greatly altered the environment and life styles of people in many parts of the Americas. Because they had no natural predators (except people) in their new environment, cattle, pigs, horses, and sheep multiplied rapidly so that herds of wild animals roamed the plains of Argentina and northern New Spain. They destroyed natural vegetation, but they also supplied meat, milk, hides, and wool. Probably the single most important new animal was the horse, which allowed natives to travel much further than before, pursue buffalo herds, hunt more efficiently, and wage a different type of warfare.

The Great Circuit and the Atlantic Economy

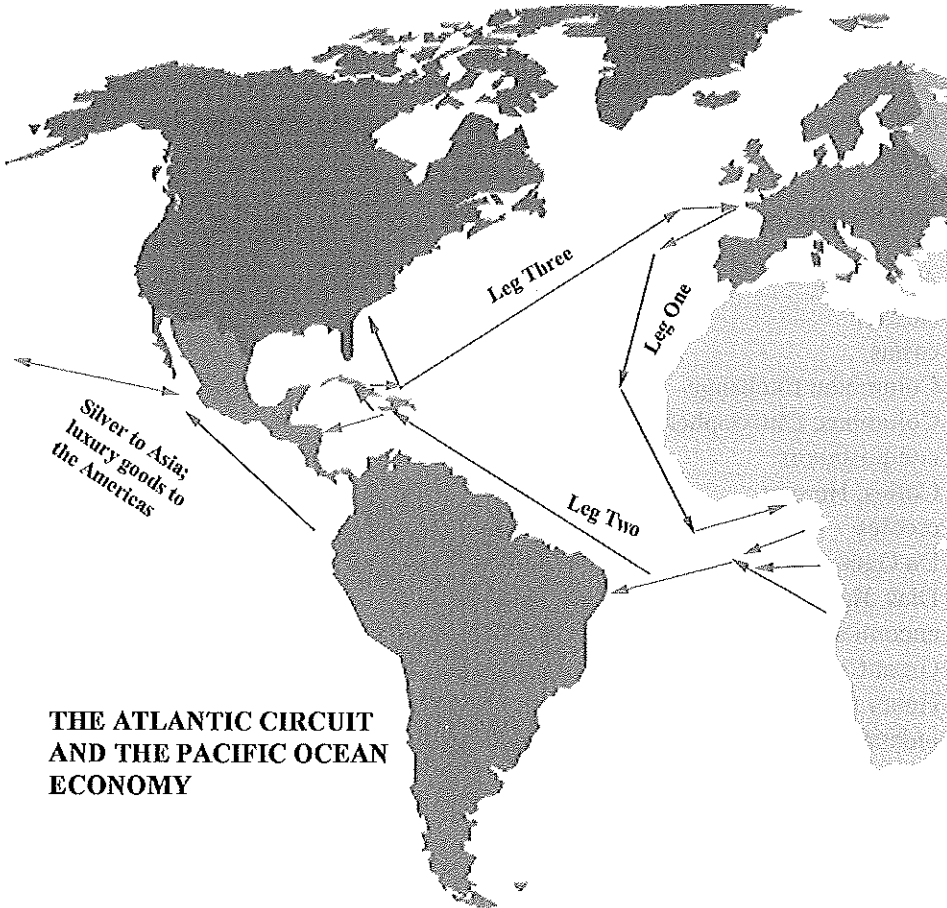
The voyages of discovery not only revolutionized biological exchanges, but they allowed the economic innovations developing in Europe to magnify, as capitalism, especially in the form of mercantilism, was applied to exchanges across the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The joint-stock companies began the process in North America, as did the government-sponsored expeditions in Latin America. Investors sought profits in the production and export of colonial products, some native and some introduced from the Old World. For example, Europeans learned about the uses of tobacco from natives and found that Virginia and North Carolina were good places for tobacco to grow to be shipped

to Europe. Sugar, on the other hand, originated in the Eastern Hemisphere, but Brazil and the Caribbean Islands became the world's principal sources of sugar by 1700. Sugar, by the nature of its production, had to be raised on large plantations because raw sugar cane could not survive the voyage from the New World to the Old. The cane had to be processed before it was shipped, so the producer had to not only maintain the growing fields but a processing plant as well. This investment was quite large, and only a few could afford it, so small farmers could not survive, and only large plantations with many workers could be successful. After some early attempts to use indentured servants in the Caribbean, most plantation owners settled on slave labor, since indentured servants had few opportunities to establish their own farms on islands where land was already claimed by plantations.

New products, experimentation with labor systems, new methods of transportation, new lands, and capitalistic enterprise all combined to create a clockwise network of sea routes known as the **Atlantic Circuit**. Ships first went from Europe to Africa, where they carried guns, cotton textiles, and other manufactured goods to sell at ports along the western coast of Africa. Some ships returned to Europe with gold, ivory, and other traditional African products, but many loaded slaves to be taken on the next leg of the circuit – known as the **Middle Passage** – across the Atlantic to the New World. Most were destined for the Caribbean and Brazil, but some came to the southern English colonies and other parts of Latin America. On the third part of the circuit, ships laden with goods produced in the New World were taken to Europe, where they began the circuit all over again. New world products included sugar, tobacco, gold, silver, and food crops. Ships also crossed the Pacific, most notably the **Manila galleons**, which crossed between Manila in the Philippines, where they picked up Asian luxury goods, and Acapulco on the west coast of Mexico, where they loaded their large cargo areas with silver.

By the late 16th century European mariners had connected many ports of the world. By 1750 they had stimulated world trade networks that linked almost all parts of the world, with the notable exception of Australia. The trade patterns established during this time period continued in later times, so that those that profited most – generally the Europeans – gained not only economic power, but political and social control as well.

The period 1450-1750 brought tremendous change to the Americas. In previous eras the Western Hemisphere had developed in relative isolation from the rest of the world, but by 1750 its people were brought into sustained contact with others, and the Americas became an integral part of the world trade network. As a result, the first truly global economy developed in which changes in one part



THE ATLANTIC CIRCUIT AND THE PACIFIC OCEAN ECONOMY

New Trade Routes – 1450-1750. European ships loaded with manufactured goods (Leg One) stopped first in Africa, sold goods and reloaded with slaves on the Middle Passage headed for the New World (Leg Two), and finally headed home again (Leg Three) loaded with colonial products. Spanish galleons (ships designed with large hulls to hold the silver) also headed from the New World to Manila in the Philippines, where they traded silver for Asian luxury goods.

of the world potentially impacted many other areas. The old Aztec and Inca empires were toppled, and were replaced by Spanish and Portuguese vicerealties in Latin America, and natives of more sparsely populated North America were pushed inland and westward by English settlers. Natives along interior waterways came in contact with French trappers, who cooperated with them in a thriving fur trade that served international markets. Environmental and demographic changes occurred as well. Newly introduced plants and animals changed diets and lifestyles, and in turn altered the natural environment. Population increases in Europe spurred interest in the New World, since opportunities in Europe became more competitive, and new business and transportation

innovations allowed migrations from Europe to the Americas. Dramatic population decreases in the native population occurred during the 16th century as a result of exposure to European diseases, but populations later rebounded as the nutritional and economic benefits of the Columbian Exchange began to take effect.

IDENTIFICATIONS AND CONCEPTS

Atahualpa
 caravel
 castas
 Columbian Exchange
 Columbus, Christopher
 conquistadors
 Cortes, Hernan
 creoles
 Da Gama, Vasco
 Dias, Barthomew
 encomienda, encomenderos
 Great Circuit, Atlantic Circuit
 Henry the Navigator
 indentured servitude
 joint-stock companies
 Las Casas, Bartholomé de
 Magellan, Ferdinand
 Manila galleons
 mercantilism
 mestizos
 Middle Passage
 mit'a
 Moctezuma
 mulattos
 peninsulares
 Pizarro, Francisco
 Protestant work ethic
 Treaty of Tordesillas
 viceroalties, viceroys
 Yongle
 Zheng He